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# *The American Review of Reviews*

Albert Shaw



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# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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**THE COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF OF THE NAVY AND THE COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF  
OF THE FLEET.**

**President Roosevelt and Rear-Admiral Evans, who commands the American fleet on its cruise  
to the Pacific.**

**(Photographed on the *Mayflower* at Hampton Roads on the morning of the departure, December 16.)**

# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

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No. 1

## THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*The  
Third-Term  
Movement.*

The movement to force a third term upon President Roosevelt had begun to assume not only a great and swelling volume, but also an organized and definite character, when it was checked and probably thwarted by a formal announcement from the White House on December 11. In the vicinity of New York City, it is true, there were many who believed that Mr. Roosevelt's popularity was fast waning, and that the third-term sentiment could not have carried the national Republican convention even if the President had given it his tacit encouragement. But this Wall Street notion that the President's strength with the people was abating did not have much evidence to support it. Several of the States were preparing for very early Republican conventions, in which delegates pledged to President Roosevelt were to have been chosen by way of example to the rest of the country. Attempts to fasten upon the President a culpable responsibility for the financial panic had only resulted in the clear bringing to light of a contrary opinion; for it became more and more evident that Republicans and Democrats alike throughout the length and breadth of the land were disposed to lay all the blame for the country's financial difficulties upon the managers of great corporate and financial interests. Undoubtedly public opinion went much too far in pronouncing its verdicts of guilt upon Wall Street and upon trusts and corporations in general. Everybody had helped to build up the great edifice of expanded credit, and the reaction in some form or other was bound to come. But here our question is, How was the reaction affecting the political strength of President Roosevelt? And the answer is, according to the best evidence we can gather, that the country was standing with the President very solidly, and was overwhelmingly anxious to keep him in office.

*Mr.  
Roosevelt's  
Position.*

But Mr. Roosevelt all his life has been a close student of American political history. And he has never for a moment wished or intended to go counter to the established tradition that forbids a third consecutive term. His declaration on election night in November, 1904, was a mature and convincing statement that the country fully accepted. Unquestionably, that statement has helped to give strength and weight to the President's policies; for no one has been able to say that he was acting with reference to a control of the next convention in his own interest. But although the President's own personal position has been clear and unambiguous, it is not strange that the third-term movement should have seemed for a time to have been beyond any possible checking or control. Hundreds and thousands of the most experienced political observers in the country were saying in private, if not in public, that the next national convention would beyond doubt be stampeded for the President; that he would be nominated and elected in spite of himself, and that he could not on any proper ground decline to take the oath of office and serve as President if the electoral college chose to continue him in the White House for four years more.

*His  
Unequalled  
Strength.*

This feeling was due to several causes. First of all was the President's marvelous popularity, regardless of party lines, and the eager conviction of the masses of plain people that Mr. Roosevelt is the real leader for our times, and that he is needed for the further development of his policies. Second, and closely akin, was the feeling on the part of State and local politicians that with no other name at the head of the ticket could they so easily carry their States and secure Republican victories in all their local contests. Thus there was a belief even among Democratic politicians that, be-

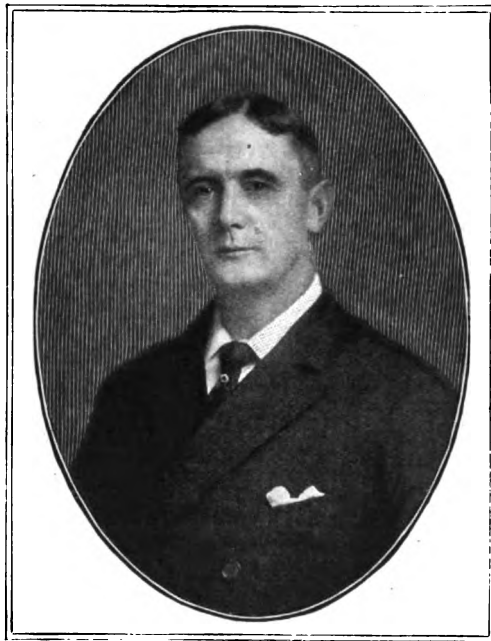


sides carrying the safely Republican States, Mr. Roosevelt could carry Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Missouri (which he carried in 1904 by 30,000 majority), and that he would have even a good chance in North Carolina. Distinguished Democrats in Atlanta have intimated that Mr. Roosevelt might also carry Georgia. It is easy to see then why local Republican politicians, wishing to elect State and county tickets, should have clung to the hope that Mr. Roosevelt could be induced to take the nomination. Further than that, there are many federal officeholders who have been appointed by the President, and who would on all grounds be glad to have their chief remain at the head of the Government. If some of these officeholders had not participated in the third-term talk, their reserve would have been without precedent in the history of politics. In answer to criticisms launched against the undue activity of some of these officials, it is enough to say that the third-term movement, in so far as it had strength, was genuine and spontaneous, and that it was neither helped nor hindered appreciably by anybody's schemes or designs. Some weeks ago President Roosevelt had been informed that certain officeholders were openly advocating his renomination, and he issued orders that Government employees must not enter district or State conventions with a view to forcing him into the position of a candidate.

*The  
Latest  
Statement.*

Still another reason for the great strength and persistence of the third-term movement was the lack of any other name to conjure with. Everybody was ready to admit that the Republican party possessed a number of men who would make good Presidents, but there seemed to be no one as yet who had appealed to the popular mind and heart, and therefore it was a serious question whether anybody but Roosevelt could beat Bryan. When the Republican National Committee met at Washington in the first week of December to choose a place for the holding of the convention and to do other work of a preliminary sort, the political atmosphere was overcharged with rumors. When the committee visited the White House to pay its respects to the President, it was believed that Mr. Roosevelt would remove the perplexities that weighted the minds of the political managers by making a final declaration. He put it off, however, for a few days, until the committee had dispersed and the convention call had

been issued. At this point it may well be recorded that the nominating convention will be held in Chicago on June 16. Mr. Harry S. New, of Indiana, succeeds Mr. Cortelyou as chairman of the National Republican Committee for the period in which conven-



Photograph by Pach Bros., N. Y.

HON. HARRY S. NEW.

(Chairman of the Republican National Committee.)

tion arrangements are to be made. It is customary for purposes of the campaign itself that the Presidential candidate should name the chairman of the committee. On the 11th of December there was issued from the White House a statement as follows:

In view of the issuance of the call of the Republican National Committee for the convention, the President makes the following statement:

On the night after election I made the following announcement:

"I am deeply sensible of the honor done me by the American people in thus expressing their confidence in what I have done and have tried to do. I appreciate to the full the solemn responsibility this confidence imposes upon me, and I shall do all that in my power lies not to forfeit it. On the fourth of March next I shall have served three and a half years, and this three and a half years constitute my first term. The wise custom which limits the President to two terms regards the substance and not the form, and under no circumstances will I be a candidate for or accept another nomination."

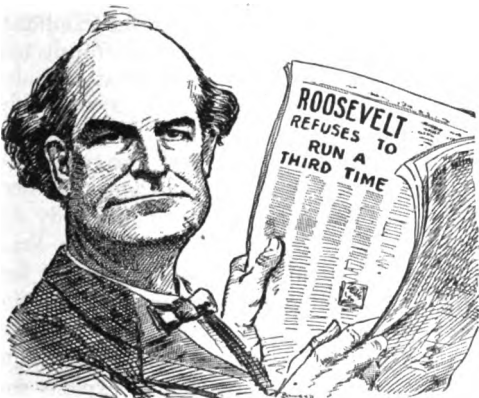
I have not changed and shall not change the decision thus announced.

*How  
It Was  
Accepted.*

The President has in public as well as in private reiterated this declaration many times since it was first made, in 1904. It was not necessary for him to speak again, yet the somewhat perplexed and discouraged friends of various candidates desired a renewed announcement, and the President of course had no objection to gratifying them. The psychology of masses of men is hard to understand. Just why this last statement should be received as conclusive, while doubt should have been cast upon identical statements made a little earlier, is not for us to discuss. It is enough to say that the politicians who were proposing to hold early conventions in several States and pledge their delegates to Mr. Roosevelt will probably refrain from such a course. Other candidates will now be permitted to test the sentiment of the people, and from this time forth the game will be played with much activity and zest.

*The  
Electoral  
Process.*

Meanwhile it is well to call attention to the peculiarities of our system of electing a President. In the strict and official sense it is not a candidate for the Presidency who is presented for the suffrages of the voters, but rather a group of Presidential electors in each State. The people choose the electors and the electors choose a President. If the Chicago convention should declare that in its judgment the Presidential electors in the several States ought to cast their ballots for Mr. Roosevelt for the Presidency, and should decline to nominate anybody else, the men nominated as Republican electors in their several States would if elected doubtless cast their votes for Mr. Roosevelt. And if the Republicans



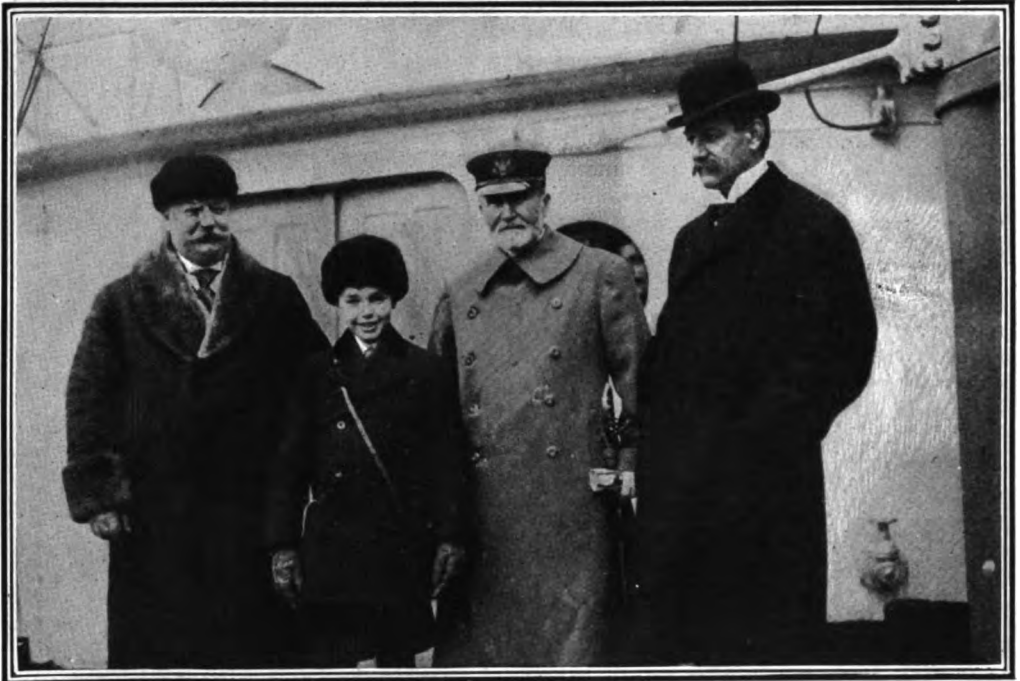
BRYAN: "I have no such scruples."  
From the *Evening Journal* (Jersey City).



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THE PRESIDENT GIVING HIS FINAL INSTRUCTIONS  
TO REAR-ADMIRAL EVANS, BEFORE THE START  
OF FLEET ON THE PACIFIC CRUISE,  
DECEMBER 16.

should have a majority in the electoral college, Mr. Roosevelt would be declared elected when the votes were counted in due form. Under those circumstances, it is not to be supposed that any man could decline to take the oath of office if in possession of his physical and mental powers. Mr. Roosevelt has not said that he would refuse to serve as President if elected. He has merely said that he would not accept a nomination. His platform is contained in his last message to Congress. If the American people chose to make him President, no acceptance of a nomination would be absolutely necessary. Yet while all this is theoretically true, and ought not to be forgotten, it is not to be supposed that anything of the sort is at all likely to happen. Nor has any one thought of sug-



Photograph by Charles M. Clark, Philadelphia.

THE ARRIVAL OF SECRETARY WILLIAM H. TAFT AT NEW YORK, ON DECEMBER 20.

(From left to right: Secretary Taft, his son Charles, General Frederick D. Grant, and the Secretary's brother, Mr. Henry W. Taft, of New York.)

gesting that Mr. Roosevelt's statement lacked anything of sincerity or completeness. There is no possible reason why he should say that if the American people elected him President he would refuse to take the oath of office. Our party forms have become so well established that they are like unwritten clauses of the organic law.

*Taft  
and  
Foraker.*

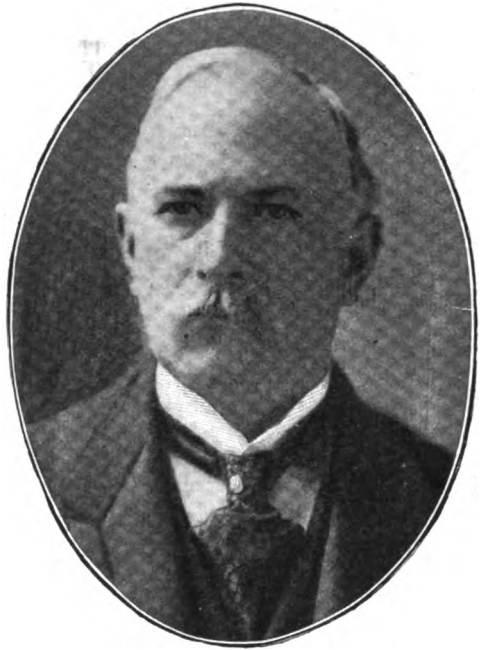
It is probable that when the convention assembles at Chicago, no candidate will have the support of anything like a majority of the delegates. The most prominent candidate is Mr. Taft, Secretary of War, who arrived in this country on December 20, having sailed from a German port December 7. Mr. Taft found that the support of his own State was disputed by Senator Joseph B. Foraker, who had declared himself a Presidential candidate in response to an invitation from the Republican clubs of Ohio. To state the matter precisely, Mr. Foraker was indorsed for re-election to the Senate and also for the Republican nomination for the Presidency at a joint meeting of the executive and advisory committees of the Ohio League of Republican Clubs, on

November 20. The resolutions adopted by this League repudiated the idea that Mr. Foraker should be retired to private life "because he was not able to agree with President Roosevelt as to the rate bill, or joint statehood for New Mexico and Arizona, or about the Brownsville matter." Mr. Foraker's letter in reply was made public November 29. He declared that he did not wish to appear as a candidate for two offices at the same time, and he accepted "with heartfelt appreciation the support for the Presidential candidacy which the committees have so generously tendered." His letter in a somewhat extended manner expressed resentment against the "suggestion that the office of United States Senator is to be stripped of all the real honor attached to it by making its incumbent a mere agent to register the decrees of somebody else instead of the representative of a State charged with the constitutional duty of legislating according to his best judgment for the welfare of a great nation, accountable to his constituency for his acts and votes, but to nobody else." He proceeds to explain and defend his course in the Senate, as if his right to act freely had been denied.

Mr.  
Foraker's  
Contention.

It does not seem to us that Mr. Foraker is justified in attempting to make a public issue out of such a question, inasmuch as nobody could properly dispute his thesis. The Senate has its constitutional powers and prerogatives and its place of dignity. For a good many years past, instead of its being subordinated to other departments of the Government, the common criticism has been that the Senate had become too dominant. Speaker Cannon and the House of Representatives have been deeply indignant at the undue pretensions of the Senate; and the Executive for many years past has found the Senate anything but readily acquiescent. Mr. Foraker will not succeed in convincing the country that President Roosevelt or any other President in recent times has been able to dictate to the Senate. That body has shown itself more than able to take care of itself. A real difficulty about the Senate is its failure to represent the people in a duly proportionate manner. And this is one of the reasons why Senator Foraker's course with regard to joint statehood seemed open to criticism. It is altogether wrong that Arizona and New Mexico should come into the Union as States with four Senators. They have not a sufficient development of trained population or of established institutions to justify their balancing in the Senate great States like Ohio, Pennsylvania, or New York. Mr. Foraker is a very brilliant member of the Senate, a public speaker of great power, and a man who has a strong hold upon his fellow citizens of the Buckeye State. He had a perfect right to his own views upon ques-

tions that came before the Senate, and surely nobody interfered with his expression of those views, inasmuch as he was able by his opposition to certain measures to shape the delibera-



HON. JOSEPH B. FORAKER, OF OHIO.

tions of the Senatorial body during most of the session. He was in a very small minority on several of these questions among his Republican brethren of the Senate; yet he had his own way for more days in that distinguished body than any other man has had for a long period of years. Surely then he will not be able to convince the public that anybody has been able to interfere with the free exercise of all his prerogatives as a Senator. His debating of the rate bill was brilliant and cogent and well worth while. His persistent forcing of the Brownsville issue was a masterful piece of work. His attitude against joint statehood defeated the pending bill. Since he was so successful, therefore, he has no ground of complaint.



THE RIVALS.

FORAKER: "Just wait till she sees me in this coat and hat."—From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).

It would now seem more than likely that the Ohio contest will end with Mr. Taft's strong indorsement for the Presidency and Mr. Foraker's equally strong indorsement for re-election to the Senate. The managers in Ohio of Mr. Taft's campaign deny that the committees endorsing Mr. Foraker were repre-

The  
Taft  
Candidacy.

sentative. But this criticism is not important. The thing that signifies is Mr. Foraker's acceptance of the indorsement. It is the opinion of the country that Mr. Taft's managers in Ohio have not been very wise or dignified in their methods. Mr. Taft occupies a great public office and has served the country for a good many years with prestige and distinction. He is well-known from one end of the land to another, and the fact of his candidacy has nowhere escaped observation. It would seem quite sufficient to let public opinion and the Republican party do the rest. Any semblance of a scrambling for delegates on the part of those regarded as authorized to act for Mr. Taft will do him more harm than good. President Roosevelt has not the slightest desire to dictate to the party or to the country. Undoubtedly for a good while it has been his opinion that Mr. Taft would make an admirable President, and that he would very probably prove the most available candidate. Mr. Roosevelt, being a frank man, could not well hold such a view without having it become known. And there is no reason why he should have kept that opinion as a secret. But the Administration is engaged in carrying on the work of the Government, and it is not using its influence or power to promote the selection of Mr. Roosevelt's successor. Mr. Taft has dignity as well as knowledge and experience, and he knows that the Presidency is not a thing to be sought with any eagerness of striving. Those who favor him have a right to work hard to secure delegates, but they must be careful not to put Mr. Taft in a wrong light before the public.

*The Emergence  
of Governor  
Hughes.*

There seems no longer any doubt as to the emergence of Governor Hughes of New York as a Presidential candidate. If he has desired to be brought forward, he has not made such a desire apparent in any way. He has been Governor of New York for one year only, and has never before held office, nor had he been known to the public except in connection with some important investigations, such as that of the insurance companies. Yet he has made a great impression upon the people of the State of New York, and it was generally admitted last month that he would command the support of the New York delegates in the national convention. It must always be remembered that politicians do not support a man for high office because they admire his character and talents (although



GOVERNOR HUGHES COMING OUT OF ECLIPSE.  
From the *Times-Union* (Albany).

they do not undervalue those things), but because they believe he can lead them to victory. Governor Hughes made an amazing canvass against Mr. Hearst in the autumn of 1906, and demonstrated his ability to carry the State, where the odds seemed against him. The Republicans of the country at large do not know very much about Mr. Hughes, but all that they have heard is in his favor as a man of high personal and public qualifications. Beyond this, what they know is that he carried the State of New York in a hard fight. It seems wholly likely, therefore, that New York, and perhaps New England, may support Governor Hughes in the Chicago convention.

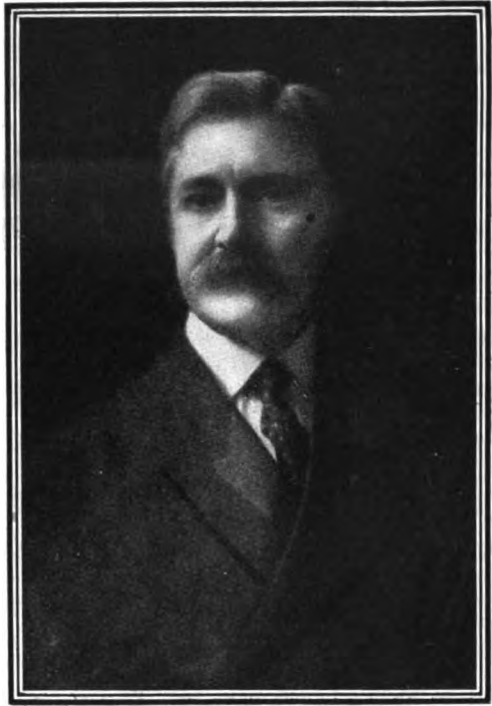
*Mr. Cortelyou  
in the  
Limelight.*

It is at least three months too soon to predict what growth the Taft and Hughes movements may have before them. There is no possible reason for other than generous and appreciative competition. Following his commendable activities as Secretary of the Treasury at the time of the panic, there arose a widespread discussion in political circles of the possibility of making Mr. Cortelyou the Republican nominee. That a great deal of active work was being done in the promotion of the so-called "Cortelyou movement" was

asserted with some apparent grounds of truth. It was also said that in certain States the third-term movement was being pushed by officeholders as a mask for the Cortelyou boom. On December 17 Mr. Cortelyou came out in a dignified statement of general denial. Mr. Cortelyou has met the test of some great responsibilities. He seems never to have disappointed the expectations of those who gave him work to do, whether private or public. The positions he has filled, including that of chairman of the Republican National Committee, have given him an extensive acquaintance among public men. Those who have been most closely associated with him seem always to be the ones who admire him most and trust him most completely. Mr. Roosevelt had reason to know him well before he put him in the cabinet and before he made him his campaign manager. More than almost any other man in public life, Mr. Cortelyou has learned the lesson of self-control. He will not, therefore, allow the buzzing of the Presidential bee to distract his attention from his duties as Secretary of the Treasury, nor to weaken his usefulness as a member of Mr. Roosevelt's cabinet. His friends have a right to mention him for the Presidency, and if the Republican party wants him it will know where to find him. It is not at present likely that there will be any strong attempt made by the Cortelyou men to take the New York delegates away from Governor Hughes.

*Some  
Other  
Candidates.*

Meanwhile Senator Knox, who will be presented by the Pennsylvania delegation, has many good words said about him throughout the country; and Speaker Cannon, who will be presented by the Illinois delegation, seems likely to prove a more active candidate than was at first expected. The candidacy of Vice-President Fairbanks has not of late been so much noticed in the press as that of several other men. But it will doubtless be brought into prominence again by reason of the decision of the Republican managers in Indiana to hold their conventions early next month, and to select their delegates at once with instructions to support Mr. Fairbanks. He will thus be the first of the so-called "favorite sons" to be officially launched by the party authorities of his State. The friends of Senator La Follette of Wisconsin take his candidacy with entire seriousness, and believe that the only chance for Republican victory this year is with an aggressive Western candidate of rad-



GOVERNOR ALBERT B. CUMMINS, OF IOWA.

ical views and a record of achievement. Finally there is Governor Cummins of Iowa, whose friends have not been insistent in their mention of him, but who has elements of strength that may shine out boldly when the convention is trying to reach final conclusions. Governor Cummins has a strong personality, is well known to represent the Rooseveltian policies in the broad sense, is a strong but not fanatical advocate of tariff reform, has been a successful Governor for three terms, is a lawyer of high professional standing, and is free from any disqualifying circumstance of public record or private life. His availability is positive as well as negative.

*Denver  
for the  
Democrats.*

The Democratic National Committee met at Washington in December and selected Denver as the place for holding the party's convention, the date being July 7, which is just three weeks later than the Republican convention at Chicago. Denver is building a splendid new auditorium; and in addition to other inducements it offered to contribute \$100,000 to the Democratic campaign fund. Mr. Bryan is strong in that part of the world, and the selection seems to foreshadow his triumphant indorsement as the Democratic

nominee. But the Democrats were judicious in providing an interval of several weeks between the two great conventions. An opposition party, in its choice of leaders and in its statement of issues, must be much influenced by the selections and attitudes of the party in power.



GOVERNOR JOHN A. JOHNSON, OF MINNESOTA.

*Johnson and Gray.* It is now quite distinctly understood that Governor Johnson of Minnesota will be at least a receptive Democratic candidate. This revival of the Johnson boom seems to have followed the Governor's visit to Washington early in December, where his reception was exceedingly cordial, and where he made a brilliant success in the always difficult rôle of a Gridiron Club speaker. Meantime, the Democrats of Delaware, on December 10, through their State committee, unanimously adopted resolutions endorsing Judge Gray for the Presidency. No one can deny that the Hon. George Gray would make a Democratic standard-bearer of great distinction and strength. Much, however, must depend upon the Republican choice. Shrewd Democratic politicians fear that with so conservative a candidate as Judge Gray the party might be split, half of it supporting Mr. William R.

Hearst as an independent candidate. The strength of Mr. Bryan lies in the fact that he would be able to hold the party together. Thus the chief elements of opposition to Mr. Bryan in the State of New York have already been completely won over through the formal acceptance of the Nebraska man by Mr. William J. Connors, of Buffalo, who is chairman of the State Committee, and by Mr. Charles F. Murphy, who is leader of Tammany Hall.

*The President's Great Message.* At the opening of the first session of the Sixtieth Congress, early in December, Mr. Cannon, of Illinois, was again chosen as Speaker of the House, while Vice-President Fairbanks was in his place as presiding officer of the Senate. The message of the President was of too great length to be instantly read and comprehended by the country. Many newspapers which had never before failed to print the annual message in full, found it necessary to epitomize portions of it. It would perhaps be a good idea if a brief and terse summary of such a document could go out officially, along with the unabridged state paper. The first and most important part of the message deals extensively with the subject of interstate commerce. Apart from the President's lucid method of presenting his views and giving the reasons for them, he makes definite recommendations which ought to be culled out, rephrased, and set before the country afresh when Congress returns to its work from the holiday vacation.

*On the Railroad Question.* As respects railroads, the President says: "There should now be either a national incorporation act or law licensing railway companies to engage in interstate commerce upon certain conditions." Again he says: "The law should be so framed as to give to the Interstate Commerce Commission power to pass upon the future issue of securities, while ample means should be provided to enable the commission, whenever in its judgment it is necessary, to make a physical valuation of any railroad." Third, the President repeats his advice of a year ago regarding railroad agreements, and says: "Railroads should be given power to enter into agreements, subject to these agreements being made public in minute detail and to the consent of the Interstate Commerce Commission being first obtained." What the country now wants is action on these specific recommendations rather than general discus-



sion. We have had a good deal of legislation at Washington, and a vast deal in the States, on the railroad question. The three recommendations now made by the President are of great importance. They will have to be faced by Congress in the present session. The last one certainly ought to be enacted; that is to say, railroads ought to be permitted to make agreements with one another, particularly as regards rates. Most people will believe that the further issue of stocks and bonds might properly be subjected to the approval of the Interstate Commerce Commission. The question of federal license or incorporation is involved in much practical difficulty. It has seemed to us an advisable thing. The great conference recently held in Chicago, made up of representatives of all interests, unanimously favored the earnest consideration of these changes in the law. The people throughout the country should ask their Representatives and Senators to face these questions in the present session.

*The Question  
of Industrial  
Corporations.*

The next subject that the President deals with is the Sherman anti-trust law as it relates, not to railroads but to industrial corporations and combinations. It is advised that Congress should specifically extend the regulation and control of the federal Government to great industrial corporations. It is advised that Congress should provide for the granting of national charters of incorporation to large business concerns. It is advised that an interstate commerce corporation thus brought under federal supervision should not be allowed to hold the stock of any other company except as it is authorized to do so by a proper public body. It is advised that the enforcing of the interstate commerce laws relating to business corporations should not be left to the slow process of actions brought in the courts, but should be in the hands of an executive body like the Interstate Commerce Commission. It is advised that the Sherman anti-trust law "should be so amended as to forbid only the kind of combination which does harm to the general public, such amendment to be accompanied by, or to be an incident of, a grant of supervisory power to the Government over these big concerns engaged in interstate commerce."

*Define and  
Meet the  
Issues.*

Here, then, are certain definite recommendations. The President's discussion of them is clear and strong. The issues should be clearly

joined in the present session of Congress upon these specific points. The Sherman anti-trust law as it stands does not meet existing business conditions. The business combinations of the country ought to be under federal supervision, with a reasonable amount of publicity as to their finances and methods, and with a corresponding protection against capricious local attacks. These are momentous recommendations that the President makes, and have to do with matters that have been under general discussion now for a number of years. It is time to crystallize the issues and to fight them out squarely in Congress. President Roosevelt has had to deal with four Congresses, namely, the Fifty-seventh, the Fifty-eighth, the Fifty-ninth, and the present one, the Sixtieth. His policies about railroads and corporations have been developed through this period. He has witnessed under his leadership the breaking up of the universal practice of railroad rebating, and this has amounted to a practical revolution in business. He has seen the checking of certain methods which were too rapidly bringing the railroad systems of the country into unified control through so-called "holding corporations." He now advises certain further steps in the development of the policy of national regulation of railroads, and he lays these matters before a new Congress which has its full two-years' period before it, and which will expire by limitation of term on the day when President Roosevelt goes out of office, namely, the fourth of March, 1909.

*Complete the  
Work  
In Hand!*

The intervening of a Presidential election, with its diverting incidents, ought not to obscure the country's perception of the main points of policy that it is the business of the present Congress to deal with. The railroads should have protection as well as regulation; they should know their rights as well as their duties; they should be made to serve the public faithfully and efficiently, and they should be allowed to earn good returns upon their investments and their efforts as business organizations. The completion of Mr. Roosevelt's railroad policy at the present time ought to give stable equilibrium to the railroad situation for a generation to come. Again, as respects the big industrial corporations, Mr. Roosevelt has shown that the law is supreme, and everybody is now ready to admit it. But although the authority of law is vindicated, the statute provisions of law



have been shown to be very inadequate, and to some extent absurd and unjust. Mr. Roosevelt lays down a policy for the changing of the statutes and for the better administration of the law. In its main outline this policy is right and wise. The great businesses of this country are legitimate in their commercial motives and in their general lines of conduct. The large way of doing business has come to stay. But these enterprises have to be subject to legal regulation, and they cannot be properly supervised by the individual States. The working out of actual legislation may prove difficult, but it is not impossible, and the Sixtieth Congress ought to undertake it and see it through.

*The  
Money  
Question.*

The third great task that should be recognized by the Sixtieth Congress as especially devolving upon it has been given urgency by the recent banking panic and the continuing money stringency. There is no legal remedy for the business optimism that leads men in flush times to extend their credit, and to put too much capital into fixed investments. Periodic reactions, therefore, in business are bound to come. But the people regard the money function as essentially governmental, and look upon the banks as the creatures of law and public administration. When the banks, instead of facilitating the circulation of money, proceed with one accord, from one ocean to the other, to prevent its circulation, there ensues a business condition that entails terrible suffering upon millions of innocent people and that drives thousands of honest and solvent businesses to ruin. We have been witnessing a most amazing spectacle. The people are in the habit of taking the surplus money which they do not need for the transactions of the day and depositing it in banks, subject to their withdrawal at any moment. But the banks of this country suddenly and without notice some weeks ago seized the money thus placed in their custody, refused to let the owners have it, and at the same time refused to lend it on approved securities to borrowers. By every device in their power the banks gathered in money and held it in their vaults. They were ready to take a depositor's money at the receiving teller's window, while within five minutes they were firmly refusing to let him have any of it at the window of the paying teller. Our article on page 82 understates, in our opinion, the amount of bank hoarding in the smaller towns and cities.

*The "Strike"  
of the  
Banks.*

The result was the sharpest analysis of current business that the country has ever known. The crops could not be moved because the banks had possession of the people's money and would not give it up. If this had not been a country of law and order, and if every bank had been mobbed by indignant depositors and compelled to do business in its usual and proper way, the panic would have ended in twenty-four hours, inasmuch as the money thus brought into circulation would have passed as freely again into the window of the receiving teller as it passed out of the window of the paying teller. Obviously, the real trouble was not with the people who controlled the banks, since they are exactly the same class of people as the rest of the reputable business community. The whole fault lay with our banking system. We have a system that works admirably at all times except when it is subjected to a test. All sorts of efforts were made to bring gold from Europe, with the result of vast importations. Clearing-house certificates were issued in lieu of money by the banks of a hundred different cities. All sorts of pay-roll checks and extra-legal forms of paper promises and emergency currency were put into local circulation in place of proper money. The United States Treasury poured its surplus into various banks of deposit throughout the country; it sold Panama Canal bonds in order to get more money to lend to the banks; and it sold emergency notes, as if the Government itself were in need of money, for the sake of getting still more money to lend to the banks. And yet there was a great abundance of money all the time, only the banks were keeping it locked up in their vaults.

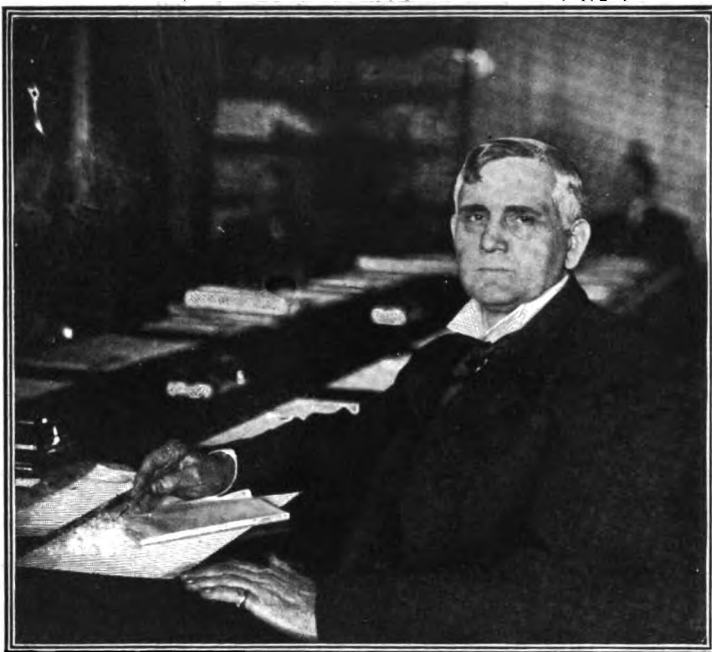
*Need  
of  
Co-operation.*

The simple trouble is that no one bank can stand alone in a time of fright when its depositors have precipitated a run upon it; and our system provides no way by which the strength of the banking system at large can adequately support the isolated bank in its moment of need. In times of financial stress and stringency in other countries, relief is afforded by a banking system whose motto is: Always pay out money just as fast as possible, taking good security for it, and if necessary raising the interest rate. But in these other countries the banking system has some form of central support to rely upon. Many experienced people in this country are now advo-

cating the establishment of one or more great central banks of issue, which shall represent in principle, whatever be the legal relationship, the power and strength of banking co-operation. If we had any perfect remedy to offer to Congress or to the banking community, it would not be withheld. All that we can say is that our present system, which is in many respects admirable, needs some further development in order to give it greater strength in times of sudden and severe storm. So far as the safety of our currency goes, nobody could wish anything better. The proposals for giving greater elasticity to the outstanding volume of currency are well enough in their way. But they do not quite reach the real difficulty. It is not so much that we need more currency when the crops are moving and business makes an unusual demand, as that we need a better protection for the banks, so that they may not feel that they must sacrifice both their depositors and their approved borrowers for the sake of maintaining their own solvency.

*What  
Will Be  
Done?*

The present stringency will gradually be relieved, and no legislation of a hasty kind is needed to help an immediate situation that is slowly working itself out. But the present Congress cannot properly avoid a careful and deliberate treatment of the whole subject, and the country expects it to reach some large and valuable conclusions. The President does not make specific recommendations, but asks Congress to deal with the subject. For the District of Columbia and for the Territories he advises that trust companies be put under the same regulation as national banks. Governor Hughes, by the way, has constituted a very able commission to recommend changes in the banking laws of the State of New York. The results will doubtless be laid before the State Legislature by Governor



Photograph by Lazarnick, N. Y.

HON. CHARLES N. FOWLER.

(Chairman of the House Committee on Banking and Currency.) •

Hughes, and will bring about a more perfect regulation of trust companies, with other improvements in the banking laws of the State. The Secretary of the Treasury, in his report to Congress, strongly urges the adoption of some plan to remedy the difficulties that we have lately experienced, but makes no definite suggestions. The Controller of the Currency, Mr. Ridgely, does not hesitate to criticise the neglect of currency reform by Congress, and he is in favor of a central bank of issue. Mr. Fowler, chairman of the House Committee that deals with questions of currency and banking, has for some years had his own plans and views; but from this time forth he ought to insist less rigidly on his own ideas and bend all his energies toward securing an agreement upon some workable plan.

*Tariff and  
Revenue  
Matters.*

The President's message deals with a great number of topics that cannot be acted upon by the present Congress. These parts of the message are, in fact, addressed to the country, although in form they are laid before the legislative bodies. For example, the President declares that "there is an evident and constantly growing feeling among our people that the time is rapidly approaching when our system of revenue legislation must be re-



HON. JOS. E. RANDELL, OF LOUISIANA.

(Chairman of the National River and Harbors Congress which met at Washington early in December. \* He was re-elected.)

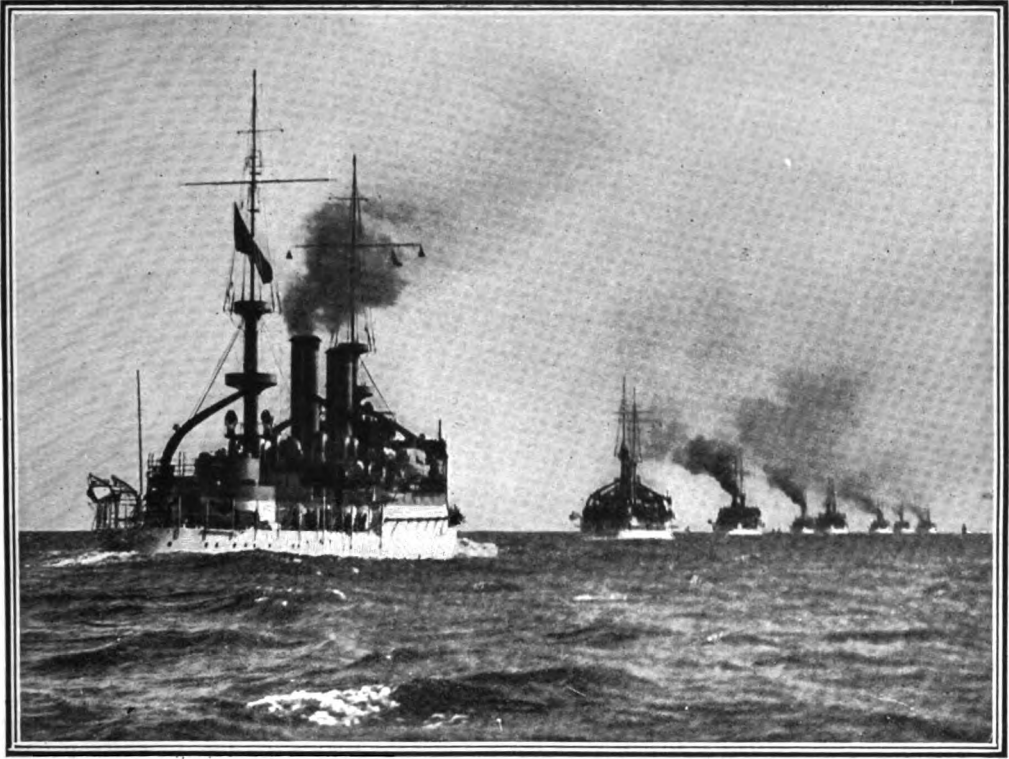
vised." Yet he makes it clear in what follows that it will not be revised under his presidency. He takes up the tariff question, for instance, and says that tariff revision cannot be accomplished until after the Presidential election. He advocates an income tax and an inheritance tax as a part of the revision of our revenue system, and thus lays down a programme of cardinal importance that must certainly be deferred for action until the Sixty-first Congress assembles two years hence. He places particular stress upon the advantages of a graduated inheritance tax. His object evidently is to get the subject under thoughtful discussion in the country, as preliminary to its consideration by Congress at some future time.

*Labor Questions in the Message.* The matters for which the friends of organized labor have been contending at Washington are set forth in a friendly spirit by the President. Thus he asks Congress to find some way to limit the abuse of injunctions and protect those rights which from time to time the granting of injunctions is thought to invade. He advocates an inspection of railroad operation for the sake of a more perfect knowledge of the facts regarding accidents, and he advocates further legislation extending the prin-

ciple of the liability of employers for all injuries sustained by their workmen. He asks that the principle of the eight-hour day should be extended to the entire work of the Government, including that of public contractors. In addition to existing laws regarding the investigation of industrial disputes, Congress is asked to create a board for compulsory investigation of facts, with a view to limiting the evils of strikes and lockouts. Under a general discussion of the relations of capital and labor, Congress is asked at this session to pass a thorough and comprehensive act regulating the employment of women and children in the District of Columbia and the Territories. He does not withdraw his former recommendation of the use of the interstate commerce power to prevent the employment of children under fourteen in factories and mines, as proposed in the Beveridge bill. But first of all the President thinks Congress should deal directly with the subject in the District of Columbia and the Territories.

*The Public Domain and the People.*

The President deals at length with certain subjects which have had a foremost place in his thoughts and efforts during his entire period in office. Thus he writes of the forestry question with convincing weight, and advocates the establishment of the proposed Appalachian and White Mountain reserves. The various phases of the public land question in the West are presented with great knowledge and force. The progress of the irrigation policy is explained, the large proposals for inland waterway development are set forth, and the value of the work of the agricultural department for the further training of the nation in scientific farming is made the subject of what is virtually a compact little essay. In connection with the discussion of the forests, the President advocates the repeal of the duty on wood pulp. The most fascinating section of the message describes the work of the biological survey and shows how important to the country has been the Government's study of insects, birds, and animal life of all sorts. There is a section on the relation of the Government to public health. The recommendation of Mr. Meyers' plan for postal savings banks will have peculiar timeliness, and the proposal to extend parcels post system on rural routes will prove popular. From the standpoint of the people's welfare as promoted by Government activity, this message is undoubtedly the most comprehensive ever written by any President.



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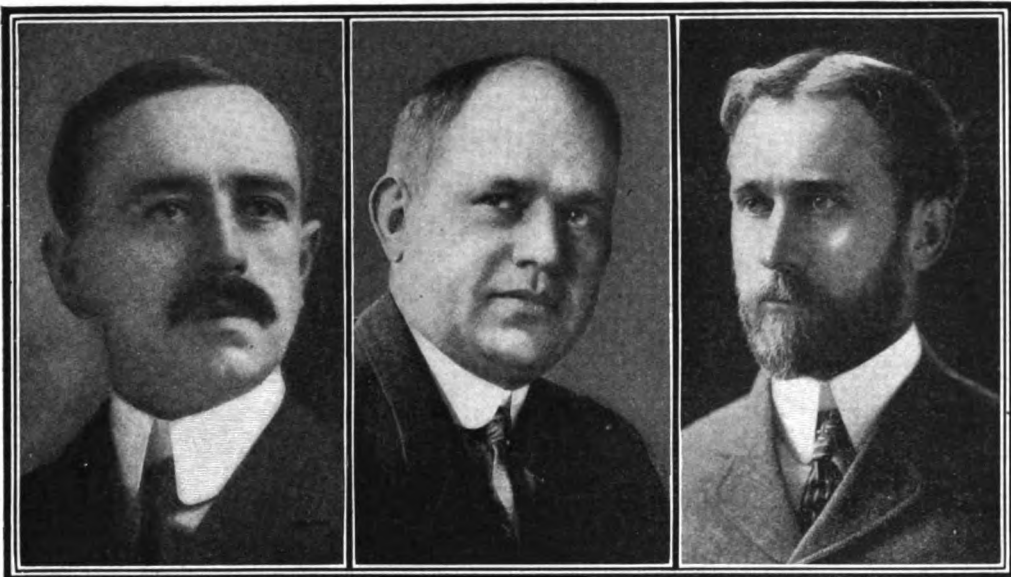
THE RECEDING FLEET OF AMERICAN BATTLESHIPS LEAVING HAMPTON ROADS DECEMBER 16, FOR THE PACIFIC COAST.

*The  
Army and  
Navy.*

There are elaborate discussions of matters relating to the army and the navy. The necessity of keeping the army organization efficient in time of peace and giving the officers and enlisted men a better compensation for their services, are points convincingly set forth. The presentation of navy questions has especial interest in view of the impressive departure of our great fleet of sixteen battleships on December 16 for the long voyage to the Pacific Coast. The President went to the rendezvous at Hampton Roads to bid farewell to the fleet; and the sailing was an imposing affair. The expedition is undertaken with the perfect good-will of all nations, including Japan, and with the ill-will of nobody excepting a few carping critics in this country. The President advocates a provision this year for four large battleships, and afterward for one battleship a year. He asks for the completion of our scheme of coast fortifications, and apropos of the sailing of the fleet he shows how useful the expedition will be as a training for the navy and an object-lesson in all that relates to sea power.

*Some  
Foreign  
Relations.*

In paragraphs relating to foreign affairs, an excellent summary is given of the work of the peace conference at The Hague. Congress is informed that peace and prosperity now reign in Cuba. Apropos of the exposition to be held at Tokio, the President finds opportunity to refer to the cordial relations between this country and Japan. The tariff relations between this country and Germany are fully explained. The President asks for authority to revise the existing arrangement with China in such a way that we may show our friendship by remitting further payment of indemnity. Relations with Mexico and Central America are set forth; Secretary Root's visit to the neighboring Republic and the conference of the Central-American republics at Washington being especially noted. The message ends with glowing praise of the work of the Bureau of American Republics. It is a document of immense value and importance, and can only be appreciated as it is re-read from time to time for reference to its treatment of particular questions. It reflects the great range of our Government's



Photograph by Harris &amp; Ewing.

Hon. Herbert Knox Smith.

Copyright, 1907, by Waldon Fawcett.

Hon. Lawrence O. Murray.

Hon. Charles P. Neill.

## THE COMMISSIONERS SENT BY PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT TO INVESTIGATE THE GOLDFIELD MINERS' STRIKE.

activities, while it also illustrates the intimate knowledge and the strong convictions of the President in the various fields of public work.

*The  
Goldfield  
Disturbances.*

Early in December 10,000 miners at Goldfield, Nev., went on strike because their wages were paid in cashiers' checks, instead of currency. Most of the Goldfield miners had been members of the Western Federation of Miners or of affiliated organizations. After the strike some of the mines attempted to open with non-union miners. Various deeds of violence were charged against the strikers, and it was probably a knowledge of the methods that the Western Federation had employed in Colorado and elsewhere, in years past, as much as any real or threatened injury to person or property, that led Governor Sparks to call on the federal Government for troops. President Roosevelt promptly dispatched military aid to the Nevada authorities, but he also sent to Goldfield a commission consisting of Assistant Secretary Murray, of the Department of Commerce and Labor, Commissioner of Labor Neill, and Commissioner of Corporations Smith, with instructions to make a thorough investigation of the difficulties between mine-owners and miners. The commission had the necessary authority and was directed to report to the President.

*Kentucky's  
Tobacco  
War.*

Gov. Augustus E. Willson, of Kentucky, the first Republican executive to be inaugurated in that State in twelve years, had barely taken the oath of office, last month, when it became necessary for him to take decisive measures to suppress the riotous spirit of the tobacco planters in the Hopkinsville district, where mobs had destroyed warehouses and terrorized the inhabitants. The Governor's next step was to invite members of the tobacco growers' societies and buyers representing trust interests to meet together, with a view to an adjustment of differences. The hostility existing between the farmers and the trust is intense. Injunctions restraining the shipping of "pooled" tobacco were sustained by the courts, one of the judges making use of this significant language: "I would rather an injustice should be done one man than that 100,000 men should suffer everlasting ruin." Large growers received anonymous letters containing threats that if they should attempt to ship their tobacco, the crop would be burned.

*A Million and  
a Quarter  
Immigrants.*

Economic conditions in this country have caused a remarkably heavy return of foreign laborers for winter sojourn in their native lands. Commissioner Sargent informs us that the total immigration for the fiscal year 1906-1907 was

1,285,349, a total exceeding the greatest figures of any preceding year by more than 180,000. The greatest number of immigrants came from Austria-Hungary,—338,000 of them. Italy came next, sending us 285,000 odd. The Russian Empire sent 259,000; China 960, a decrease from the figures of the preceding year; and Japan 30,000, an increase of about 100 per cent. for the year 1906. One significant fact brought out by the Commissioner's report is that a great number of immigrants landed at Southern ports, an increase to these destinations caused, in the opinion of the Commissioner, by the growing desire of the Southern States to draw the better class of labor from abroad. The relatively large increase in the immigration from Japan is no doubt due to illegal entry from over the Canadian and Mexican borders. The total amount of money brought into the country by immigrants last year was over \$25,000,000, an average of almost \$20 per person. The Commissioner strongly recommends the calling of an international conference on immigration and emigration; that marine hospital surgeons be stationed at the principal points

of embarkation abroad to examine aliens about to start for this country; and that a treaty be negotiated with Mexico respecting immigration through that country.

*The Central American Agreement.*

By far the most significant event of the past month in Latin America was the agreement upon two general treaties and six conventions of peace and friendship between the republics of Central America. The treaties do not provide for a union, as had been expected in some quarters; they do provide for arbitration, for the establishment of an international court to settle all possible differences which may arise between the countries. They treat further of commerce, navigation, and extradition. The court, which will consist of five judges, one named by each republic from its most eminent jurists, to sit for five years, will have jurisdiction over any question which any one or two of the Central-American governments may agree with any foreign government to submit to it. Unless for very special reasons the court is to sit at Cartage, in Costa Rica. The treaties are to remain in force for ten years.



THE INDEPENDENT STATES OF CENTRAL AMERICA, WHICH HAVE JUST AGREED UPON THE NEUTRALITY OF HONDURAS.

the troops of any two of the other four countries to clash without crossing Honduras, war in Central America would seem to be geographically impossible. There was also adopted a convention providing for the establishment of a Central-American university system, one providing for an international Central-American bureau corresponding to and allied with the International Bureau of the American Republics at Washington, one dealing with the customs duties and tariff schedules, and one providing for better means of communication between the five republics. This convention will make easy the building of the Central-American section of the much-discussed Pan-American railway. The conference adjourned on December 17. With the taking of the Cuban census and the near approach of the presidential election, after which the island may again receive its "unaided independence," there has been a renewed interest among the American people in Cuban matters. The figures show a Cuban population of somewhat over 2,000,000. A review of the situation in the island at the present time, by a keen American observer, appears on another page of the REVIEW this month.

Opening of the Canadian Parliament. Canada's Parliament began its winter session on November 28. In his speech Lord Grey, the Governor-General, announced that during the last fiscal period the public debt of the Dominion had been reduced by \$3,000,000.



HOW ARE THE MIGHTY FALLEN!  
Revolution, expelled from Russia, begs admission  
at Portugal's door.

From the Times (New York).

In the legislative program, among other propositions, are to be found the Oliver Land bill for the settlement of homesteads in the Far West, the bill providing for the more rigid inspection of insurance companies, a measure for old-age pensions, an amendment to the Dominion Elections Act to guard against bribery and corruption, and a proposed amendment to the provincial constitutions, providing that Manitoba, Ontario, and Quebec shall be permitted to extend their boundaries to Hudson and James Bays. During the early days of the session the Franco-Canadian tariff treaty was signed and approved and much animated discussion had over the question of Japanese exclusion. Premier Laurier, in a speech at Ottawa on December 3, declared that, as long as he remained at the head of the government, nothing would be done to jeopardize the British-Japanese treaty. Commercially and financially Canada appears prosperous, and has apparently suffered not at all from the monetary disturbances in our own country. The present session of the Dominion Parliament is probably the last before a general election. The Liberal government is still in power, with a majority of fifty behind it, and will doubtless maintain its control throughout the present session. The enthusiastic reception accorded to Mr. Borden, leader of the opposition, however, on his recent tour of the Dominion, would indicate that the next general election will prove a severe struggle for the Liberals.

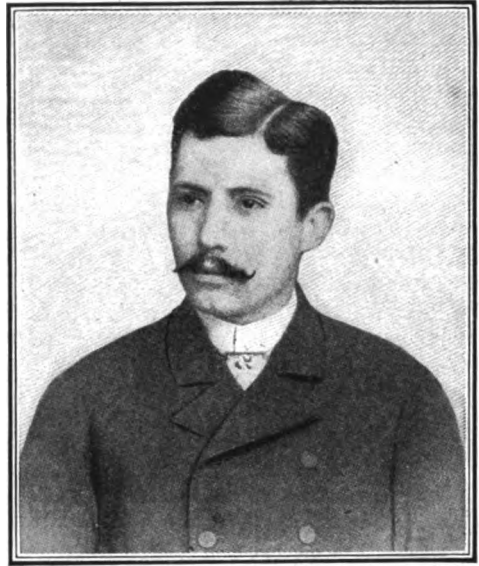
The Dictatorship in Portugal. Party government in Portugal in the year 1906 had come to mean little more than the control of public office exclusively for private "graft," with a working understanding between the two dominant parties whereby offices were openly bartered and sold. A third party, under the leadership of Senhor Franco, a vigorous young patriot (Secretary of the Interior from 1894 to 1897) became powerful during the past two or three years and finally secured the confidence of the King. During the past summer with the full knowledge and approval of King Carlos, Senhor Franco cut off parliamentary sinecures aggregating more than \$2,000,000 annually. Some of this money has been diverted to the civil list of the King and some devoted to settling the arrears of the always underpaid government employees and soldiers and sailors. The Premier, moreover, has refused to summon Parlia-



ment within the time prescribed by law and has suspended many constitutional guarantees, thus making himself virtual dictator. Those who are best informed on Portuguese conditions assert that his dictatorship is favored by the great mass of the population, and is in the interest of justice and decent government. All reports of a possible revolution against the King and the dynasty are vigorously denied from Lisbon. Senhor Franco announces that he will prove the beneficence of his dictatorship by its success. If conditions are such as to justify it, the government, it is announced, will hold elections in April for the new Cortez. A more detailed account of the causes leading up to the political troubles in the little Iberian kingdom is given in one of our "Leading Articles" this month. If there is a revolution it will undoubtedly be one by the court and the politicians. The people, 80 per cent. of whom are illiterate, are indifferent to the contest between the politicians and the crown, and the army and the navy, which have profited by the discomfiture of the politicians, are not likely to respond to any invitations to revolt.

*Re-migration  
Troubling  
Italy.*

Three such widely different topics as the wholesale return to Italy of thousands of Italians frightened away from American cities by the business depression, the holding of a papal consistory at which four new cardinals were created, and the election of a Jew and a Free Mason to be mayor of the city of Rome, were interesting Italians last month. Germany, Austria, and the Scandinavian countries have also had serious problems of re-migration forced upon them by our unfavorable business conditions, but Italy appears to have suffered the most in this way. The returning thousands of Italy's sons do not bring with them sufficient money to support them for more than a few weeks, and many are practically penniless. The problem is a serious one for the national and local authorities, and its gravity is aggravated by the serious condition of labor in King Victor Emanuel's domain. Many strikes have marked the past year in Italy and there is much suffering among the lower classes, owing to the great increase in the cost of living. There is not much of interest for Americans in the papal appointments at the consistory held on December 16, all the appointees being Italians, and only nominal honors coming to American prelates.



SENHOR JOAQUIN FRANCO.  
(Portugal's Premier-Dictator.)

*The Hebrew  
Mayor  
of Rome.*

If the shades of the Roman Emperor Titus and the Jewish chieftains of the year A.D. 70 are permitted to exchange reminiscences in the other world, their memories of the capture of Jerusalem by the Romans in those early years of the Christian era will be shocked by the election of a Hebrew, Past Grand Master of the order of Free Masons, to be mayor of the Eternal City, the world's center of Catholicism. Despite the dramatic points of this incident, however, which have been dwelt on in the daily press, Signor Ernest Nathan will make an eminently appropriate, logical, and useful head,—not of the capital of the Cæsars or the center of Catholicism,—but of the bustling, enterprising, modern Italian city on the Tiber, which needs many civic reforms. The election had really no religious significance whatsoever. Signor Nathan, who comes of one of the oldest Italian families of Jewish blood, is a Liberal and a disciple of Mazzini, whose friendship he enjoyed. Though born in England and educated at Oxford, Signor Nathan is an Italian of the Italians, speaking the language of Dante with elegance and precision. He has held a number of offices in the gift of the municipality and has an excellent record for public spirit. His election by the "bloc" of anti-clerical parties (the vote stood 60 to 2 in the Board of Aldermen), while without religious significance, may be taken as a re-



buke to the political activities of the Clericals. Those who know Signor Nathan do not expect him to meddle with state politics or religious questions, but to give Rome a thorough, up-to-date, clean administration.



SIGNOR ERNEST NATHAN.  
(The newly-elected Mayor of Rome.)

*Pressing German Problems.* Upon his return from what he himself has referred to as his most pleasant and profitable visit to England, the German Kaiser finds public interest throughout his empire wrought up,—it might almost be said, overwrought,—concerning three highly important matters; the failure of Chancellor von Bülow to retain a decided governmental ascendancy in the Reichstag, resulting in his forced admission of ministerial responsibility to the Parliament; the discussion over the new budget, and the radical step taken by the Prussian Diet in introducing a bill providing for the compulsory expropriation of the lands of the Poles. The Chancellor's parliamentary embarrassment and its outcome has resulted in a virtual revolution in German administrative methods, finally bringing the empire into line with the truly and fully constitutional governments of the world. It will be interesting to trace the steps in this progress.

*An Exciting Session of the Reichstag.*

A year or so ago, it will be remembered, the Reichstag, the lower house of the German Parliament, was dissolved because it had refused to sanction the government's proposal to increase the army budget. In the election that followed the government was supported by a substantial majority. The Chancellor's victory, however, was in reality achieved by such a narrow margin that he was able to carry out his policies only by bringing about the coalition of the two conservative groups,—the National Liberals and the three factions of the Radicals. A serious defection from the government's side became evident late in November when Dr. Herman S. Paasche, first vice-president and one of the National Liberal leaders, in a stirring speech attacked the government for extravagance and for sheltering the army officers concerned in the Harden-von Moltke scandal. Herr Bebel, the Socialist leader, followed, presenting letters and quotations from the Bismarck and Hohenlohe memoirs to prove the existence and power of the von Moltke-Eulenberg camarilla, and asserting that the guilty parties were members of such high classes in Germany that the police were afraid to name them. In discussing the budget Herr Bebel reminded the members of the great increase in the cost of living, causing widespread suffering in the lower classes. He produced statistics to show that at the present day there are 4800 children in Berlin who never have dinner, and only bread and coffee for breakfast and supper, and asserted that the unemployed in the German capital now number over 40,000. In reply, the Chancellor and General von Einem, Minister of War, admitted the evil practices referred to, but denied the existence of a camarilla and accused the Socialist leader of exaggeration. The decision of the Emperor that Counts von Hohenau and Lynar, who were implicated in the Harden disclosures, cannot appeal to a special court of honor, but must take their chances in the civil court, was pointed to as evidence of the imperial sincerity, firmness and independence of judgment in the matter.

*Real Constitutionalism in Germany.*

The pressing need for approval of the budget, upon which the government is depending to pass its naval bill, rendered it necessary for the Chancellor to secure an undoubted majority in the Parliament at an early date. After the sensational speech of Dr. Paasche the

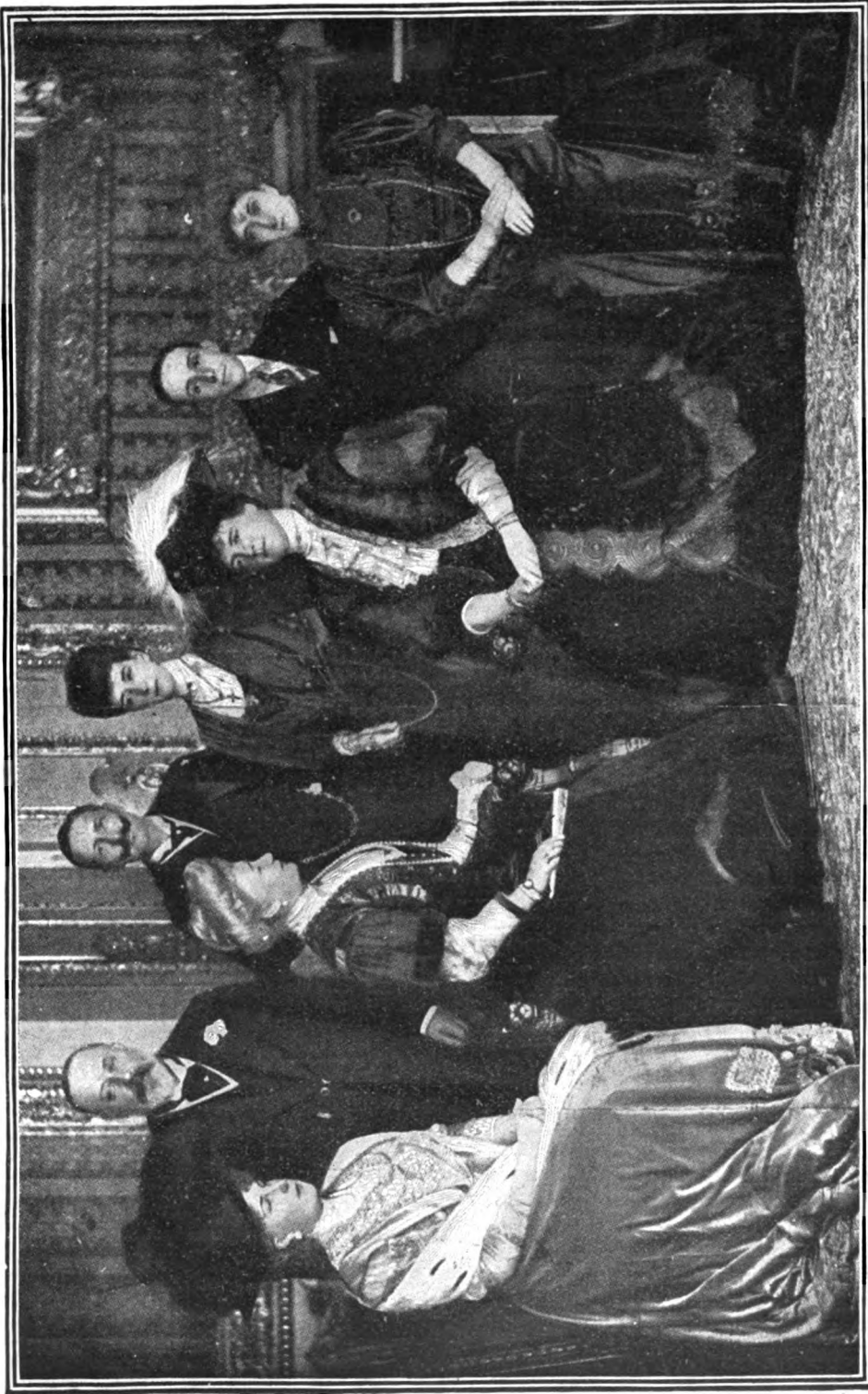
Reichstag adjourned, on December 4, for the purpose of determining whether the "bloc" would sanction or repudiate the position taken by its vice-president. Chancellor von Bülow called into conference the leaders of all the coalition groups (Herr von Narmann and Baron von Gamp, for the Conservatives; Herr Ernst Bassermann, for the National Liberals; Herr Müller and Herr Meingen, for the Radicals; and Herr Liebermann von Sonnenberg, for the Agrarians), and plainly informed them that should Dr. Paasche be upheld by the Parliament he would be driven to one of two alternatives: he must either resign his office at once, or advise the Emperor to dissolve the Reichstag. Thus, for the first time in the history of the empire, a Chancellor appealed to the majority in Parliament for its support. His appeal meant nothing less than that the German ministry is now responsible,—not to the crown, but to the Reichstag. Of course, this epoch-making change could not have been effected without the sanction of the Emperor, and it is intimated from Berlin that the Kaiser understood the necessity for his Chancellor's action and approved of it before starting on his trip to England. In the coalition caucus the position taken by Dr. Paasche was repudiated by the National Liberals, who then entered into an agreement with the Conservatives and Radicals to give the government a vote of confidence at the reassembling of the chamber. The changed situation in Germany, bringing the empire into line with parliamentary workings as they are in Great Britain, is no doubt the result of the development of a real and active public opinion. It is not necessarily a permanent change in the constitutional practice of the empire. The Kaiser, having once sanctioned it, however, with the majority of the Reichstag co-operating, it does not seem likely that the government at Berlin will ever revert to the old semi-autocratic method of procedure initiated by Bismarck and followed by all Chancellors since.

*Expropriation of Polish Lands.* The first result of the new order of things in the Reichstag is a modification of the drastic proposals of the government introduced in the Prussian Diet to take Polish estates by force. In his speech from the throne at the opening of the Prussian Diet, on November 26, Chancellor von Bülow, who is also Minister-President for Prussia in the diet of that kingdom, read the budget proposals and introduced a bill authorizing the government to acquire Polish estates by condemnation proceedings under the law of eminent domain. The bill provides for a credit of \$87,500,000 to continue the purchase of land and \$12,500,000 for condemnation proceedings. Prince von Bülow admitted that the attempted colonization of lands in Polish Prussia had been unsuccessful. The untiring patriotism of the Poles has succeeded in keeping these lands so largely in Polish hands by paying any amounts for the estates that prices have become higher than the government commission could meet. "It has, therefore, become necessary to give the government the right to dispossess the Poles by legal process." In brief, the Minister-President asked the Diet to give him an appropriation for the expenses of condemning the lands of the Poles by German tribunals. It is necessary for German national welfare, the Chancellor insisted, that the lands now possessed by the Prussian Poles, be taken over and thoroughly Germanized, if not by sale, then through condemnation by the court.



THE FRIENDSHIP OF KING EDWARD AND KAISER WILHELM.  
 TRACE: "Who would have believed they could play a duet so harmoniously?"  
 From the *Amsterdamer* (Amsterdam).

KING OF ENGLAND. KAISER. QUEEN OF ENGLAND. KING OF SPAIN.



QUEEN OF SPAIN. KAISERIN OF GERMANY. QUEEN OF PORTUGAL. QUEEN OF NORWAY.

A REMARKABLE ROYAL PHOTOGRAPH: FIVE QUEENS AND THREE KINGS.

(Photographed after King Edward's luncheon party at Windsor, on November 17.)

What Will  
the  
Poles Do?

This rude disturbance of the industrial and social life of the Polish subjects of the German crown aroused vigorous opposition in the Reichstag, — not merely among the Poles and the Social Democrats, but among even the government supporters. As a result of this opposition and the consciousness that the ministry is practically dependent on the will of the majority in the imperial Parliament, the government has agreed to reduce the appropriation asked from \$100,000,000 to \$66,000,000 in all, and to limit the expropriation process to certain districts to be determined by the Diet. Although there appears no legal means of preventing the carrying out of this latest phase of the

Germanization campaign, it does not seem likely to those who have followed the intricacies of the Polish problem in the three partitioning countries that the Chancellor will succeed in his repressive measures. The patriotism which, through nearly half a century, has by individual effort and public contribution nullified the anti-Polish animus of Bismarck and his followers, will find a way of meeting this new danger. The Russian Poles also have been afflicted. The school association of the old kingdom having fallen under the ban of Governor-General Skallon, more than 1600 Polish schools in Russia were closed during late November and early December. As a protest against these severe

repressive measures serious demonstrations have taken place throughout Galicia, Austrian Poland, assuming even a riotous character in Lemberg, the capital of the province.

A New  
King in  
Sweden.

Sweden's new king, Gustavus Adolphus, or Gustav Adolf, V., who ascended to the throne on December 8, within a few hours after the death of his father, Oscar II., is believed to entertain ideas of a very different character from those of the late king on the subject of his country's role in European politics. In the first place, he always disapproved of his father's lenient and kindly attitude toward Norway when that country separated from



KING GUSTAV V. AND QUEEN VICTORIA.

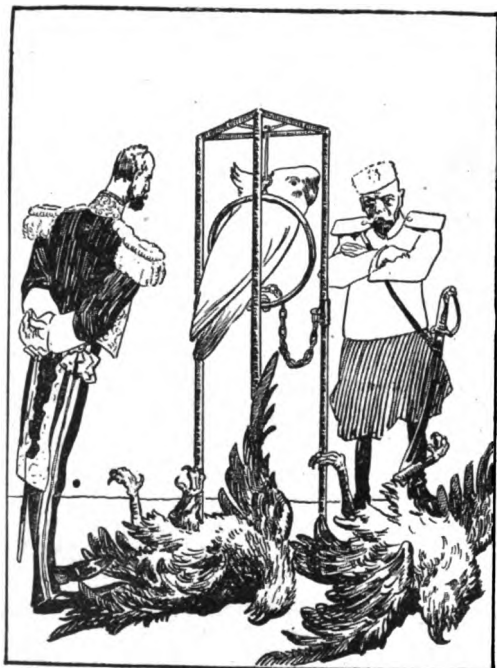
(The new Swedish monarchs.)

Sweden. Several days before King Oscar's death, while the present king was Regent, the majority of the cabinet resigned owing to the Regent's refusal to permit Sweden to become a signatory to the treaty insuring the integrity and neutrality of its sister country. This matter is treated at a greater length on another page this month. The late King Oscar's career and his gentle, manly virtues are set forth, also, in the excellent article by Mr. Björkman. In matters of foreign policy, King Gustav is believed to lean in the direction of Germany. He has at any rate always cultivated a close intimacy with the Kaiser. Personally he is a man of studious habits, not so democratic as his father and without the latter's peculiar charm of manner. King Gustav was married in 1881 to Princess Victoria, daughter of the Grand Duke of Baden. They have three children: Prince Gustav Adolf, Duke of Scania, who married in June, 1905, the Princess Victoria of Connaught; Prince Wilhelm, and Prince Eric. The present Crown Prince and heir to the throne and Princess Victoria have one child, whose name is also Gustav Adolf, born in April, 1906.

*The Duma Repudiates the Autocracy.* A short life is predicted for the third Russian Duma, even shorter than the lives of its two predecessors. Conservatism, if not reaction, is admittedly so strong in the empire that the least radical movement on the part of the people's representatives is likely to call down the wrath of the Monarchists. Despite the apparently Conservative makeup of the Duma, however, the Reactionaries are not having things all their own way. After some heated discussion over the propriety of using the words "autocrat" and "constitution" in the address to the throne, the form finally adopted was this:

Most Gracious Sire: Your Imperial Majesty has deigned to greet the members of the third Duma and to invoke the Almighty's blessing on the legislative work before us. We, therefore, take the liberty to express personally to your Imperial Majesty our feelings of gratitude to the supreme head of Russia and our thanks for the right of popular representation granted to Russia and secured by the fundamental laws of the Empire.

Have confidence in us, Sire. We wish to devote all our ability, knowledge, and experience to strengthening the form of government which was given new life by the Imperial will in the manifesto of October 30, 1905; to pacify the fatherland, to assure respect for the laws, to develop popular education, to promote the general welfare, to be a buttress for the greatness and power of indivisible Russia, and to thereby justify the confidence reposed in us by his Majesty and the fatherland.



THE TAMENESS OF THE THIRD DUMA.

STOLYPIN TO THE CZAR: "The others were a bit independent, Sire; this bird will surely talk as we direct."

From *Ull* (Berlin).

*The Address to the Throne.* The words "supreme" and "popular" were substituted for "autocratic" and "constitutional" after a bitter struggle between Reactionaries and Constitutional Democrats, the adopted form proving victorious by a vote of more than 2 to 1. When the Duma had rejected the proposition of the Conservative leader, Vladimir Purishkevich, to the effect that all attempts to establish a constitutional régime having failed, and the Emperor in reconstituting the Duma having shown his autocracy, the word "autocrat" should be in the Parliament's address to the throne, a dramatic scene followed. The members of the Extreme Right declared that the Czar had been insulted and they withdrew from the hall. The Constitutional Democrats, who had held for the insertion of the word "constitution," agreed to withdraw that term if the term "autocrat" were also withdrawn. The victory for this idea showed that the two wings of the Russian constitutionalists, the Octobrists and the



Constitutional Democrats, can unite. This proves that the majority of even this conservative Duma regards as its minimum the fulfillment of the promises made in the famous manifesto of October, 1905.

*The Premier  
Affirms  
Autocracy.*

On the following day (November 29), in the course of the ministerial declaration, Premier Stolypin set forth the attitude of the government in these words:

The Emperor has often shown, in the face of extraordinary difficulties, how highly he prizes the basis principles of the new régime of representative government within the limits established by himself. Nevertheless, the historic, autocratic power and free will of the monarch stand out as the most precious assets of the Russian state. They have created the present institutions, are destined to save Russia in time of danger and disaster, and will bring her back to the path of order and historical truth.

In reply to this the Radical orator, Feodor Rodichev, in a stirring speech, insisted that autocracy had never done anything to elevate the condition of the Russian people, but had found its expression in hundreds of courts martial which had "oppressed Russia with a Byzantine despotism." Referring to the military régime he used the expression "the Stolypin necktie" as a sort of companion phrase to the famous "Muraviev neckerchief" of unsavory memory, both phrases meaning the triumph of the hangman over the legal procedure of justice. The ministerial declaration outlined a number of projects, including the reform of the Zemstvos (the system to be extended to Poland and other border lands), reform of the courts, and measures for the development of the army and navy. As soon as normal conditions are restored, said the Premier, "the government promises to devote its attention to the internal development of the empire and the settlement of the agrarian problem." Then came the long drawn out struggle over the budget, which has already precipitated what is apparently an irreconcilable conflict between the Parliament and the crown.

*A Struggle  
Over the  
Budget.*

Both the Duma and the Council of the Empire, the two houses of the Russian Parliament, have asked that the Minister of Marine submit to their Committees of National Defense the details of the program arranged by the Admiralty and involving, it is reported, an outlay of \$500,000,000. This request has been refused, and the Parliament informed that if

the demand be persisted in, dissolution will come immediately. The fundamental right of any Parliament is the power over the purse. Will the Czar dare to force the issue? Other interesting and important happenings of late November and early December in Russia were the dramatic opening of the trial of General Stoessel for cowardice in surrendering Port Arthur to the Japanese; the arrest and conviction of a number of Social Democratic members of the second Duma, including Nicholas Tchaikowski and the peasant deputy, Annikin, for sedition and conspiracy last year, and their exile to Siberia; the payment by Russia to Japan of \$24,000,000 as the balance due the Mikado's empire for the maintenance of Russian prisoners during the war; and the visit of Secretary Taft to the Russian capital on his way from the Far East to this country via Europe. The American Secretary of War was much interested in the sessions of the Duma.

*The Recall of  
Ambassador  
Aoki.*

When it became known that, on the eve of the departure of our battleship fleet for the Pacific, the Japanese Ambassador, Viscount Aoki, had been recalled by his government, there was much nervous apprehension evident not only in some of the journals of our own country, but quite generally in the press of Europe as well, lest this recall presage a really dangerous tension in the relations between the two countries. That this feeling was entirely unjustified, however, soon became evident when the Japanese Ministry of Foreign Affairs publicly explained that Ambassador Aoki was recalled at his own request "because of purely personal and home reasons," and, further, when the appointment was semi-officially announced of his successor, Baron Kogoro Takahira. The former Japanese Minister at Washington and incumbent during the trying days of the Russo-Japanese war is entirely *persona grata* to the American Government and the American people. He is well known in this country as a diplomat of native gifts and excellent experience, and a firm believer in the necessity for close friendship between his own country and the United States.

*Settling the  
Immigration  
Question.*

The immigration question between the two countries is in a fair way of being settled by diplomatic negotiation, although (according to the official report of Commissioner-Gen-



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BARON KOGORO TAKAHIRA.

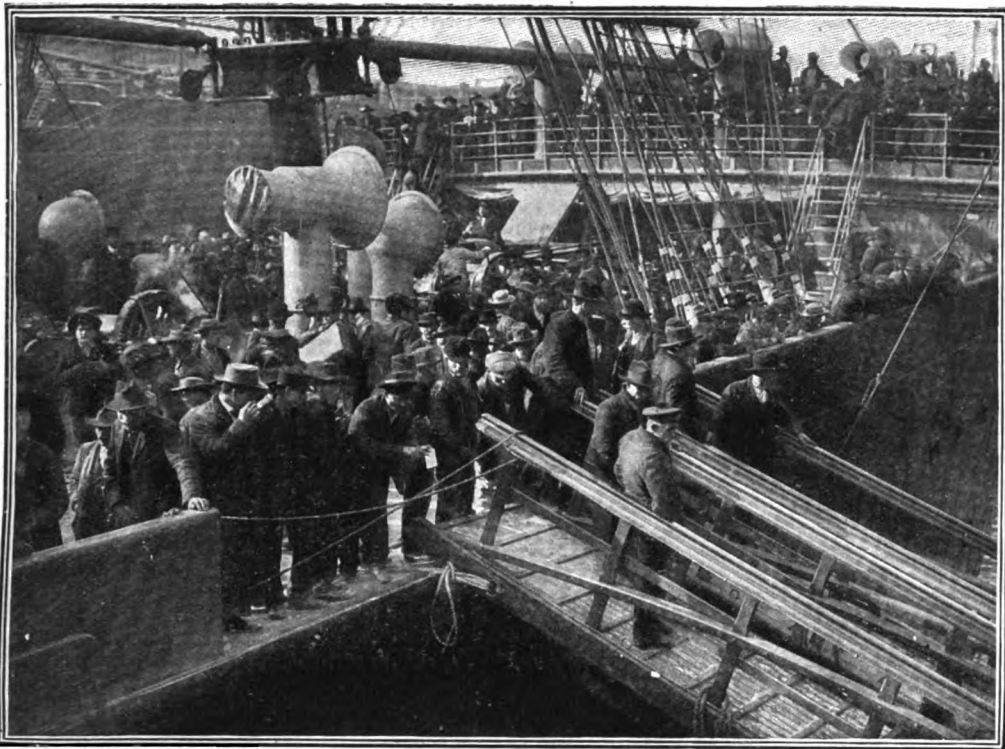
(Who succeeds Viscount Aoki as Japanese Ambassador at Washington.)

eral of Immigration Sargent) more than twice as many Japanese were admitted to this country than in the preceding year. It is true beyond a doubt that many of these came in without legal right and entirely without knowledge on the part of their home governments. A number of Japanese statesmen, including Baron Ishii, chief of the bureau of commerce, have announced in the newspapers and in public addresses that their government has not only consented to a more rigid control of the character of emigrants, but is planning a limitation of emigration. Although the authorities at Tokio have not issued any official statement in the matter, Baron Ishii has announced publicly that, in his opinion, "it will be necessary, in order to keep absolute faith with the United States, to prevent emigration of labor thither altogether." In reply, also, to a committee from a number of Japanese emigration agencies a few weeks ago, Foreign Minister Hyashi declared, in the presence of the Canadian en-

voy, Hon. Rodolph Lemieux (Postmaster-General and Minister of Labor of the Dominion), that the plan of his government was "closely to limit all emigration to the United States and Canada." Ambassador O'Brien, representing this country at Tokio, moreover, at the annual meeting of the Oriental Association on December 11, asserted positively that "so far as our two countries are concerned, there is now not one serious question which remains unsettled." That the alleged Japanese apprehension and irritation over the voyage of our Pacific fleet have been only figments of journalistic imagination is more than proven by the cordial messages of good will from Japanese political leaders on the occasion of the sailing of the ships. Foreign Minister Hayashi, Admiral Togo, Prince Ito, Count Okuma, and other prominent statesmen, even expressed the hope that our warships would call at Japanese ports. The Mikado's empire, these gentlemen declare, is anxious to give our ships and sailor men a hearty welcome.

#### *Earthquakes in Persia.*

Central Asia has been the scene of stirring events during the past few weeks. Early in November a terrible earthquake occurred at Karadagh, in northern Bokhara, during which more than 12,000 people perished. Reports indicate that in this convulsion of nature, which was one of the most appalling on record, more than 30,000 cattle died and five or six towns were overwhelmed. Not far to the south of this devastation a political earthquake struck the Persian capital. The Persians have not had a very long experience with constitutionalism. Apparently the experiment is not to succeed, for the resignation of several ministries in a few weeks and an appeal to Britain and Russia to put down two insurrections indicate the unhappy condition of the Shah's domain. Early in December the Persian Parliament addressed a petition to the British and Russian governments to assume charge of peace and order in the kingdom and indirectly of the government. This is the first practical test of the recently concluded Anglo-Russian agreement, but it would seem, also, if Britain and Russia respond, to mark the end of independent Persia.



Photograph by Brown Bros., N. Y.

ALIENS LEAVING AMERICA IN DECEMBER, TO RETURN TO EUROPE.

(The eastbound steerage business on the Atlantic liners last month was unprecedented.)

## RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From November 20 to December 20, 1907.)

### PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

December 2.—Both branches of the Sixtieth Congress meet for the first session....Joseph G. Cannon (Rep.) is re-elected Speaker of the House....Both branches adjourn immediately after the opening ceremonies out of respect for the memories of Senators Morgan and Pettus, of Alabama.

December 3.—The President's message is read in both branches....The Senate, in executive session, confirms the appointment of ex-Senator Blackburn, of Kentucky, as a member of the Isthmian Canal Commission....In the House, Speaker Cannon reads a greeting from the new State of Oklahoma and announces the membership of the Committee on Banking and Currency.

December 5.—In the Senate, Mr. Frye (Rep., Maine) is elected president *pro tem*.

December 9.—In the Senate, several resolutions providing for an inquiry into recent Treasury bond issues are introduced.

December 11.—In the Senate, Mr. Davis (Dem., Ark.) speaks on his bill for the abolition of trusts.

December 12.—The Senate passes a resolution asking Secretary Cortelyou to furnish figures bearing on the recent financial stringency....In

the House, the Committees on Rules and Mileage are announced by the Speaker.

December 16.—In the Senate, Mr. Tillman (Dem., S. C.) attacks the Administration on the financial question and Mr. Culberson (Dem., Tex.) introduces a resolution calling for information as to Treasury relief measures....In the House, the Speaker announces the membership of the Committee on Appropriations.

December 17.—The Senate passes the bill of Mr. Dick (Rep., Ohio) extending the time during which the State militia must conform their organizations to those of the regular army.

December 18.—In the Senate, Mr. Tillman (Dem., S. C.) introduces resolutions calling for information as to corporations engaged in interstate commerce and the liquor traffic.

December 19.—In the House, the make-up of the committees is announced by Speaker Cannon.

### POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

November 20.—The Ohio League of Republican Clubs endorses Senator Foraker for reelection and as a candidate for President.

November 23.—The President makes public a letter to members of the cabinet, forbidding third-term activity by federal office-holders.

November 27.—The official count shows Ralph



C. Watrous (Rep.) elected Lieutenant Governor of Rhode Island by a plurality of nine votes.... Judge T. M. G. Jones, of the United States Court, issues an injunction forbidding the enforcement of nine of the railroad regulation laws passed by the special session of the Alabama Legislature.

November 29.—Senator Foraker announces his purpose to fight for the Ohio delegates to the Republican national convention and to give up the Senatorship in order to make the contest for the Presidency.

December 1.—The third annual report of the Third Assistant Postmaster-General, made public at Washington, shows a gross deficit in the postal service for the year 1907 of \$6,692,031.47.

December 2.—Adam P. Leighton (Rep.) is elected mayor of Portland, Me.

December 4.—Nevada N. Stranahan resigns as Collector of the Port of New York and President Roosevelt appoints Edward S. Fowler as his successor.

December 5.—President Roosevelt's order directing more severe physical tests for army officers is made public.... General Funston is instructed by the War Department to send troops to Goldfield, Nev., to preserve order in the mine strike.... Secretary Cortelyou, in his annual report to Congress, asks for the speedy passage of a remedial currency law, but makes no specific recommendations.... A committee of the National Rivers and Harbors Congress in Washington presents a memorial to Vice-President Fairbanks and Speaker Cannon asking an appropriation of \$50,000,000 a year for waterway improvement.

December 6.—The Republican National Committee meets in Washington; Harry S. New, of Indiana, is elected chairman.... Secretary Cortelyou decides to issue only \$25,000,000 of the Panama Canal bonds, and announces that he has accepted bids for this amount.

December 7.—The Republican National Committee, in session at Washington, selects Chicago, June 16, as the place and date for holding the national convention.... Federal troops arrive in Goldfield, Nev.... Secretary Cortelyou announces the allotments of Panama Canal bonds to national banks.

December 9.—John F. Ahearn, Borough president of the Borough of Manhattan, New York, is removed from office, by Governor Hughes on charges of neglect and misconduct.

December 10.—The Department of Agriculture estimates the total cotton production for the year 1907-1908 at 5,581,968,000 pounds.... George A. Hibbard (Rep.) is elected mayor of Boston over John F. Fitzgerald, by about 2000 votes.

December 11.—President Roosevelt repeats his announcement made on election night in 1904, to the effect that he would not again be a candidate for President.... The President appoints a commission to go to Goldfield, Nev., and report to him the exact status of affairs there.

December 12.—The Democratic National Committee, in session at Washington, decides to hold the national convention in Denver on July 7.

December 15.—President Roosevelt and party

leave Washington for Hampton Roads to view the departure of the battleship fleet for the Pacific.

December 16.—The fleet of sixteen battleships leaves Hampton Roads for the cruise to the Pacific Coast.... Comptroller Ridgely in his annual report recommends the establishment by the Government of a central bank of issue and reserve.

December 19.—John F. Ahearn, who was removed from office as president of the Borough of Manhattan, New York, is re-elected by the Board of Aldermen.

December 20.—President Roosevelt orders the troops at Goldfield, Nev., withdrawn on December 30.

#### POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

November 20.—The first election for a Parliament in the Orange Free State takes place; the result is a victory for the Dutch party.... The French Chamber finishes the debate on the devolution of church property, the government proposals being carried by a large majority.... The government of Salvador issues a decree granting amnesty to political prisoners and allowing the return of exiles; the state of siege is suspended.

November 21.—Ernest Nathan, a Jew, is elected mayor of Rome, Italy.... The German imperial budget authorizes the borrowing of \$65,000,000 and emphasizes the necessity for imposing new taxes to harmonize expenditures and revenues.... The Russian Duma appoints officers and a drafting committee.

November 22.—The Metropolitan Water Board issues a report on the future water supply of London.... The German Reichstag reassembles.

November 24.—Justine Fernandez, Minister of Justice in the Mexican cabinet, resigns.

November 25.—The Portuguese Government establishes a special tribunal empowered summarily to try political offenders, whose offenses will now be classed with those of anarchists.... The new ministry of the Orange River Colony is announced; Mr. Fischer is Premier and Colonial Secretary, General DeWet Minister of Agriculture, and General Hertzog Attorney-General.... The longest parliamentary session on record in New Zealand closes (it began on June 27).

November 26.—A protest is made by the Progressive party at the meeting of the London County Council against the manner in which the Moderates are blocking educational work in London.... The Prussian Diet meets; Prince von Bülow introduces his bill for the expropriation of Polish landlords.... The Russian Duma debates the address and decrees that the title "autocrat" is no longer tenable within the Russian state.

November 27.—The Australian Government agrees to the adoption of a penny postage with Great Britain.

November 28.—Prince von Bülow, at the opening of the German Reichstag, makes a notable speech defending the Emperor, the German army, and himself.... Earl Grey, at the opening of the Canadian Parliament, discusses the Newfoundland fisheries question and immigration matters.

November 29.—In the debate in the German Reichstag on the budget it is stated that the imperial debt now amounts to \$1,000,000,000, having increased since 1901 \$400,000,000....In the French Chamber, the government's naval estimates and proposals for the reorganization of the navy are adopted....In the Russian Duma, M. Stolypin defines the ministerial policy.

December 3.—The Russian Duma adjourns without coming to a vote on the ministerial declaration....Senhor Machado, the opposition leader in Portugal, declares that the Republicans favor meeting force with force and says that they possess bombs as well as arms.

December 4.—Prince von Bülow forms a coalition with National Liberals in the German Reichstag in support of the government....Premier Franco, of Portugal, announces his determination not to compromise with the opposition....The Liberal party of Panama opens a campaign to select a successor to President Amador.

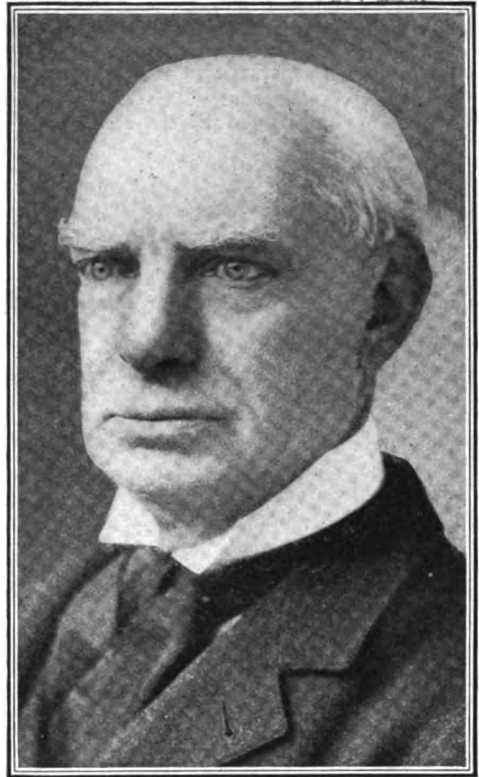
December 7.—Japan takes measures to improve the financial condition of the empire.

December 8.—On the death of King Oscar, of Sweden, Gustav V. takes the oath of office as the new King.

December 10.—The trial of General Stoessel for surrendering Port Arthur is begun at St. Petersburg....Announcement is made in the Russian Duma that \$93,000,000 will be needed for extraordinary expenditures.

December 12.—Dr. Ernest Brenner, a Radical, is elected President of Switzerland....Don Carlos, the Spanish pretender, seeks the aid of the Pope in his efforts to regain the throne of Spain.

December 13.—The Prussian Government announces the modification of its expropriation proposals.



THE VETERAN ACTOR, JAMES HENRY STODDART, WHO DIED LAST MONTH.

December 14.—The Russian Social Democrats held responsible for the dissolution of the second Duma are severely punished, some being exiled to Siberia.

#### INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

November 21.—In support of the plan for a union of the Central-American republics President Zelaya, of Honduras, announces that he is willing to resign his office.

November 25.—Ten thousand Arabs are repulsed by the French army in Algeria, losing 1200 killed.

November 26.—The Australian claims against Germany regarding the Solomon and Marshall Islands are settled by arbitration....The draft of a proposed peace treaty is submitted to the delegates representing the five Central-American republics at the conference in Washington.

November 27.—A French force is attacked on the Algero-Moroccan frontier.

November 28.—In reply to overtures from the American Ambassador, the Japanese foreign office announces that every precaution is being taken to prevent a recurrence of past immigration frauds....The Moroccan army invades Algeria and forces the French troops to retreat, until reinforcements arrive.

November 29.—Japanese immigrants are detained at Victoria owing to a dispute between the steamship agents and the United States and



THE LATE MONCURE D. CONWAY.  
(The eminent American author.)

Canadian immigration officials....It is announced at Ottawa that the Franco-Canadian treaty is the first of a series of trade agreements to aid Canada in marketing her products.

December 3.—Viscount Aoki, Japanese Ambassador to the United States, is summoned home.

December 5.—Minister Hayashi announces that Japan will limit all emigration to the United States and Canada....Baron Takahira is formally appointed Japanese Ambassador to the United States.

December 7.—It is reported in Tokio that a satisfactory settlement of the emigration question has been reached.

December 10.—The Moroccan foreign board accepts the demands made by France and Spain.

December 11.—Great Britain sends ten vessels to patrol the West River for the protection of shipping from Chinese pirates.

December 15.—The yellow-fever quarantine against Cuba is removed.

December 16.—The Italian embassy at Washington takes measures to investigate the recent killing of Italians in Louisiana.

December 17.—Great Britain and Russia decide upon joint action in Persia to prevent the threatened uprising.

December 20.—The Central American peace conference at Washington, having reached an agreement on a treaty, comes to an end.

#### OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

November 20.—The United States purchases £262,000 from the Bank of England in bar gold....Delegates from fifteen Atlantic Coast States organize at Philadelphia the Atlantic Deep Waterways Association.

November 21.—The American Civic Association and National Municipal League meet at Providence, R. I.

November 22.—The steamship *Mauretania* completes her maiden voyage across the Atlantic in five days five hours and ten minutes....J. P. Morgan and President Baker, of the First National Bank of New York, confer with President Roosevelt on the financial situation.

November 23.—It is announced that the Nobel prize for chemistry has been awarded to Sir William Crookes....The French army dirigible balloon *La Patrie* travels a distance of 275 kilometers at an average speed of forty kilometers (see page 58).

November 24.—It is announced that Rudyard Kipling has been selected to receive the Nobel prize for literature....Large investments in small lots of railroad and industrial securities are reported in New York.

November 25.—Dr. Rash Ghose is unanimously elected president of the Indian National Congress.

November 28.—The railway strike in India is settled by the intervention of the secretary of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants....In the work of widening Blackfriars Bridge in London four men are killed through the falling of a caisson.

November 29.—Announcement of the award of the Nobel prize in physics to Prof. Albert A.

Michelson, of the University of Chicago, is received from Stockholm (see page 42.)....Miss Florence Nightingale is appointed by King Edward to the Order of Merit....Receivers are appointed for the New York City Railway Company.

November 30.—The \$50,000,000 issue of Panama Canal bonds is found to be largely oversubscribed when bids are opened at the Treasury Department in Washington....The tercentennial exposition at Jamestown is closed....Twelve thousand aliens sail from the United States, returning to Europe.

December 1.—Six torpedo boat destroyers start from Norfolk, Va., for the Pacific Coast....More than 400 workmen are discharged at the Charlestown, Mass., Navy Yard....The New York City Charter Revision Commission embodies suggestions in a report to Governor Hughes.

December 2.—The Canadian Pacific steamer *Mount Temple*, from Antwerp, runs on the rocks near Halifax; the 633 passengers and the crew of ninety-nine are rescued.

December 3.—Secretary Taft makes a plea for world peace at the American banquet in St. Petersburg....An attempt is made to assassinate President Cabrera, of Guatemala.

December 4.—Secretary Taft is received in audience by Czar Nicholas and spends about five hours with him....The National Rivers and Harbors Congress opens in Washington....The Comptroller of the Currency issues a general call on clearing-houses throughout the country to report the condition of national banks.

December 5.—The steamship *Mauretania* establishes a new east-bound transatlantic record, beating the *Lusitania's* best time by twenty-one minutes....A committee of the National Rivers and Harbors Congress, in session at Washington, memorializes Congress for an appropriation of \$50,000,000 a year for waterway improvement....President Roosevelt's order directing more severe physical tests for army officers is made public....The National Bank of Commerce of Kansas City, Mo., closes its doors.

December 6.—Secretary Cortelyou decides to issue only \$25,000,000 of the Panama Canal bonds, instead of \$50,000,000 as originally contemplated....Thirty persons are drowned in the sinking of the Brazilian coasting steamer *Guasta*....A British turbine torpedo boat destroyer makes a new record for her class by steaming 35.952 knots....More than 300 miners are entombed by an explosion in the mines of the Fairmont Coal Company near Monongah, W. Va.; few are rescued....The Fort Pitt National Bank of Pittsburgh is closed by the Comptroller of the Currency at the request of the directors.

December 8.—More than 100 men are killed and wounded in engagements with Bulgarian bands in Macedonia.

December 9.—The bursting of two great water mains causes a general suspension of business in St. John, N. B.

December 11.—The Texas Appellate Court upholds the ousting of the Waters-Pierce Oil Company from the State and the assessment of penalties aggregating \$1,690,000 for violation of the State anti-trust laws....Harry Orchard is

on the witness stand in the trial of George A. Pettibone for complicity in the murder of former Governor Steunenberg of Idaho.

December 12.—Boris Saraffov and another Macedonian revolutionist are murdered in Sofia.

December 16.—Sixty miners are reported killed in an explosion in the Yolande coal mine, Mississippi.... Elastic currency is the theme of the annual meeting of the National Civic Federation in New York City.

December 17.—The new British turbine torpedo boat destroyer obtains a final speed of thirty-seven knots.... Exercises commemorating the centennial anniversary of the birth of the poet Whittier are held in many New England cities.

December 19.—Ninety-three persons are killed and 100 injured by the explosion of a powder magazine in Palermo, Sicily.... The funeral of King Oscar of Sweden is held at Stockholm.... More than 250 miners are entombed and killed by an explosion in the workings of the Pittsburgh Coal Company at Jacobs Creek, Pa.

December 20.—Secretary Taft arrives in New York from his journey around the world.

#### OBITUARY

November 19.—Rev. Dr. Alexander S. Twombly, of Newton, Mass., Congregational minister and author, 75.

November 20.—Brig.-Gen. George E. Pond, U. S. A., retired, 60.... Gen. James Stewart Martin, of Salem, Ill., ex-Congressman, 82.

November 21.—Capt. James H. Holmes, one of John Brown's band of abolitionists, 74.... Charles F. Taswell, associate justice of the Colorado Supreme Court, 56.

November 22.—Prof. Asaph Hall, the well-known astronomer, 78.

November 24.—Sir Henry E. Colville, major-general in the British army, 55.... Col. Frank J. Bramhall, author of books on the Civil War, 60.

November 26.—Gen. F. M. Kelso, of Fayetteville, Tenn., a veteran of the Confederate army.

November 27.—Cyril Flower, first Baron Battersea, 64.

November 28.—Rev. Dr. Wendell Prime, former editor of the New York *Observer*, 70.... Stanislaus Wyspianski, the Polish poet, 38.

November 29.—Gen. Leon Jastremski, of Louisiana, a Confederate veteran, 63.

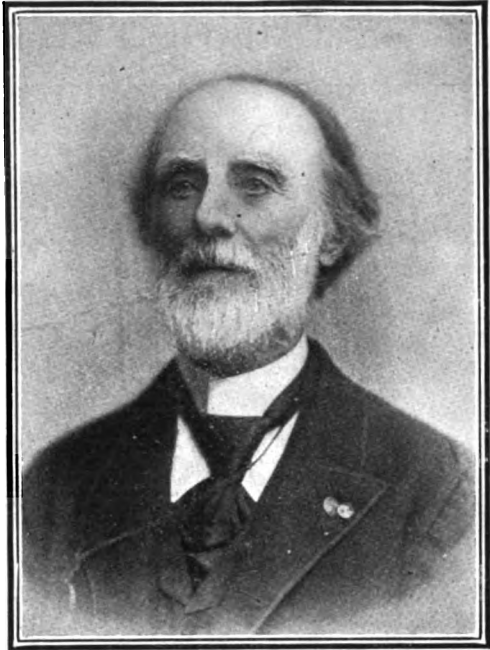
November 30.—Dr. George F. Shrady, a well-known physician of New York, 70.

December 2.—Rev. Dr. Elijah E. Chivers, of the Baptist Home Mission Society, 57.

December 3.—Albert Ware Paine, of Bangor, Me., author of the law giving the accused in criminal cases the right to testify in their own behalf, 95.... Gen. Allen Thomas, former Minister to Venezuela and veteran of the Confederate army, 77.

December 4.—Gen. Louis Saenz Pena, ex-President of the Argentine Republic, 77.... Henry O. Havemeyer, president of the American Sugar Refining Company, 60.

December 8.—King Oscar of Sweden, 79.... Mrs. Louise M. Taft, of Millbury, Mass., mother of Secretary of War Taft, 80.



GEN. ALEXANDER HAMILTON.

(Grandson of the first Secretary of the Treasury; General Hamilton died last month at the age of 92.)

December 9.—James Henry Stoddart, the veteran actor, 80.... Prof. Moritz Schmidt, of Frankfurt-on-Main, a well-known laryngologist.

December 10.—Gen. Alexander Hamilton, 92.

December 11.—Benjamin Champney, of Boston, a well-known landscape artist, 90.... The Rt. Rev. George Howard Wilkinson, Bishop of St. Andrews, Scotland, 74.

December 12.—Boris Saraffov, Bulgarian revolutionary chief.

December 13.—Col. A. S. Colyar, of Tennessee, a member of the Confederate Congress, 90.

December 14.—The Rt. Rev. Leighton Coleman, Bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Diocese of Delaware, 70.... William Bliss, of Boston, president of the Boston & Albany Railroad, 73.

December 15.—William Stead, son of William T. Stead, editor of the *Review of Reviews* of London, collaborator with John Morley on the biography of William E. Gladstone, 40.... Prof. Juan L. Contreras, the Mexican scientist.

December 16.—Carola, Queen Dowager of Saxony, 74.

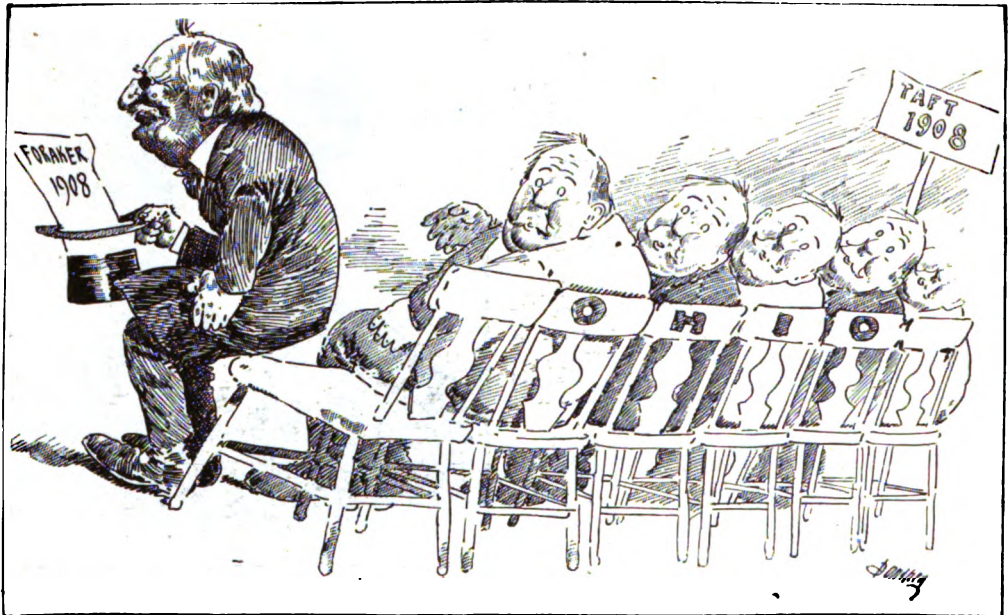
December 17.—William Thomson, first Lord Kelvin, the noted scientist, 83.... Dr. William Bayard, of St. John, N. B., said to be the oldest practising physician in the world, 94.

December 19.—M. Filossofov, Minister of Commerce and ex-Comptroller of the Russian Empire.

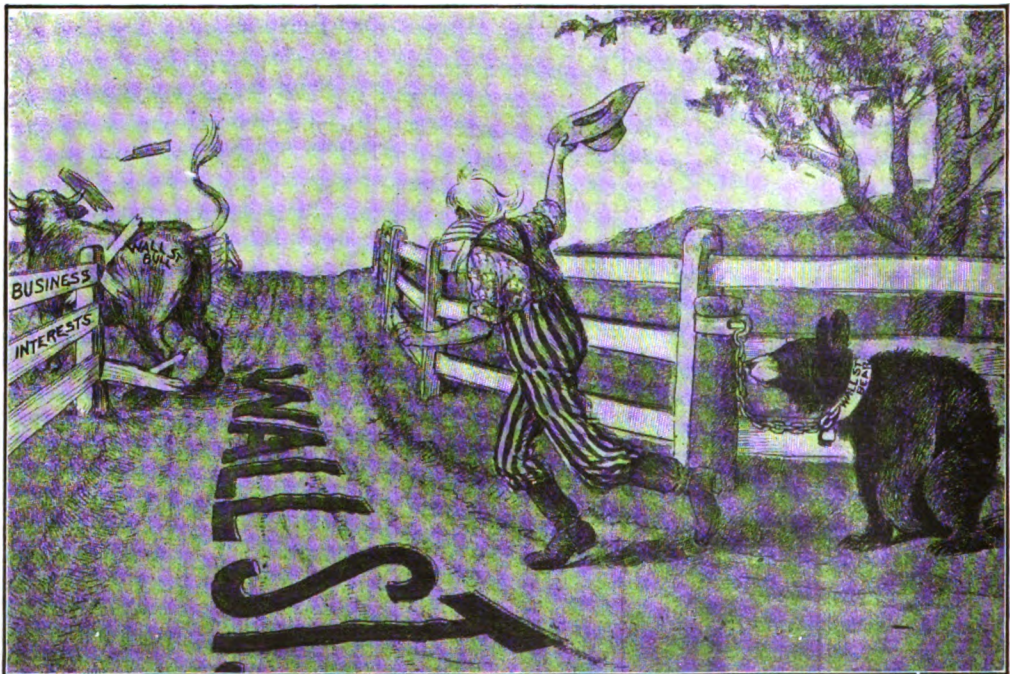
December 20.—Charles M. Skinner, author and playwright, 56.



## SOME OF THE RECENT CARTOONS



LOOK WHO'S HERE.—From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland).

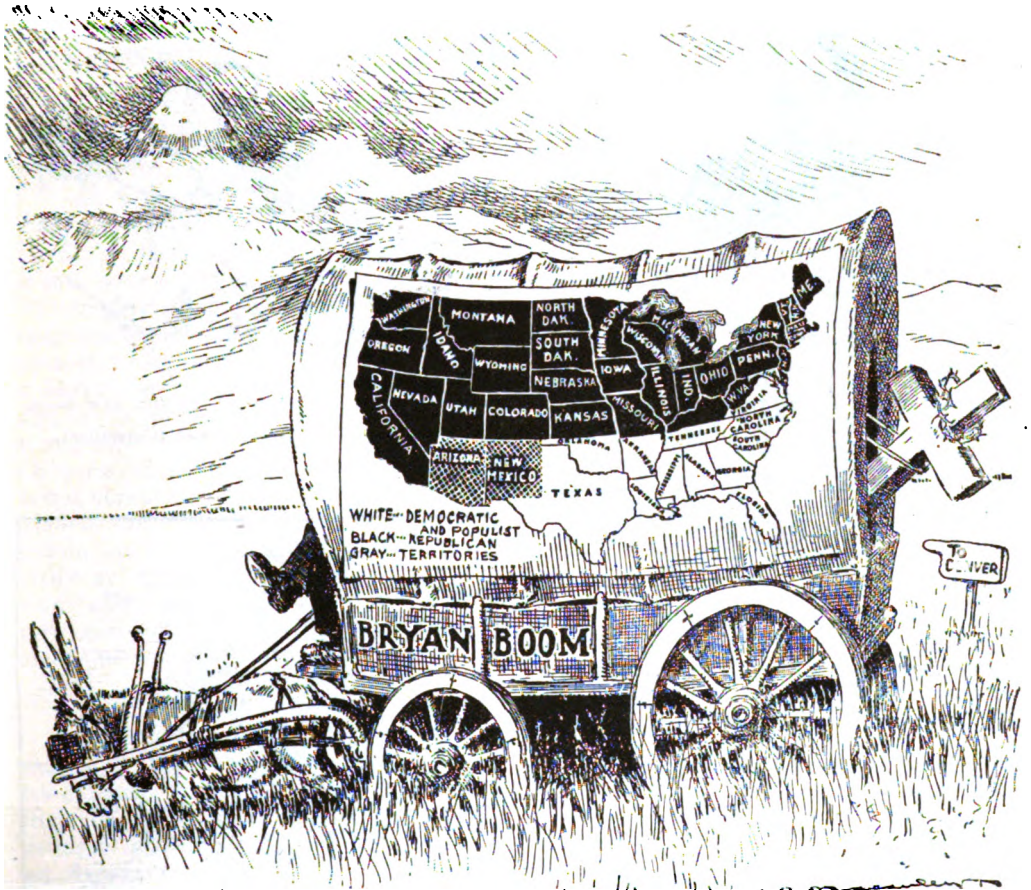


FIRST IT WAS THE BEAR; THEN IT WAS THE BULL.

UNCLE SAM: "Hi, come back out of that! drat this pesky menagerie, anyway!"

From the *Saturday Globe* (Utica).

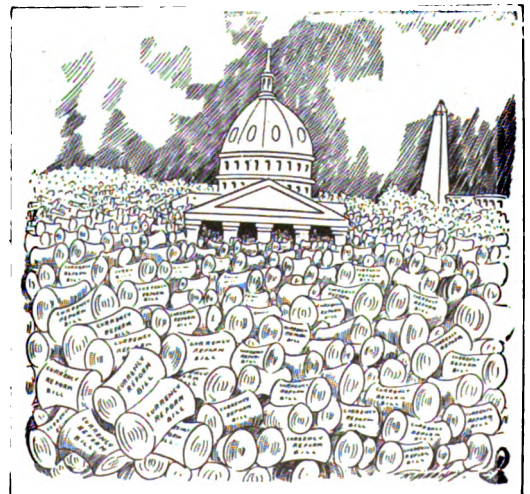




"PIKE'S PEAK OR BUST!"—From the *World* (New York).



"THAT'S THE BIGGEST 'PUNKIN' I EVER RAISED."  
From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane).



THE OPENING OF THE SIXTIETH CONGRESS.  
From the *News-Tribune* (Duluth).

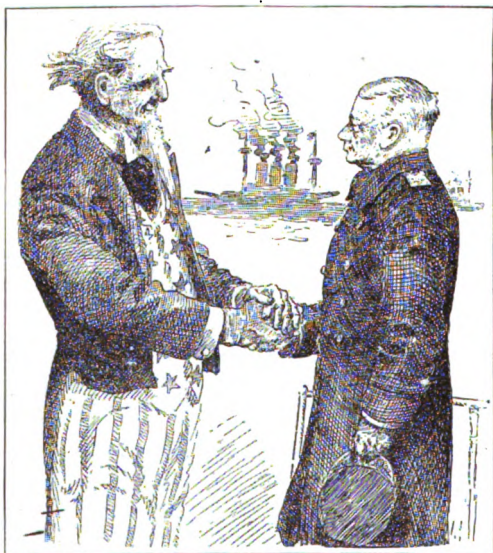




THE STATIONARY CRUSADER.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT: "FOLLOW ME!" (or 35,000 words to that effect). See the President's message to Congress.

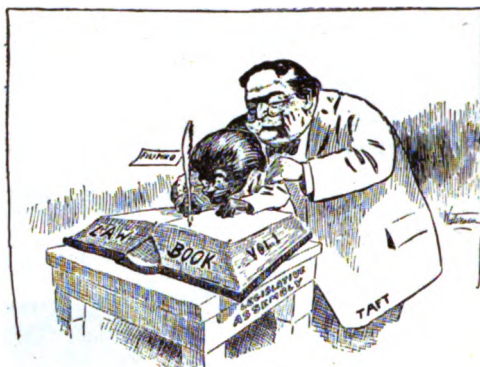
From *Punch* (London).



"GOOD LUCK."

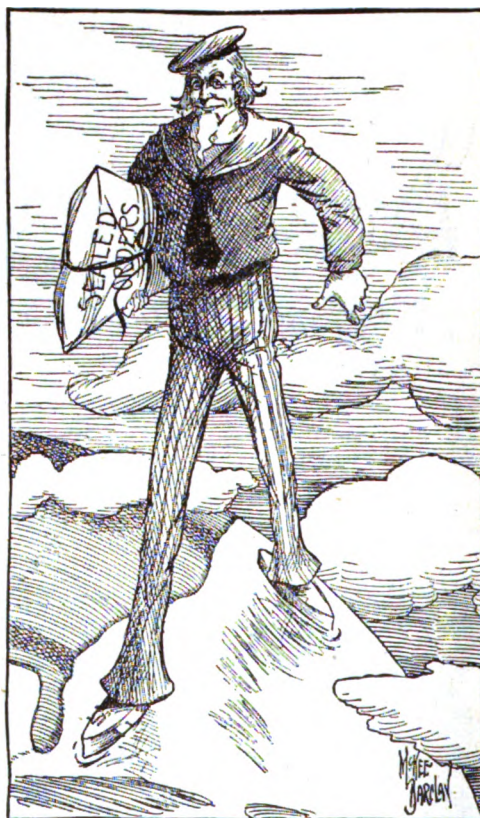
Uncle Sam wishing Admiral Evans and his fleet a safe voyage.

From the *Evening Mail* (New York).



THE FILIPINO'S FIRST LESSON IN HIS NEW BOOK.

From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).



UNCLE SAM (Apropos of the Pacific cruise): "I don't know where I'm going, but I'm on my way."

From the *News* (Baltimore).

# CURRENCY REFORM: A CENTRAL BANK.

BY ROBERT EMMETT IRETON.

**B**ANKERS, business men, and legislators all agree that our bond-secured currency system is defective, unscientific, and inelastic, yet they are unable to unite on a substitute possessing the simple, primary essentials of safety and elasticity. That we are committed to-day to a currency system which owes its inception to the necessity of finding a market for Government bonds many years ago, is due principally to the apparently irreconcilable conflict in banking opinion. This Congress has been quick to use as a foil to defeat almost every request for remedial legislation. It is a patent fact that bankers are not in accord on this issue and that their views are strangely divergent. Indeed, in many cases, they are confused and elementary, and not a few bankers admit their inability to discuss the issue at all.

## JOINT CURRENCY COMMISSION.

This tends to explain the fact that, practically, the first concrete effort of our bankers to amend our currency system dates only from 1906, when a currency commission, consisting of appointees of the American Bankers' Association and of the New York Chamber of Commerce, met in Washington and formulated a plan for presentation to Congress in December of that year. The measure failed to pass, but the incident marks the beginning of unity and concurrence on this issue among our financiers. At that, the plan adopted did not represent the views of every banker in this country, nor does it to-day; but it carried with it the prestige of the only representative organization of the nation's bankers, and as such compelled the attention of Congress. That body, with characteristic resiliency, passed the Aldrich "relief" bill and shelved the emergency currency plan of the commission.

## BEST-KNOWN RELIEF PLANS.

Other suggestions for monetary reform of recent date are those of the New York Chamber of Commerce, former Secretary of the Treasury Leslie M. Shaw, United States Treasurer Charles H. Treat, and Representative Charles N. Fowler. The Chamber of Commerce favors a central bank, and, as an alternative, a plan for asset currency. The

Fowler and American Bankers' plans advocate emergency credit currency. The Treat plan, a bond-secured emergency note system, and the Shaw proposal emergency circulation. These are the best-known and most widely-advocated measures, and briefly epitomized are:

**American Bankers' Plan:** Providing for an "emergency" credit currency by permitting any national bank, actually engaged for one year, and with a surplus of 20 per cent. of its capital, to issue additional notes without security equal to 40 per cent. of its bond-secured circulation, subject to a tax of  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. per annum on the average amount outstanding; and a further amount, equal to  $12\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. of its capital, subject to a tax of 5 per cent., etc.

**Central Bank:** Providing for a central bank of issue, with capital of not less than \$50,000,000, to carry a large reserve of gold, and act as custodian of the Government's metallic reserves, as its agent in redeeming all kinds of money, as its receiving and distributing agent, doing at its branches the work now done at the Sub-Treasuries, and to deal exclusively with banks. The plan provides for stock ownership of this bank in part by other banks and in part by the Government, but vests its management exclusively in the Government.

**Chamber of Commerce:** Providing for the issuance of additional notes equal to 35 per cent. of its capital by any national bank whose bond-secured circulation equals 50 per cent. of its capital stock, subject to a graduated tax of from 2 per cent. to 6 per cent., according to the amount of additional notes taken out.

**Treat:** Providing for a bond-secured emergency note system, in contradistinction to a credit currency system. Under this plan national banks would be empowered to issue 50 per cent. of their circulating notes on security other than Government bonds, and the same would be retired in four, six, and eight months from September 1 of each year.

**Fowler:** Providing for a credit-currency system through permitting national banks to convert bank-book credits, or deposits subject to check, into bank-note credits, or credit currency.

**Shaw:** Providing for "emergency" circulation by national banks up to 50 per cent. of their capital without a deposit to secure its redemption, but subject to a tax of 5 per cent.

## CRISIS INTENSIFIES REMEDIAL DEMAND.

Since the fall of 1906 the question of currency reform has been the leading subject for discussion in bankers' conventions. In the majority of cases when prominent financiers delivered public addresses throughout the country the same issue was selected. Magazines and newspapers in the same period



have given generous space to this vitally important issue, and even some Senators and Representatives had been heard to concur in the general demand for currency remedial legislation. All this, however, is as nothing compared to the effect of last November's distressing experiences. Bad banking and a defective currency system were largely responsible for our crisis, if not its precipitating causes; hence, to-day, from every section of this country the demand is universal for legislation that will reduce to a minimum the dangers of the prevailing system and give us instead an elastic and liquid currency. President Roosevelt has urged upon Congress its duty in this respect, and has assured us that we may expect a permanent and substantial measure of relief.

So we find the people and the press practically a unit on the question of currency amendment, but not certain, by any means, of the form-of the appropriate remedy. Bankers profess to be equally perplexed, and it is entirely probable that Congressional relief, following the line of least resistance, will come in the shape of another compromise and satisfy none. Of the plans outlined, the American Bankers', Fowler, and Chamber of Commerce recommendations seek to preserve our present bond-secured bank notes, and would extend circulation through the medium of bank-credit currency in order to provide the needed elasticity. Collateral security for such note issues is not required under any of these plans, but taxation is relied on to force their retirement when not longer needed, and in case of a failure of a national bank such note issues would be redeemed by the United States Treasury, which would recoup itself, in turn, from the redemption fund created by the tax imposed on such circulation, and from the assets of the failed bank. The Shaw proposal favors emergency circulation unsecured but heavily taxed, and the Treat plan (an adaptation of an idea of former Secretary of the Treasury Chase) opposes credit or emergency currency, and would establish a bond-secured emergency note system. The ultra-conservatives favor the Treat suggestion.

Diametrically opposite to all of these is that of the central bank. Tentatively offered by the Chamber of Commerce, in the fall of 1906, as a probable remedy for our currency dilemma, it received but passing notice. Indeed, its own advocates had an alternative, aforementioned, at hand when they proposed it. Nevertheless, the increasing discussion of

our financial problem brought it to the attention of the public, particularly in the last three months, and many prominent bankers and certain of our most influential newspapers unhesitatingly endorse it. Perhaps some idea of its strength may be gathered from the following demonstration.

#### RESULTS OF A CURRENCY POLL.

Within one month, the writer personally conducted a currency poll of the presidents and cashiers of leading banks throughout the country, for a leading financial newspaper. New York City was not included. A ballot was prepared containing an outline of the plans aforementioned and mailed to several hundred bankers, with the request that they indicate their preference, assign their reasons and return to sender. The results were most surprising and unexpected. Replies were received from almost 400 voters in thirty-three States. The Central Bank of Issue plan led the poll, receiving 33 per cent. of all the votes cast, and the plan of the American Bankers was second, having been favored by 29 per cent. of those balloting. The Shaw, Treat, Chamber of Commerce, and Fowler plans followed in the order named, and, combined, did not equal the vote of either of the dominant recommendations. In addition, it is worthy of mention that fourteen voters rejected all plans and sixteen submitted original solutions for this perplexing issue.

The voters were representative men, and the vote as a whole may be assumed to be a fair reflex of banking opinion on currency reform. It was unquestionably the only vote ever taken on all the current plans outlined, and probably the heaviest ever recorded in favor of a currency measure. It is asseverated by those present and participating, that the resolutions on currency reform passed in the Atlantic City convention of the American Bankers' Association last year were put to a vote when there were not more than 100 delegates present and voting. The poll referred to quadrupled that result; and it can be claimed, moreover, that never in a convention was the same opportunity for deliberation and individual expression of opinion given a banker as in the privacy of his office when considering the newspaper ballot aforesaid. From the results of this poll two facts are clear: The marvelous spread of sentiment in favor of the central bank and consequent recession of the American Bankers' plan, and the deeply rooted divergence

of opinion among bankers. The fact that fourteen should reject all six plans, and likewise that sixteen should submit new plans shows the confusion and uncertainty, not to say empiricism, prevalent in the ranks of our financial fraternity.

#### CENTRAL BANK'S ADVANTAGES.

Emergency currency based solely on a high interest rate is undesirable, and, at best, a palliative. What we want is an issuance of properly protected bank-credit notes to insure elasticity; rediscounting facilities; control of the discount rate; and the prevention of soaring interest rates. These, and more, a central bank will furnish. Such an institution would deal exclusively with banks, receive and disburse Government moneys, act as Government agents in reducing paper money, issue currency, and rediscount for banks. It would serve as a buttress for the national banks and as a sanctuary in times of panic. It would prevent the hoarding of Government money in the Treasury vaults by acting as its custodian, and it would terminate the periodic appeals of the money market to the Treasury for relief. By dividing its stock among the national banks of the country in proportion to their capital its relation to each would be uniform, and through the constant changing of its paper its assets would be available always and its assistance to business constant. Moreover, it would eliminate the Sub-Treasury system, and prevent inflation and contraction, liable to follow the Government's disbursements and collections, by keeping the nation's money at the disposal of trade and commerce.

We have no banking system to-day. Each bank is an independent unit, playing a "lone hand" in the game of finance, and with never a thought of its relation to the system as a whole. This may lead to disaster. When banks realize that suspicion is lurking in the public mind, they become suspicious of one another and hurriedly attempt to amass reserves. This was the case last November and led to gigantic hoarding by the banks, to the utter paralysis and confusion of business and banking. Under a central bank this would not happen, for the latter, possessing the right to issue credit bank notes, could regulate its issuance automatically and precisely through its relations with

all the other banks, thus meeting every demand, extraordinary and otherwise.

#### CLEARING-HOUSE CERTIFICATES INADEQUATE.

Clearing-house certificates are our only recourse under present conditions, but however serviceable to banks, as a means of defense in a currency famine, they lead to chaos in business. Domestic exchange is halted. Collections and remittances cease. Business men can neither make remittances nor avail themselves of their bank accounts, and are forced to suspend through no fault of their own, but through the total insufficiency of our financial machinery, which proves inadequate to the strain to which it is subjected. What is the inevitable result? Depression, blighting and lingering, which must continue to visit us so long as the Government takes no step to prevent panics, but leaves to the bankers themselves the task of devising ways and means to arrest them as often as they occur. Were a central bank established the case would be different. Bank-credit notes of such an institution, responsive to the demands of business, expanding and contracting readily, would replace the certificates aforementioned, insuring steadiness and safety to the merchant, the depositor, and the banker alike.

Every country in Europe has a central bank, and the Bank of England, Bank of France, and Imperial Bank of Germany, or Reichsbank, are pertinent illustrations of worth and service. Japan copied our system thirty-five years ago, but later discarded it for the central bank. We alone among highly civilized peoples have no such institution, and to profound political prejudice, that is absolutely without foundation, must responsibility therefor be ascribed. It is a melancholy commentary on our character and an admission of our inefficiency, that we are unable to adopt for our financial ends a method so helpful to other countries. A bill for a central bank is now before Congress, having been introduced in the Senate by Senator Hansbrough, and this may force the issue. Certain it is,—as shown by the currency poll above referred to,—the traditional prejudice of the Jacksonian era against a central bank is disappearing with the years.

# OSCAR II., SWEDEN'S DEMOCRATIC MONARCH.

BY A SWEDISH-AMERICAN.

ONCE when the late king of Sweden, faithful to a favorite practice of his, paid an impromptu visit to a public school in some provincial town, he bent over the littlest of a class of wide-eyed and gaping little maidens, and with his accustomed stately kindness of tone, that had in it no vestige of condescension, he put to her the question:

"Canst thou name me the three greatest of our kings?"

After some faltering the girl stammered forth the names of Gustavus Adolphus, Charles XII., and,—Oscar II. The twinkle in the monarch's glance grew merrier as he asked again:

"And canst thou also tell me something I did to deserve that honor?"

The little flatterer pondered, pouted, whimpered, wept, and then gasped out in open despair: "N-n-no—I can't think of anything at all!"

"Well, dear, don't take it so hard," rejoined the king, as he put his hand soothingly on the head of the sobbing girl. "I cannot think of anything myself."

Some there are who might take issue with that verdict, but, all in all considered, the claim of the gentlest and sweetest of modern monarchs to the love of his people and the respect of the whole civilized world lay in what he was rather than in what he did. It was his faith in the cause of justice and truth, his sincere respect for the rights of nations as of individuals, and his warm love for all mankind, which enabled him to fill that hardest duty of a ruler,—the duty of subjecting his own will to that of the people. And from those qualities he drew the strength to refrain from action at a time when to do anything at all would have been to provoke a sanguinary clash between two kindred nations. The Swedes have long been fond of relating how Charles XV. on his deathbed turned to his brother and successor with the remark:

"It will hold together as long as you live, Oscar, but God help your children!"

With "it" the dying king was supposed to have meant the union between Sweden and Norway, and for years the wisest heads on both sides of the Kjölen Mountains

dreaded no thought so much as that of what might happen when King Oscar died. It was generally supposed that the Norwegians would take no radical step while he was still alive, and it was as generally feared in some quarters, hoped in others, that his son would meet such a step in a manner that could lead to nothing but war. Heavy as the sorrow of the king was when the long feared crisis finally arrived, in 1905, I believe personally that his sorrow was mingled with a strong sense of relief at being able to deal with it in his own spirit. Not that I think his son actually held any of the warlike views with which he too frequently has been credited, but that it would have been so much more difficult for the younger and less loved man to check the chauvinistic proclivities of a certain element in Sweden, which, though not representative in every respect, has always wielded a disproportionate influence, through its hold on the administrative. And when, *apropos* of King Oscar's death, the leading Swedish-American newspaper in the East, the *Nordstjernan*, says editorially that "it depended on him *alone* that the two nations were not drawn into a useless war," it expresses beyond doubt a universal opinion as well as a reason more weighty than all others for granting real greatness of character to the departed ruler.

## THE KING AS ARTIST AND WRITER.

Another proof that his high reputation everywhere was based on inherent merit, and not reflected from the office with which he was vested, may be found in the assertion, heard from every one who came in personal contact with him, that he would have made his influence felt in the world no matter where fate might have happened to start him. Like a majority of the Bernadottes, he was by nature an artist, and he gave ample evidence of creative ability as well as of keen and catholic appreciation. As a poet he produced a few things that not only won praise from polite academicians, but went to the heart of the people itself. His translations are counted among the literary treasures of his country; he wrote at least one play that still possesses enough vital power to tempt





OSCAR II., KING OF SWEDEN.

Born January 21, 1829.

Died, December 8, 1907.

German managers into staging it every now and then; his works on military history have been translated into several other languages, and his speeches will for a long time to come serve as models of Swedish prose. Add to this that he displayed on many occasions a personal courage rarely found in royal personages except on the battlefield, while his familiarity with every phase of public business compelled the respectful hearing even of those least inclined to listen to him. The most delicate tact and an irresistible charm

of manners were joined with a simple majesty of bearing that caused delighted comment wherever he appeared. Not without reason has it been said that the kingliest of European sovereigns was he who had the least portion of royal blood in his veins. And probably it was this happy gift of nature, making him look a king in every inch, that freed him once for all from the need of any artificial protections for his dignity. All through life he moved among other men not as a being made in a different manner, but as a man.

#### FOND OF THE SEA AND OF MUSIC.

His grandfather, the former Field Marshal of France and Prince of Ponte-Corvo, was still on the throne when he was born in 1829, as the third son of Crown Prince Oscar and the beautiful Josephine of Leuchtenberg. He seemed far removed from the throne then, and thus he found freedom to develop himself more in keeping with his individual tastes and inclinations. Another factor to be borne in mind is the character of his governor and principal instructor, the historian, F. F. Carlson, who gave to his pupil a fondness for scientific exactness as well as an insight into the true causes of civilizatory development found none too frequently in professional thinkers, and hardly ever in princes. The things that drew him most strongly in those days were the sea and music.

One of the foremost of Swedish composers, A. F. Lindblad, taught him the latter, while his fondness for the former was richly satisfied during the years when he worked his way through the ranks of the Swedish navy. And his position on board the various man-of-war's-men in which he traveled on many seas in those days was never merely ornamental or even exceptional. He took not only the title but also the work of the offices he held, from midshipman to admiral.

#### COURTSHIP AND MARRIAGE.

It was characteristic of him, too, that when he married, he did so out of love. On a tour through several countries in 1856 he was fortunate enough to meet Princess Sophia of Nassau. The courtship was brief and ardent. Within a few months occurred the engagement, and the wedding followed in less than a year. To the last that royal couple remained strongly devoted to each other in spite of widely differing tastes and

temperaments. She has all her life been intensely religious, with a strong leaning toward pietism, and illness has still further developed this inborn tendency. He, on the other hand, was always gay, lighthearted, fond of merriment, and given to many pleasures and pursuits which his spouse could only look upon as far too worldly.

#### A CONCILIATORY RULER.

Duke Oscar Frederick, as he was known in those early days, found himself the heir apparent to the throne after death had unexpectedly removed the two claimants with rights prior to his own. And on the succession of his eldest brother, he became the Crown Prince. It was a delicate position, which imposed on him a reserve foreign to his nature. As it contrasted sharply with the unceremonious jollity of his brother, King Charles, he came by degrees to be regarded by those ignorant of his true character with a distrust bordering on dislike. Thus when the succession fell to him in 1872, he found himself little understood and less loved. It took him years to overcome the prejudice. As far as I can remember, it was his sanction of the impeachment proceedings by the Norwegian Radicals against the retiring Conservative ministry which, in the early '80's, first served to turn the trend of public opinion in his favor, both in Sweden and in Norway. That act was one of the many by which he showed his ability to submit his own inclinations to the demands of the people without becoming a mere tool in the hands of any one political party. About the same time he succeeded in bringing about a deeply needed and by himself long-cherished reform of the popular educational system in Sweden. Previously,—it was, in fact, his first important step after his ascension to the throne,—he had on his own initiative proclaimed full freedom of worship for persons not belonging to the established church.

A Scandinavianism of the purely sentimental kind,—the kind that talked without ever dreaming of putting the talk into deeds,—had prevailed until then on the peninsula. Intermixed with it was an equally sentimental sympathy with France. Though himself the grandson of a Frenchman and still keenly devoted to French literature and art, King Oscar had the foresightedness to recognize that the interests of the country were more closely bound up with those of Germany. And one of the most striking

features of his reign has been the growing cultural intercourse between the nations in the north and their neighbor south of the Baltic. And while the king discouraged the speech-making, empty Scandinavianism against which Ibsen was fond of launching his most vitriolic invectives, he fostered instead a fellow-feeling between Sweden, Norway, and Denmark that found its expression in practical co-operation, in the equalization of commercial and industrial regulations, in the breaking down of as many as possible of the unnecessary barriers between them. As the years passed on and the trend of his labors became understood and appreciated, he found a part of his reward in a steadily increasing respect for him throughout the civilized world,—a respect that repeatedly found expression in requests that he act as arbiter of international differences. He had always been fond of traveling, and this fondness he continued to indulge up to the last. Unlike those of some other monarchs having a similar taste, his comings and goings on the continent of Europe were always the objects of pleasant and welcoming comment. If gossip had to name King Christian of Denmark "the father-in-law of all Europe," King Oscar was surely "the friend of all the world." Apace with his own fame grew the prosperity of his people. On either side of the Kjölén his reign marked an era of unprecedented economical, social and spiritual progress which not even the internal dissensions of the sister nations could interrupt.

Not only as a ruler but as a father King Oscar was both wise and fortunate. Four sons came to him through his marriage, and these have proved men of his own type. Never did he do more to win the approval of his subjects and of thinking men and women everywhere than when he permitted the marriage of his third son, named after himself, to a young Swedish noblewoman, Fröken Ebba Munck of Fulkila. While the prince had to renounce his right of succession and his position as a royal prince of Sweden, his relations to his father and the other members of the royal family remained the same as before his marriage. As the years went by a third generation grew up in the palace at Stockholm,—again a brood of long-limbed and broad-shouldered sons with wholesome tastes and bright minds and kindly temperaments. And at last, when the king was seventy-eight years old, a great-grandchild was laid in his arms,—the first son of Prince

Gustavus Adolphus (now the Crown Prince) and the Princess Margaret of Connaught.

Up to the last King Oscar remained active and interested in all public affairs. Though he had experienced several brief but rather severe illnesses of late years, the end came without warning, after a few days of indisposition, suddenly taking a fatal turn. A kindly "thanks" for a small favor rendered him by a member of his family was the last word heard from his lips. Previously he had expressed his wish to the members of his cabinet that no interruption in public or private business be made on account of his death.

#### THE NEW KING AND QUEEN.

King Gustavus V., who took the oath of office within a few hours of his father's death, on December 8, has suffered something resembling his father's fate as Crown Prince. Overshadowed by the more brilliant gifts and more attractive personality of the parent, he has for years been spoken of in a rather disparaging manner in Sweden, while in Norway he harvested outright hatred in return for his determined upholding of the union. On frequent occasions during the last decade he has acted as vice-regent while his father was sick or traveling, and in this way he has found chance to display qualities that have gradually changed the popular regard of him from one of suspicion to one of hearty respect. His nearsightedness, his reserve of manner, his very sincerity and serious mindedness have militated against him, but it seems probable that he will prove the very best ruler Sweden could desire at the present juncture. He is slow to make up his mind, and will not do so until he has searched every phase and detail of the problem before him, but once he has come to a conclusion he pursues his path without looking to right or left.

The new queen was the Princess Victoria of Baden, through whom, by a strange play of circumstances, the claims of the extinct House of Vasa,—the last direct descendant of which passed away a few days after King Oscar, in the person of Carola, Dowager-Queen of Saxony, and daughter of the deposed King Gustavus Adolphus IV. of Sweden,—may be said to have become joined with those of the reigning House of Bernadotte, and through her, her son, the present Crown Prince, is a descendant of both those houses.



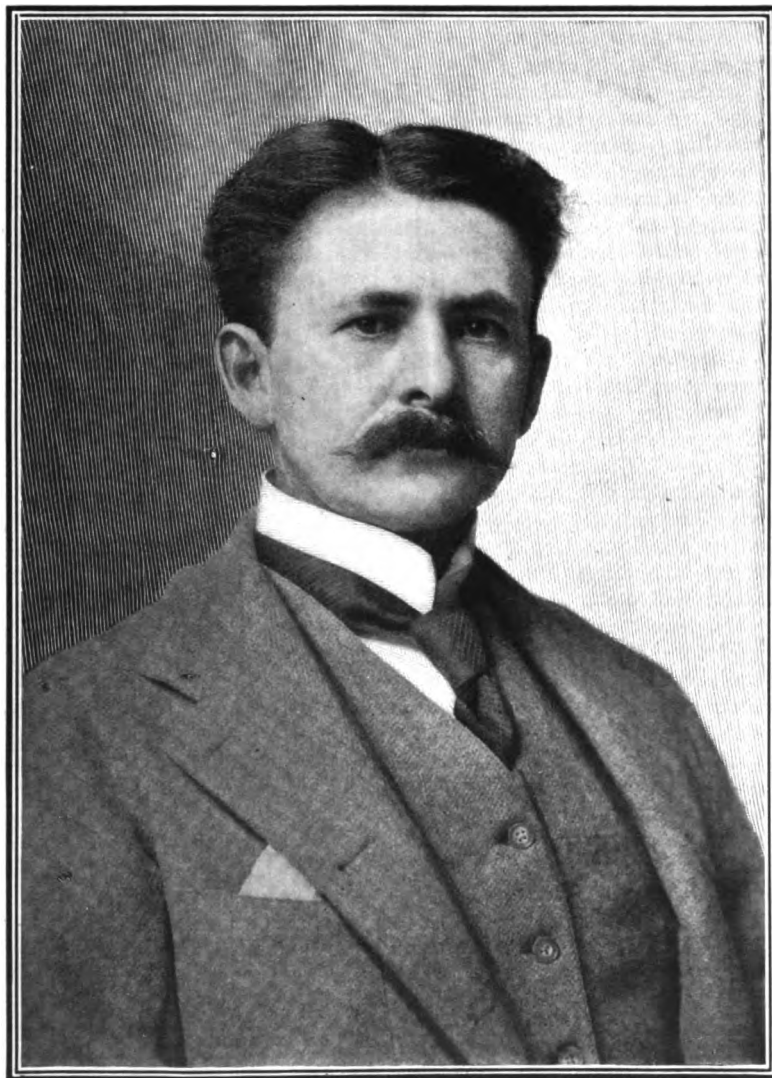
## A NOBEL PRIZE FOR AMERICAN SCIENCE.

BY HERBERT T. WADE.

WHEN the trustees of the Nobel Fund in their awards for 1907 decided to confer the annual prize for physics on Prof. Albert A. Michelson of the University of Chicago, the event was significant as being the first time that this distinguished honor had been paid to an American man of science. The award of the Nobel prize for

the promotion of peace to President Roosevelt in 1906 naturally met with the enthusiastic approval of the people of the United States, and so this more recent honor to an illustrious physicist is considered as much a recognition of American science and capacity for original work and minute specialization as it is a well merited tribute to the distinguished recipient. Furthermore, it is an added source of gratification that Professor Michelson's work represents most largely the results of American training and environment and has been carried on for the most part in American institutions.

Born at Strelno, Prussia, December 19, 1852, he was brought to this country as a boy, and from the San Francisco high school entered the United States Naval Academy at Annapolis, where he was graduated in 1873. The young ensign's interest in physics and chemistry led to his detail to the teaching staff of the Academy in 1875, and it was here that he commenced his experimental work that soon developed into such importance. He was attracted especially toward the problem of the velocity



PROFESSOR ALBERT A. MICHELSON.

(Winner of the Nobel Prize in Physics, 1907.)

of light, which since the days of Galileo had appealed with such interest to physicists. Although a speed of 186,000 miles a second is as much beyond the grasp of the ordinary mind as it was beyond the crude though ingenious methods of Galileo, yet in 1849 the French physicist Fizeau was able to approximate this quantity, using apparatus the principal element of which was a rapidly rotating toothed wheel. This method was improved on by Foucault in 1850, who employed a rotating mirror and a much shorter distance for his beam. Here the velocity was obtained by observing the displacement of the reflected light in a telescope, rather than by its eclipse, as in Fizeau's experiment.

#### RE-DETERMINING THE VELOCITY OF LIGHT.

It was an improvement of this method that young Michelson devised, and obtaining at an expense of \$10 a small revolving mirror, with such apparatus as the Naval Academy laboratory afforded and he could construct, he made a series of determinations which gave as a mean value of the velocity of light 186,500 miles. This preliminary work so commended itself to the scientific men of the navy that the sum of \$2000 was placed at his disposal and special apparatus with a small frame building in which it was installed was constructed, so that early in the year 1879 the first observations could be made. The care taken in these experiments and the delicacy of adjustment and manipulation aroused the admiration of older physicists and astronomers, and the values obtained for the velocity of light from these observations were considered an important advance in accuracy and precision. It may be said in passing that the importance of this quantity does not lie merely in its use in optical problems at the earth's surface, but assuming that light travels with the same velocity in interplanetary space as in a vacuum, its velocity becomes an important consideration in astronomy. It affords a most useful method of determining the solar parallax and the distance of the sun, either by considering it in connection with observations of the eclipses of the satellites of Jupiter or with the astronomical quantity known as the "constant of aberration," derived from observations of the fixed stars.

At the conclusion of these important experiments, Michelson, who by this time had reached the grade of master, was assigned to the Nautical Almanac Office in Washington, where his studies in light were continued.

Then going to Europe he was able to enjoy the facilities of the laboratories of the Universities of Berlin and Heidelberg and of the College de France, and Ecole Polytechnique, and was brought into close contact with the great physicists who then presided over these institutions. In this way he was able to develop some experimental ideas which he had previously evolved.

#### STUDYING THE LIGHT WAVES.

Realizing in his study of light waves that greater use could be made of the principle of interference, he began a series of experiments which since have found wide application and development at his hands. Not only has he been enabled to determine the most minute distances in terms of the wave length of light, but one of the early applications of his experiments was to the determining of the relative motion, if any, between the all-pervading ether and the earth. This involved measuring the relative speeds of beams of light in different directions as regards the motion of the earth. While this and subsequent experiments led to negative results, yet they brought about improvements of the apparatus in the form of the interferometer, so that it became most useful for spectroscopy and metrology.

Convinced that a career devoted to science was more to his nature Michelson resigned from the navy in 1881, and was called to the Case School of Applied Science, at Cleveland, Ohio, as professor of physics. Here ample opportunity was given for research and the range and scope of his experiments with the interferometer were greatly increased, numerous papers on this subject being communicated to scientific journals and learned societies. At Cleveland a repetition of the experiments on the velocity of light was undertaken and more accurate values secured, while the relative speeds of the waves in air, water, and other gases and liquids was obtained. So well recognized by this time was Professor Michelson's reputation that in 1887 he became vice-president and chairman of the section of physics of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, and in the following year was elected a member of the National Academy of Sciences, that small group of American scientific immortals. That this growing reputation was not confined to the United States is shown by the fact that the Royal Society of London in 1889 conferred on Professor Michelson its Rumford Medal, in



recognition of his researches on optics. In this year he became professor of physics in Clark University, at Worcester, Mass., where in addition to supervising research by graduate students, he further developed the practical use of the interferometer in the measurement of distances. When it is stated that the length of a light wave varies from  $\frac{1}{87,000}$  of an inch for red to  $\frac{1}{55,000}$  for violet, the difficulties in the way of using such a quantity can be understood. But it was here that Professor Michelson's manipulative skill was able to achieve success, and he was able to measure with accuracy small distances in terms of the waves of light of a fixed position in the spectrum.

#### A NEW STANDARD OF LENGTH.

The accuracy of this work so appealed to Dr. B. A. Gould that when he attended the meeting of the International Committee of Weights and Measures at Paris as the delegate of the United States in 1892, he brought the matter before the eminent physicists and metrologists composing that body. Accordingly an invitation was extended to Professor Michelson to carry on and extend his investigation at the Bureau International des Poids et Mesures at Sèvres near Paris, with a view to determining the length of the International Prototype Meter in terms of the wave length of light. Professor Michelson proceeded to Paris, and in one of the laboratories of the Bureau installed his apparatus. A year was spent in the careful adjustment and the making of observations, but when the latter were computed the results were most satisfactory, their harmony indicating a high degree of precision. The prototype meter Professor Michelson found was equal to 1,553,163.5 red waves of the spectrum of the metal cadmium, 1,966,249.7 of the green, and 2,083,372.1 of the blue, with an absolute accuracy of one part in 2,000,000.

This research fixes the standard of length now used, independent of time and all other considerations, as the waves of light are unalterable. Even if the properties of the ether should change as the solar system moves through space, it would be hardly less than 20,000,000 years, says Professor Michelson, before any such effects would be material in changing the wave length of light. On the other hand the present platinum-iridium standard meter preserved most carefully in the vault of the Bureau International, even in spaces of time more readily

appreciated by the mind, may undergo such changes as may unfit it for use as a standard, not to mention its possible loss, damage, or destruction. As the standards of the metric system underlie the metrology of the entire world, the importance of permanently defining them cannot be underestimated as an achievement in physics.

Professor Michelson's return from this successful work at Paris enabled him to take up the organization of the department of physics of the University of Chicago, to the head of which he was appointed in 1892. Arranging a large and commodious laboratory, he gathered around him skilful teachers and investigators who were able to profit from his direction and experience, so that this department has achieved and maintained an enviable place among those of American universities for teaching the fundamentals of science as well as for the furtherance of original investigation and research. Here conditions of equipment and organization have enabled Professor Michelson to carry on his original work without a diminishing of its amount or quality.

#### THE ECHELON SPECTROSCOPE.

In connection with his spectroscopic studies he has devised a new instrument known as the echelon spectroscope, where the effects of magnetism on the light waves and other phenomena can be studied. Just as his apparatus for measuring the velocity of light showed an improvement over that of Foucault, so with the new spectroscope the separation of special lines observed by Zeeman when the light was under the influence of a magnetic field was strikingly increased. He has also extended the use of the interferometer to astronomy in connection with the telescope, and its power to resolve the light from the various stars into particular and peculiar kinds of radiation has made it a most useful instrument. Also by the study of the characteristics of the radiations, considering the vibration of the ether as a form of motion, Professor Michelson has greatly increased the range of spectroscopy.

In 1899, as lecturer in the famous Lowell course, at Boston, Professor Michelson explained in a series of lectures recent developments in the study of light, and these addresses, printed in the Decennial Publications of the University of Chicago under the title of "Light Waves and Their Uses," afford an excellent insight into modern physical methods. In this same year, as one of the

American representatives at the jubilee of Sir G. G. Stokes, the celebrated physicist and authority on light, Professor Michelson presented an address to this distinguished savant, and in turn was honored with the degree of Doctor of Science from Cambridge University. The Royal Institution of London also made him an honorary member, and in 1900 he received a grand prize from the Paris Exposition.

While the astronomer deals with magnitudes so great that they challenge the re-

spect and admiration, if not the understanding, of the average man, the world of science at the other end of the scale to which the physicist working in what is known as pure science largely addresses himself, has hardly received the same general attention and appreciation. It is in this field that Professor Michelson has achieved such great success, and it bears out a remark of a famous physicist often quoted by him, "that the future truths of physical science are to be looked for in the sixth place of decimals."

## WILLIAM JAMES, THE MAN AND THE THINKER.

BY EDWIN BJÖRKMAN.

PROFESSOR WILLIAM JAMES, the foremost exponent of Pragmatism and the representative of contemporaneous American philosophy who looms largest in the public eye not only in his native country but all over the world, retired officially on October 1 from the chair of philosophy at Harvard University, which he had occupied for ten years. A pension from the Carnegie Institution has enabled him at last,—he is now sixty-five years old, but as hale and strong and active as a man of fifty,—to realize a long cherished desire of devoting his whole time and energy to the completion of several philosophical works already planned. Though the public and science must be gainers by a change which enables Professor James to put into final form those ideas and theories that have raised him to the eminence he now holds in the world of thought, this change will mean a severe loss to the university and the student body. The loss would be still greater were the institution to be deprived not only of Professor James' teaching but also of the inspiring influence of his personality. But his life will continue to be centered in and about Harvard, where he has been at home almost uninterruptedly since he first entered the Lawrence Scientific School as a student in 1861. His familiar, briskly moving figure, his bristling beard, and his smiling eyes, will still be seen around the Delta, and innumerable student pilgrimages will undoubtedly be made from that region to the cosy house on Irving Street where Professor James lives with his wife and sons,—a haven of peace snuggling so close among elms and shrubbery in an

out-of-the-way nook that the visiting stranger needs a chart and compass to find his way to it through the labyrinth of meandering avenues that is Cambridge.

The academic career now brought to a formal, if not actual, end has not only surpassed the ordinary in duration and productiveness, but it has, to an exceptional extent, been characterized by a steady growth, an incessant opening of new vistas and widening of outgrown horizons. It would be hard to find a finer illustration of that modern, scientific spirit which enjoins the searcher after truth from ever stopping in the belief that the final goal has been reached at last. To Professor James the words of Emerson have always applied in full force: "His life is a progress, and not a station." The exact sciences drew him at first. He studied medicine and took his degree of M.D. in 1870, but he never practiced. Instead, he taught, giving the major portion of his attention to physiology. Eight years saw him as instructor and assistant professor in that subject at the university from which he had graduated. But his future life work was calling him even at that early day, although its voice was still coming out of the "sub-conscious" only. By degrees he turned more and more from matter to mind, from the body to the soul. He began by interpreting the psychological theories of Spencer, and ended by working out new ones of his own. From the first his steps tended toward new and unbroken paths, and his honor of having opened these cannot be lessened by the paralleling of his work by other men in some cases.

As a part of the curriculum, psychology

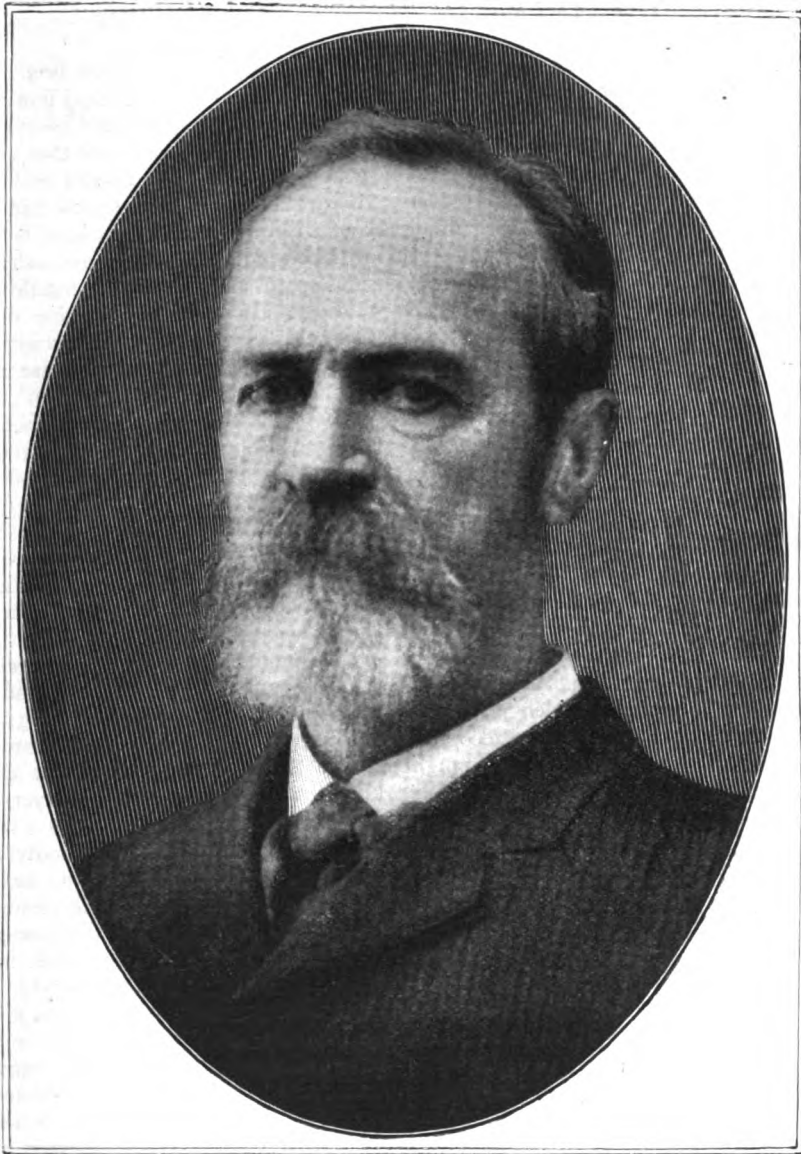
was merely a subordinate division of the department of philosophy in those days. In 1880 an assistant professorship in philosophy was given the young psychologist, and five years later this was made a full professorship. But only in 1889 was Professor James given a separate chair of psychology. In the following year appeared his first great work, the "Principles of Psychology." It had been nine years in the making. But it took hardly that many months to spread the name of the author throughout the civilized world. For the two volumes contained a complete exposition of what is now familiar to every student of psychology and philosophy as the Lange-James theory, the essence of which may be roughly expressed in the contention that our feelings are the result rather than the cause of our instinctive reactions against impressions from without. While still disputed,—and frequently with fanaticism,—this theory has been gaining ground ever since it was first published, and even where it has not been accepted in its entirety it has had the power to modify previous conceptions of our emotional processes.

Like more than one prominent psychologist in modern times, Professor James was irresistibly led on toward philosophy in its widest sense,—as a synthesis of all human knowledge for the interpretation and modification of man's relationship to life. In this tendency, which in 1897 resulted in his transfer to a chair of philosophy at his own request, he was undoubtedly speeded by the increasing predominance of experimental psychology, the methods of which have left him unsympathetic from the start in spite of his own firm belief that physiological changes underlie all psychological phenomena. In 1897, too, was published the volume entitled "The Will to Believe, and Other Essays," in which may be found his first definite announcements of pragmatic theories. These took then principally the form of a protest against the dogmatism, absolutism and fatalism of the orthodox Hegelian philosophy prevailing at Oxford, and represented here by Professor Royce of Harvard with such ability and originality that his works by many are valued even above those of Francis Bradley, the most effective thinker among the English Neo-Hegelians. The two winters of 1900-01 and 1901-02 were spent by Professor James at Edinburg and Aberdeen, where he went to deliver the Gifford lecture courses on philosophy. The result of that venture across the ocean was his second mon-

umental work, the "Varieties of Religious Experience: A Study in Human Nature." And again he was found to have rendered a contribution to human learning that was in a large degree original and in every respect significant. In that work the pragmatic attitude of looking toward results rather than causes prevailed throughout. It accentuated on one side the unifying effect of vital religious emotion on man's existence, and on the other side the futility of all religious forms that have ceased to influence human life actively. Harald Høffding, the Danish philosopher who ranks among the greatest minds of the day, and who himself is the author of a remarkable *Philosophy of Religion*, says concerning the work of Professor James: "Long time has passed since I read a book that had the power of this one to make me look at man and life with new and refreshed vision." And right here it may be well to quote another utterance by the same writer about his American colleague: "James belongs to the foremost thinkers of our time. He combines comprehensive knowledge with great power of observation, keen critical judgment with idealistic enthusiasm, and freedom from prejudice with sincere conviction."

#### THE EXPONENT OF PRAGMATISM.

In late years Professor James has more and more claimed the attention of laymen and experts alike as the expounder and defender of a new philosophical method,—a method that had been vaguely glimpsed by one of our most brilliant and most diffuse thinkers (Charles Pierce) years before its true nature and proper application were grasped and explained by Professor James, Prof. John Dewey of Columbia, and Prof. F. C. S. Schiller of Oxford. These three men stand fundamentally for the same thing, although one of them calls it Pragmatism, the other Instrumentalism, and the third Humanism. James and Dewey arrived at their conclusions simultaneously and independently of each other, one applying the new ideas to logic in particular and the other to psychology. Schiller, who received inspiration from both the others, has turned his attention more toward pure metaphysics. At present the importance of Pragmatism may be judged chiefly by the stir it has caused in the world of learning. And its actual bearings are still seen only by a small minority. Putting the matter into very broad and crude terms, it may be said that



PROFESSOR WILLIAM JAMES.

Pragmatism insists on the correlation of philosophy to real life. Instead of turning backwards for inspiration and authentication, it sends its vision forward. It does not pretend to be a new philosophy, whether this word be used to designate a cosmological conception or an attitude toward life. It is a method rather than anything else, a way of working that leads to the weighing and judging of truth by the consequences its acceptance may have to men. It professes to teach how truth may be recognized, not what the truth is. Of those who have preached it so far, none has done more than Professor James to carry out its innermost spirit by

making it intelligible to all thinking men and women. With this object in view he delivered a course of lectures, first at Boston and then at Columbia University, publishing them later in book form under the title of "Pragmatism: A New Name for Some Old Ways of Thinking." Plain and clear as is the language of this volume, it has been largely misunderstood, where it was not willfully misinterpreted.

One thing that Professor James declares with particular emphasis in this as in all his other works is that what we generally call "truth" cannot be regarded as,—to quote another Pragmatist,—"an unalterable sys-

tem of objective truths that subsist independently of the flux of human experience." To him truth is being constantly produced by interaction between man and the world around him; or, as Professor James himself recently expressed this thought: "Mind engenders truth upon reality." But Pragmatism goes further still by recognizing as truth only what has meaning and importance in man's life, judging the value of a truth by the consequences to man of its acceptance as such. And by this exercise of selective power man becomes able to exert an influence on the encountered reality, just as he is influenced by it. In other words, man not only helps to make the truth but to "make,"—*i. e.*, to change and reconstruct,—the world itself. Thus, according to Professor James and his followers, man ceases to be the helpless victim of a fate made for him by a power wholly outside of himself, as not only the theologians but also the philosophers of materialistic as well as idealistic leanings have insisted on making him. Another important phase of this new tendency of philosophic thought is its refusal to recognize the complete supremacy of reason as taught by the prevalent rationalistic philosophies. On this point Prof. W. P. Montague of Columbia University said recently: "It is safe to say that Pragmatism, whatever else it may imply, stands for a protest against interpreting experience in terms that are exclusively cognitive. Existence does not consist primarily either in being perceived or in being conceived, but rather in being felt and willed." Taking into consideration not only these features of the new school, but also others not touched on here, it is clear that it tends directly away from that all too common academical attitude which looks upon knowledge as something existing in and for itself, without regard to its usefulness to man.

#### A MUCH-BELOVED PHILOSOPHER.

Whether Professor James be considered as thinker or as teacher, as writer or as man, his most characteristic qualities are catholicity and charitableness of spirit, toward thoughts not less than toward men. He has unbounded faith in mankind as well as in individual men, and yet he is rarely if ever deceived. It is not blind trust but extreme acuteness of perception that fills him with limitless sympathy and turns him into what one of his friends described as a "dispenser of spiritual alms." Persons in trou-

ble, many of whom have been led by the study of his works to regard him as a sort of physician for the soul, are ever knocking at his door, and few are those that go away unhelped, while none is turned aside unheeded. In each man he manages to find a trace of good; through the darkest case he spies a ray of hope. And men show naturally their best sides in his presence, both intellectually and morally. If there be anything of worth in them, his gentle words, so totally free from all intellectual snobbishness, are sure to reveal it.

In the lecture-room, in his books, and in his daily life, he is above all honest, both in dealing with himself and with others. He is equally frank in confessing failure and claiming merit, in granting the limitations of all philosophy or those of his own. In spite of his vast store of knowledge and his deep insight into the nature of men and things alike, he never permits himself to become dogmatic. Obscurity is hateful to him. A master of style, he does not disdain to employ colloquialisms, or even slang, if thereby he may make himself more easily understood. And to him the truth that is not known and understood is not yet any truth at all. His students have always mixed their admiration for him with a goodly portion of pure love, and they are often heard to declare that whatever be best in them, whatever they possess of sincerity, directness and unconventionality as writers and instructors, they owe to the example set by Professor James. One result of his passion for clearness, on the platform as well as in print, has been to make many think him less deep than he is: the plainness of his style seems sadly lacking in profundity when compared with the veiled and oracular utterances of other philosophers. His openness of spirit has manifested itself strikingly in his attitude toward Christian and Mental Science as well as toward psychic research, the claims of the latter having always found in him a tolerant although far from credulous listener.

If anything more be needed to make clear just what kind of man he is, I will add a little anecdote before I close. Not long ago a former pupil of Professor James lost all his personal property, including his library, through fire. A few days later he received by express a box containing fifty volumes which Professor James had picked out from his own rich store of books as being particularly needful and helpful to the sufferer.

# SOME OF ELECTRICITY'S RECENT TRIUMPHS.

BY GEORGE ILES.

(Author of "Inventors at Work.")

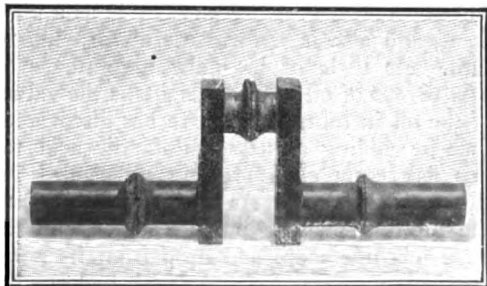
WHEN man in the making first kindled fire, he took a long stride toward becoming man as he is. Fire gave him warmth in winter: it opened to him gates of the north otherwise forever shut. After sundown it bestowed light, so that he could then work or travel, hunt or fish, instead of idling in caves or huts as when destitute of glowing ember or flaring torch. When a blaze died out the earth below its ashes was found baked to hardness: here lay the promise of bricks and pottery, so that at last the walls of Ninevah were reared, the vases of Etruria took form. When a flame fiercer than common melted sand to glass, there was prophecy of a telescope for Galileo, a camera for Daguerre, a microscope whereby Pasteur should detect the deadliest, because the minutest, foes of man. All the streams of lead and iron, copper and zinc, ever smelted from ores; all the acids, oils and alcohols that ever dropped from alembic or still, took their rise in that tiny blaze as it flickered under its creators' hands. Unknowingly there, too, were laid foundations for the mighty engines of Watt and Stephenson, Parsons and De Laval. Thence, also, sprang the tides of iron and steel which to-day gridiron the continents, wall every steamship to resist the ocean surge, and build machines to exalt a hundred-fold the weaving, digging, hammering thrust of the human arm.

Could mankind harness an agent still mightier than flame? Yes, and we are now in the midst of that subduing, for never more than at this hour were the masters of electricity triumphant. We have but to glance at a few of their recent conquests to see that electricity can do all that flame does, do it better, and accomplish tasks infinitely beyond the reach of fire, however ingeniously applied.

## ELECTRIC HEAT BETTER THAN FLAME HEAT.

Flame, as a direct source of heat, is at best a faulty servant. In consuming oxygen it produces carbon dioxide and other harmful gases; it wastefully warms huge volumes of inert nitrogen, with the result that temperatures are much reduced. If the

fuel contains sulphur or phosphorus these much impair the quality of molten iron or seething steel. In dwellings, in mines, on shipboard, the necessary consumption of air is a dire evil; more serious still is the outpouring of deadly gases. Flame labors under other disadvantages. It is on the outside of a crucible or retort that it beats; the shell to be penetrated, if the steel plate of a big boiler, may be an inch thick; much thicker, and non-conducting as well, is the brick wall of a bake-oven. Flame produces much heat of little worth because of low temperature. The whole Atlantic Ocean might be lukewarm and still leave a potato unboiled. It is the margin by which a temperature overtops the degree needed for boiling, melting or welding that decides its value. Yet more: flame at most has a play of only a few inches. Even when it raises steam, the best of all heat-carriers, that steam may be borne no further than a mile without excessive loss. All these faults and wastes disappear when, instead of flame, we employ electric heat, notwithstanding the cost of its round-about production by a furnace, a heat-engine and a dynamo. In many cases the engineer can happily dispense with fuel altogether, and draw upon a waterfall, as notably at Niagara. Electricity, in whatever mode produced, may be easily and fully insulated, taken, if we please, 100 miles, and there, through non-conducting mica or asbestos, enter the very heart of a kettle, or still, to exert itself as heat, without an iota of subtraction. It has no partner, gaseous or other, to work



A CRANK WELDED BY THE ELIHU THOMSON PROCESS.

injury or levy a tax. Electricity, too, by a transformer, may be readily lifted from low to high voltage, or pressure, immensely widening its effective play in soldering, welding, smelting. At any temperature desired, there, with perfect constancy, electric heat may be maintained, with no need that a branding or smoothing iron return periodically to a fire, with risk of scorching.

#### ELECTRIC WELDING.

A capital example of the convenience and economy of electric heat is displayed in the art of electric welding, due to Elihu Thomson. Two steel bars to form parts of a crank are clamped together, and a current is sent through their junction. At every point where contact is imperfect, resistance to the current is greatest, and the highest temperature appears. Electric heat thus goes just where it does most work. At the instant of welding the two pieces of steel are forcibly drawn together; when cool they sever under stress anywhere but at their weld. In like manner the tires for bicycles and automobiles are united, the rails for railroads, the links of chains, the tubes for boilers, the containers for compressed gases, and so on through a long list. The chemist, with as much gain as the metal-worker, adopts electric heat.

#### CARBON YIELDS LIGHT, RIVALS THE DIAMOND, AND MINIMIZES FRICTION.

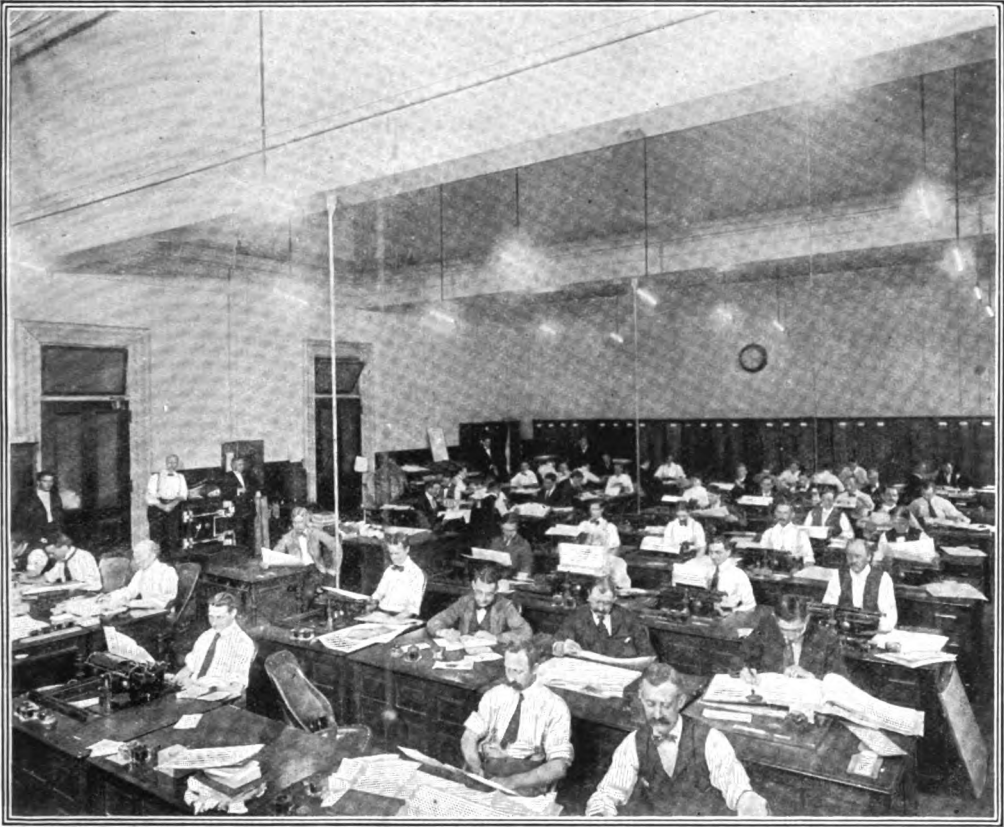
Carbon, perhaps the chief chemical element, has forms as diverse as coal, graphite, and diamonds. Both as an element and in its compounds, it has for years engaged the skill of Edward Goodrich Acheson, at Niagara Falls. There, with electric heat of utmost intensity, he converts anthracite into graphitized carbon rods, almost pure. Their conductivity is four-fold that of the best natural graphite. These rods serve as current-carriers in an electric manufacture of alkalis, impossible without their agency. Mr. Acheson makes graphite serviceable as a pigment, and also in a form useful as a lubricant. As little of his flaky graphite as 1 part to 300 of oil greatly heightens the value of the oil in lubrication. He has discovered that by adding a little gallotannic acid to this flaky graphite it remains suspended in either oil or water. As an indivisible liquid the mixture may be pumped throughout a huge machine shop, and drop from its nozzles as if pure oil. Mr. Acheson makes also carborundum, a compound of carbon and silicon, an abrasive second only to the diamond.

#### IRON-SMELTING AND STEEL-MAKING.

The extreme heat of the electric furnace, with its exclusion of all undesired substances whatever, make it an ideal means of smelting iron or producing steel. In reviewing a remarkable series of experiments, Mr. F. W. Harbord, the eminent English metallurgist, says: "Pig iron can be produced on a commercial scale where electric energy is \$10 per kilowatt for a year, as against \$7 per ton for coke. Steel, equal to the best Sheffield crucible steel, is obtainable electrically at less than the present cost of producing high-class crucible steel." The Keller electrical process for pig iron has required in a first run .475 horsepower year per ton; in a second run, .226. In steel making the Kjellin method has consumed .116 horsepower year per ton, the Heroult method, .153, the Keller method, .112. Only very few waterfalls in the world can furnish electricity at Mr. Harbord's limit of \$10 per year for a kilowatt, or  $1\frac{1}{3}$  horsepower. For other purposes than the production of heat, as for motive power or lighting, the current would, as a rule, have much more value. In New York retail customers pay the Edison Company 10 cents per kilowatt hour, or \$876 per annum. Clearly a much lower rate must precede any rivalry betwixt the electric crucible and the blast furnace.

#### LIGHT ALMOST TREBLED.

Two methods by which electricity may afford heat are illustrated in ordinary electric lighting. An Edison lamp has a filament of carbon which so resists a current as to rise to a vivid glow. A second mode is shown in an arc-lamp, whose two carbon pencils first touch, then withdraw, leaving between them an arc of dazzling radiance. An incandescent lamp, so far from requiring air, demands a vacuum. To-day the best lamp of this kind has a thread of tungsten, of an efficiency two and one-half times greater than that of a carbon filament. Tungsten may safely reach 1850 degrees Centigrade; carbon may not surpass 1660 degrees. Only within two years have the difficulties of treating tungsten for lamps been overcome. In one process the metal is crushed to powder, united with a binding material to form a paste which is squirted through a die as a thread; the binder is then removed, leaving the tungsten by itself. It is much more fragile than carbon, and must be carefully handled; its filaments may be disposed down-



THE FOREIGN MONEY ORDER DEPARTMENT, GENERAL POST OFFICE, NEW YORK, LIGHTED WITH COOPER HEWITT LAMPS.

ward only. Its rays are so bright that they are usually dimmed by a semi-opaque globe, with, of course, considerable loss of light.

The Westinghouse tungsten lamp has twenty candle power, for a current of 1.25 watts per candle; it lasts 1000 hours with hardly any lessening of brilliancy; it costs 90 cents. Side by side is a carbon-filament lamp, of sixteen candle power, for a current of 3.1 watts per candle; with a useful life of 450 hours; it costs 18 cents. With current at 10 cents per kilowatt hour, light from tungsten is about half as expensive as from carbon threads, inclusive of lamps in both cases.

A Cooper-Hewitt tube in economy excels a tungsten lamp as much as that lamp distances an Edison bulb. It is of clear glass, about 21 inches long, with a small cup at each end inside. When in circuit a little mercury running from end to end starts the light, which, coming as it does, from an extensive surface, is so moderate in brightness

as not to need a shade, with its destruction of light. In the automatic design here illustrated a switch closes the circuit, at once a magnet tilts the lamp for its start; this device assures relighting should there be an accidental interruption of current. In this type, "H," a candle power requires .64 watt; with a tube twice as long, type "K," the outlay sinks to .55 watt per candle, or 1356 candles per horsepower. The light is green and unsuitable for houses, stores, or wherever else colors are to remain normal to the eye. Apart from this restriction the Hewitt tubes have wide applicability to factories, mills, foundries, composing rooms, freight sheds, docks, streets and public squares. They are used in the New York Post Office. In photography their beams are particularly rapid and effective.

How in cost does light from electricity compare with light from flame? In its best form, with rays directed downward, a Welsbach mantle gives 25 candles for each



cubic foot of gas burned an hour. With gas at \$1.25 per 1000 cubic feet, and tungsten lamps consuming current at 4 cents per kilowatt hour, the cost is the same, leaving out of account the expense of either mantles or candles.

#### ELECTRICITY AT HOME.

Carbon-filament lamps are much cheaper to-day than at first; a like fall in price may soon give popularity to lamps of much higher economy. On equal terms electric light is preferred to any other; it is the safest of all, sends out no fumes and but little heat, while it leaves the air unconsumed. In many another service electricity stands ready to lift the burdens of housekeeping, to create new comforts at home.

Last October the Brooklyn Edison Company exhibited in New York the best array of electric appliances for the household ever brought together. A suite of rooms, to form a home, were equipped with every electrical aid. The kitchen had a coffee percolator, a frying kettle, a waffle iron, all heated at small cost. In the laundry was a smoothing iron always at the right temperature, needing no renewals of heat at a stove. A variety of motors operated a clothes-washer, a wringer, a sewing machine, a dish-washer, a buffer to polish silver, and a vacuum cleaner for rugs and carpets. A Brunswick refrigerator of one horsepower made a pound of ice every hour. Fan motors here and there were blowing a grateful breeze; in winter they might hasten the warming of rooms by driving air over their steam coils.

These household motors are an unmatched gift of electricity. On a minor scale, for domestic labor, heat engines are out of the question. Steam motors are economical only when large. Gas engines of as little as five horsepower are built, but they are unwelcome tenants in a house. All heat engines exhale gases or vapors, need qualified attendants, introduce a risk of fire or scalding. Whether small enough for a cottage, or big enough to drive a steel rolling mill, an electric motor is equally efficient and desirable. On request it takes a walk, as in the traveling crane of a ship yard or quarry. In any use a flexible wire conveys all its energy, dismissing chains and belts, cranks or pulleys. And when idle it asks no pay.

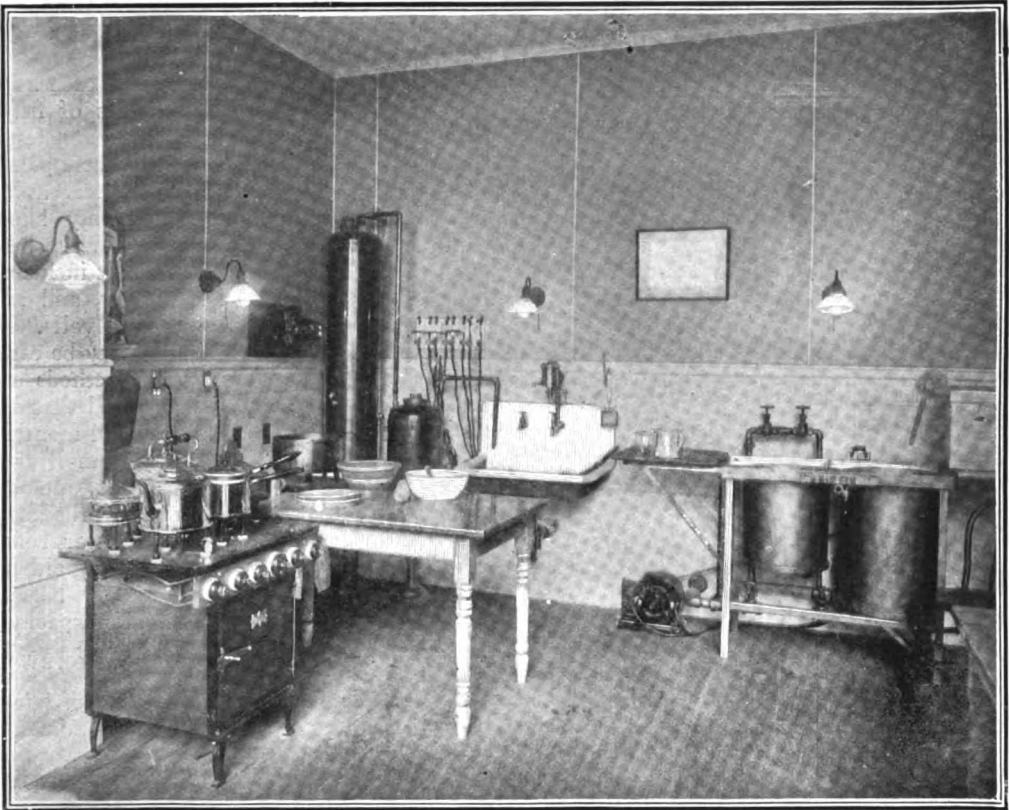
#### PUTTING POWER IN BANKS.

Suppose we have a windmill, waterwheel, or other prime mover, now swift, then slow,

and after that absolutely still. How can we store its power at times of surplusage for hours of dearth? If we compress air, or lift water to lofty tanks, our outlay will be large, our losses by friction very considerable. But let us harness a storage battery and we shall be well and cheaply served. Every foot-pound of spare energy may be instantly and safely banked there, and withdrawn at need with small deduction. Not only in households, office-buildings and factories has this battery high utility, but also as a means of travel, as in the runabout. The gasoline automobile has a field of its own, as a high-power machine which may go indefinitely far. It may develop forty horsepower from a Herreshoff motor weighing but 415 pounds, and furnish a horsepower for an hour for each pint of gasoline consumed, picking up from the air, as it goes along, the oxygen for combustion. The electromobile carries much less effective fuel in its lead or iron, and besides must bear such acids and alkalis as its combinations demand. Last October Mr. Edison showed me his new nickel-iron cells, from which, for every fifty-three pounds, he expects a horsepower for an hour. Despite its weight the electric vehicle is popular on many accounts; it starts at a touch, asks no expert driver, is simple and safe, odorless and cool; and, above all, its habit is to stay in order. In their best designs electromobiles run fast and far. A Babcock machine travels twenty-six miles an hour on a level road. A Detroit machine has gone from Detroit to Toledo, seventy-two miles, in 220 minutes, with charge enough left for thirty miles more. A lady as she pays a round of calls or goes shopping, a physician visiting his patients, a family taking the air, all find the runabout preferable to the automobile, whose power and swiftness are excessive, with mechanism difficult to control, costly to keep in repair.

#### MOTORS ON THE RAIL.

Incomparably more important than the runabout is the electric locomotive, which, in its first estate, as the trolley-motor, has vastly expanded the suburbs of our cities, and created thousands of healthful homes. Passing from city streets and country roads to the tracks of steam lines, this motor is working a quiet revolution, by virtue of inherent superiority at every point. To begin with, an electric locomotive has left its fuel and furnace, its boiler, water-tank and engine at home. Unburdened by their weight it is



KITCHEN EXHIBIT OF ELECTRICAL APPLIANCES, AT MADISON SQUARE GARDEN, NEW YORK CITY, OCTOBER, 1907.

also free from their hazard of fire or scalding in case of mishap. With no tender to drag, this locomotive bears on its drivers so large a part of its total weight that it gets up speed in about half the time needed by its steam rival. Last July the New Haven Railroad began running its electric trains to New Rochelle from New York, sixteen miles, since extending this service to Stamford, seventeen miles further. An alternating current, at 11,000 volts, enters a car from an overhead wire through a pantograph which permits much more play than does the common trolley-wheel. These Westinghouse locomotives, hauling 200-ton trains, which stop on an average every 2.2 miles, must net twenty-six miles an hour. On long runs they must go sixty-five to seventy miles an hour, or take 250-ton trains at sixty miles an hour. At such paces a steam locomotive would have low efficiency; its cylinders would be too quickly emptied to be kept fully supplied with steam. At all speeds electric locomotives have their economy un-

impaired. Nor is this all; a heavy train, on a steep grade, may call for two or more steam locomotives. It is hardly possible to keep them in step so that they exert an even, uniform pull. A train might be a mile long, and with electric motors distributed throughout its length, all would advance as a single machine when controlled by the Sprague multiple-unit system. And again: a steam locomotive is impelled by the to and fro action of its pistons, which, at high speeds, sometimes deliver blows so violent as to lift the wheels from the track. An electric motor turns round and round, so that it never works this injury.

#### TAKING POWER AFAR.

Whether for railroad service, factory toil, city lighting, or aught else, it is an inestimable boon that electricity may be borne for scores of miles at comparatively small cost for conductors, with inconsiderable leakage by the way. The Pacific Gas and Electric Company of California has stations at their

farthest 318 miles apart, supplying, all told, about 80,000 horsepower. Its chief currents have the enormous pressure of 60,000 volts. Each insulator, of stout porcelain, is made up of three separate, conical hoods.

#### WIRELESS WORDS.

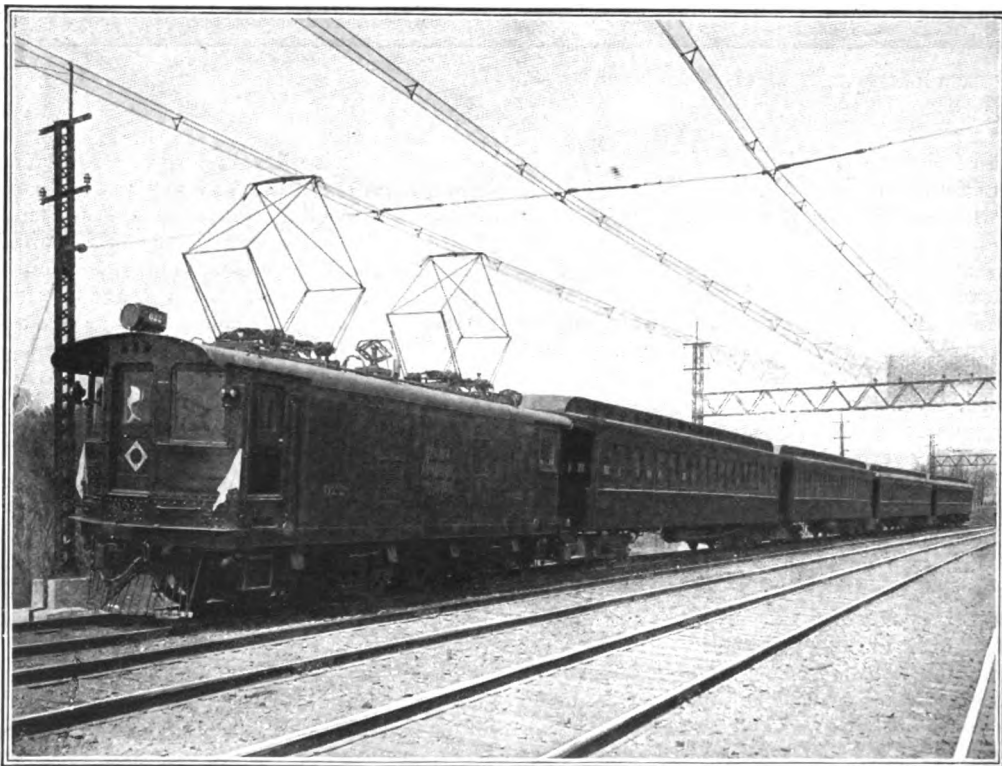
Thus far we have glanced at services long performed by fire, and now better executed by electricity. Let us now view feats of electricity that fire cannot attempt at all. In communicating messages, flame began to play a notable part long ago; first, as flaring beacons; then, in lamps such as those still swinging along railroad tracks. But all such means are narrowly limited in scope, and utterly fail when fogs descend or storms arise. Because an electric wire may be insulated for hundreds of miles it has created the telegraph, perhaps the chief gift bestowed by the electrician upon mankind. Electric waves are not only transmissible by a wire, they may be committed to the ether of free space, as by Marconi, so that with no metallic or other medium, save the aforesaid ether, he enables Ireland and Nova Scotia to signal to each other as if on opposite banks of the

Hudson, instead of being divided by the tempest swept Atlantic. The four Marconi towers at Glace Bay, Nova Scotia, each 215 feet tall, are surmounted by poles of fifty feet more, making a total height of 265 feet. Some fifty aerial wires run from these poles horizontally for several hundred feet as a directive system. Thus far seventy kilowatts, about ninety-three horsepower, has sufficed in transmission. The plant includes a steam engine of 500 horsepower, and an alternator of 350 kilowatts at 2000 volts.

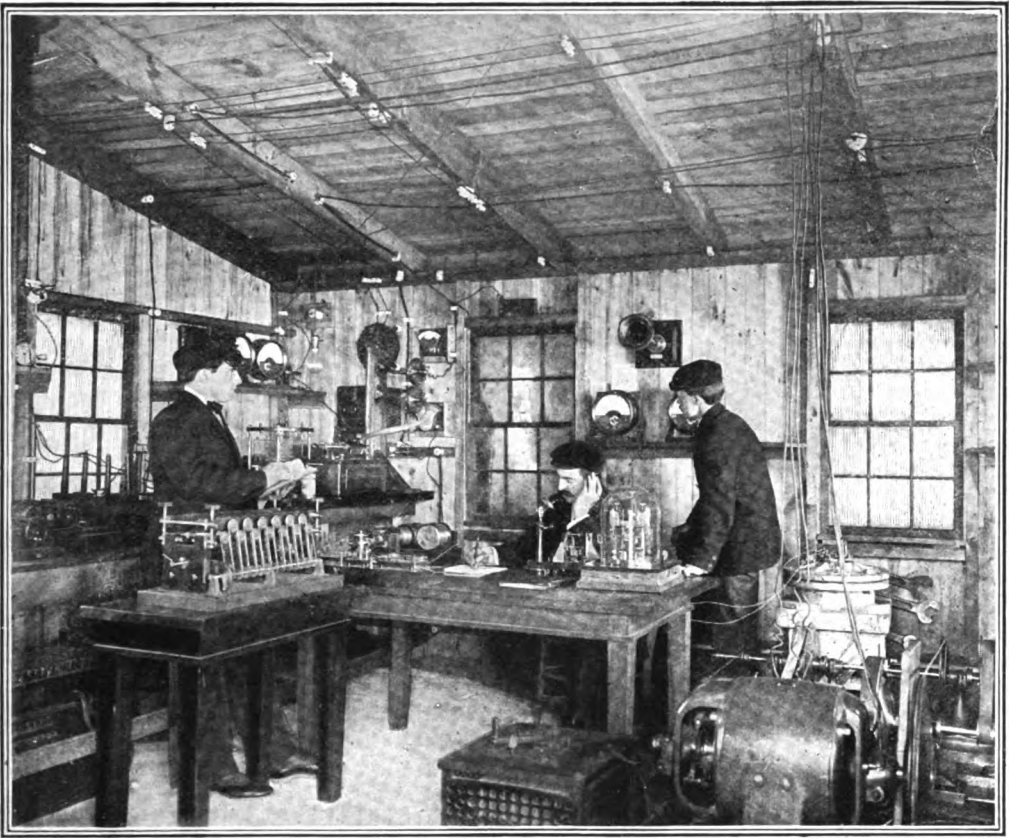
And speech as well as signals may be carried by the ether. Among the methods of wireless telephony may be mentioned that of Prof. R. A. Fessenden. For several months he has been transmitting speech from Brant Rock, Mass., to Brooklyn, N. Y., almost 200 miles, nearly three-fourths of the distance being overland. His alternator runs at 81,700 cycles per second, employing either a single armature machine of  $1\frac{1}{3}$  horsepower, or a machine of double this capacity.

#### WHY NO TRANSCONTINENTAL 'PHONE?

No telephone line, of the Bell type, joins New York and San Francisco: its double



WESTINGHOUSE LOCOMOTIVE, WITH TRAIN, NEW YORK, NEW HAVEN & HARTFORD RAILROAD.



THE INTERIOR OF THE FESSENDEN WIRELESS TELEGRAPH STATION AT BRANT ROCK, MASS.

circuit of heavy copper wire would cost too much.

A telegram takes its way along a succession of lines, each joined to the next by a self-acting repeater. No such contrivance is yet available in telephony, whose currents, furthermore, are so very slight as to be seriously impeded in passing through switchboards or other mechanism, no matter how well designed.

#### MUSIC PURELY ELECTRIC.

Through a telephone we may listen to a distant orchestra or choir, but the effect is not pleasant enough to give it popularity. To-day, the telephone adds to its old task of reproducing operas or symphonies as executed, the rendition of music wholly electric. In his telharmonium Mr. Theodore Cahill proceeds upon the fact that when a current is reversed, or alternated, hundreds or thousands of times a second, it utters in a telephone a distinct musical note. When the alternations are few, the notes are grave;

when the alternations increase in their frequency, the notes rise in pitch. A performer at a keyboard touches off pulses from scores of diverse alternators, each voicing a simple note. Such notes duly blended recall the complex overtones of the flute, the oboe, or other instrument. Effects beyond these, wholly new and delightful, are created, so that Mr. Cahill has conferred a fresh resource upon composers and executants. His central station in New York resembles a powerhouse, with its engine, its groups of alternators and switchboards, its wire festoons. The music is sent forth on ordinary telephone lines anywhere within 100 miles, and so powerfully that at any desired place an audience of 500 may together hear its weird and sympathetic strains.

#### ELECTRICITY FOR UNIVERSAL SERVICE.

Our survey thus far, scant though it is, may suffice to show that the inventor and the manufacturer have fulfilled their duty with respect to electrical art. They have de-

signed and built excellent motors and dynamos, heaters and lamps, chemical dividers of all sorts, batteries of many types, all at moderate prices. Where electricity is cheap, as at Niagara Falls, these devices are in general use, both in factories and homes. Where the current is comparatively dear, we find its public acceptance much less wide. A good deal, too, depends upon the business manager of a central station. When he is bold and enterprising he repeats such a success as that of the telephone. To take a striking case: the Pueblo & Suburban Traction & Lighting Company recently wired gratis several hundred houses in Pueblo, Colo., at an average cost of \$7.64 each for the first batch of 384 houses of seven lamps apiece. It is now earning from these dwellings enough to pay for the wiring twice over. Wholesale installations in this fashion reduce cost to the lowest notch; they give a launching jolt to the inertia of heavy-heeled citizens. A like policy, extended to sewing machine motors, fans, smoothing irons, chafing dishes and the like, would undoubtedly inure to the profit of central stations, while at the same time greatly lightening the tasks of housekeeping.

A central station earns most when its machinery is fully and constantly at work. Hence the importance of introducing heaters and motors usually busy at other than the "rush" hours of the day. Between midnight and dawn, when demands for current are slack, is the time to restore exhausted batteries for electric vehicles so that, by virtue of buying their energy at low prices, they may more strongly than ever compete with gasoline motors. In ice-making, electroplating, and many other industries, a market may be found for current that to-day has no sale. And the more the field for electricity is widened, the cheaper it will become, with the effect, familiar in the gas business, of still further broadening the demand.

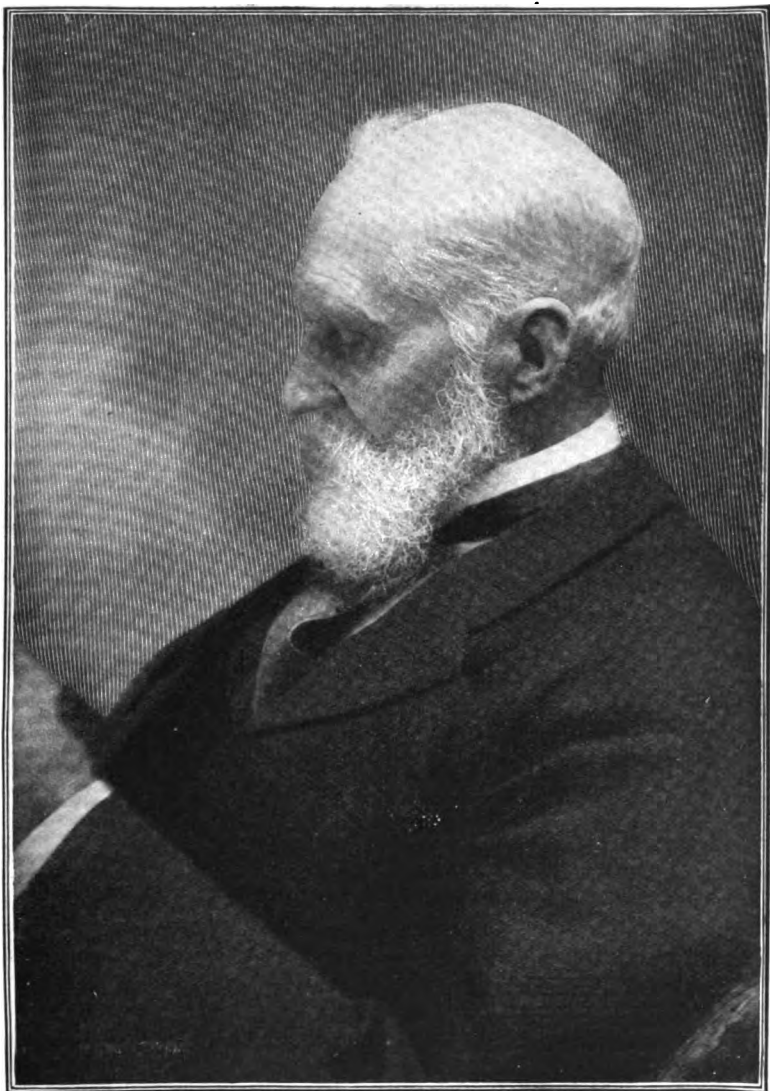
#### A SUPREME LAW OF EVOLUTION EMERGES.

Only when electricity thus becomes our universal servant will its mastery mean as much for mankind to-day as, long ago, did the first kindling of fire, with slowly won arts of furnace and lamp, oven and smelter, crucible and still. A point to be kept steadily in view is that it was this old resource, flame, that in flowering gave birth to electric art. When Volta, as recently as 1800, built his battery, to create the first electric stream, he did so because rich in golden gifts of fire.

His glass and porcelain, his plates of zinc and silver, his acids, were all bestowed upon him by flame. And it is by devising economical heat-motors, whether using steam, gas or oil, that the modern engineer enables the electrician to generate currents readily and cheaply.

This flowering of old resources into new, of transcendent sweep, of subtler probe, is plain in every decisive advance of humankind. Let us ask, How came fire to be kindled at first? In all likelihood by a surpassing feat of manipulation, directed by the sagacity which only dexterity could awaken and inform. Probably in clashing flints together to shape rude arrows, or chisels, a savage flashed out a spark upon a tuft of dried fibre which at once leaped into a blaze. Or, it may be that in drilling a stick an armorer was rewarded for uncommon persistence and stress by a tiny flame, with its hint for repetition. The superiority of such a man to the kinsman next below him in skill and brains may have been slight enough; no wider, indeed, than the "variation" which is Darwin's unit of advance. But in the passing from mere warmth to fire a new world was entered, abounding in powers and insights impossible to beings who, though human, had not risen above the ability, shared by other creatures, merely to change the forms of leaves, bark and wood, of clay or stone. With fire to work his will man was able to alter properties as well as shapes, to gain copper and iron from ores, glass from sand, pottery from clay.

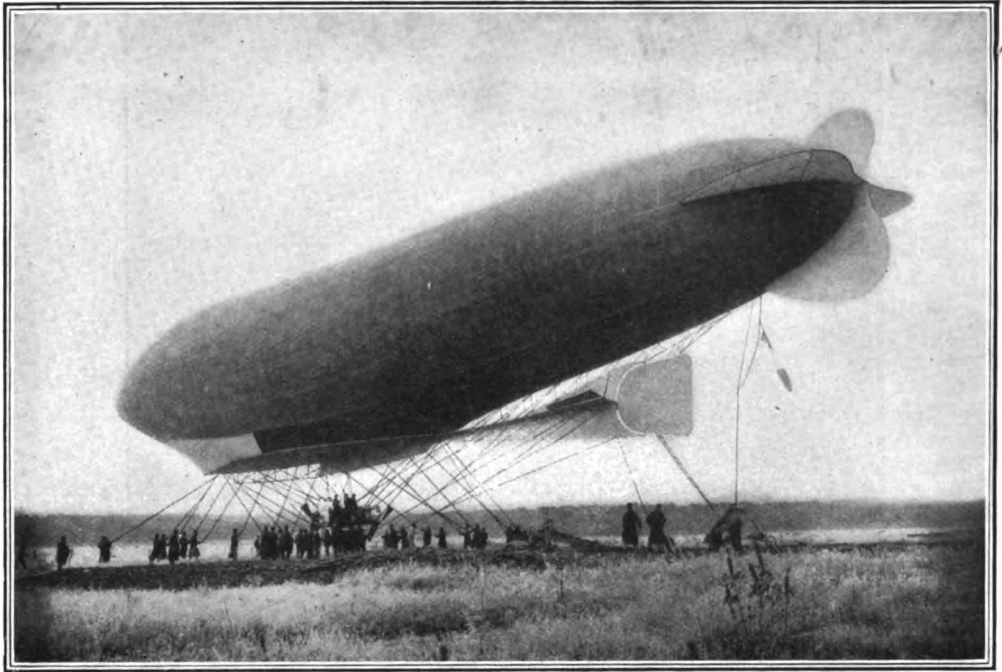
The argument here briefly indicated I presented in detail in "Flame, Electricity, and the Camera," published in 1900. To the proofs then adduced, many more might now be added, especially with regard to the researches of Crookes, Thomson and Rutherford. These investigators, armed with a glass bulb nearly vacuous, employ electricity to break down atoms into electrons about one-thousandth part the size of the hydrogen atom. These electrons are all alike whatever their source may be, whether lead, copper, gold, or aught else. As fire made man master of the molecule, electricity now enables him partly to resolve the atom itself into units which may be the foundation stones of nature. The fireless savage dealt only with the surfaces of things; when he created fire at will he passed below surfaces to the molecules which build up masses; to-day the electrician disrupts the atom itself to reach nature's very heart.



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### LORD KELVIN, FOREMOST ELECTRICIAN OF HIS AGE.

[William Thomson, the first Lord Kelvin, who ranked as one of the greatest mathematicians and physicists of his time, was born at Belfast, Ireland, in 1824. At a very early age he became a student at Glasgow University, where his father, James Thomson, was professor of mathematics. The son, however, removed to Cambridge and was graduated from St. Peter's College in 1845 as second wrangler. The next year he was called to the chair of natural philosophy at Glasgow University and held that chair continuously for a period of fifty-three years. As a young university professor he was greatly attracted by the new science of electricity, and when the American, Cyrus Field, began the laying of cables across the Atlantic he was appointed consulting engineer. In this cable enterprise Professor Thomson gave valuable assistance, making inventions of instruments for receiving the messages and working the line, and devising other important apparatus. Later he perfected methods of taking deep-sea soundings while a ship was under way, and devised a provision for overcoming the influence of a ship's magnetism on the compass. Among his non-electrical inventions it is said that the machine for predicting the level of the tides in any part of the world is the most important. In the electrical field he contributed materially to the introduction of accurate methods of measuring current. Professor Thomson was raised to the peerage in 1892. He visited America in 1881, 1897, and 1902. He was profoundly interested in the electrical development at Niagara Falls. In 1896 Lord Kelvin's jubilee as professor at Glasgow University was celebrated with great enthusiasm. It was attended by delegates and visitors from all parts of the world. Lord Kelvin died at Glasgow on December 17, 1907, at the age of eighty-three.]



THE FRENCH WAR DIRIGIBLE "LA PATRIE," WHICH COVERED 1,428 MILES IN 7 HOURS AND 5 MINUTES, ON NOVEMBER 23, 1907.

(A few days later it was torn loose from restraining ropes and was last heard of as touching in Ireland for a moment, again ascending.)

## THE COMING CONQUEST OF THE AIR.

BY ERNEST LA RUE JONES.

FOR over two centuries man has been trying to invent a means whereby he might navigate the air. Many have been the fantastic schemes for realizing this great desideratum, but not until within the last few years has anything like success been attained. This success is but comparative, and it has been attained by but one type of apparatus.

In order to have a clear understanding of the subject it is necessary to state the two divisions in which apparatus for flight is classed,—lighter than air and heavier than air. Even this classification, while generally used, is incorrect. By a "lighter-than-air" machine is understood one that depends for its buoyancy on a gas of low specific gravity. But a machine may be built heavier than air and still use gas as the principal aid to perfect buoyancy, with planes to lift the difference between the total weight of the apparatus and the weight lifted by the gas. The motor, if driven fast enough, would move the planes against the air with force enough

to lift this balance of weight. Thus it is seen that a more distinctive word must be used to distinguish what is generally meant by a heavier-than-air machine. Of late the word "gasless" has been introduced, and it seems to fill every requirement. Now, then, we have properly designated the two general classes, the lighter-than-air and the gasless.

The gasless type subdivides into three,—the *aéroplane*, the *orthopter* or beating-wing machine, and the *helicopter* or direct-lift machine. The *aéroplane* obtains its lifting capacity by being forced against the air by vertical propellers at a speed so great that the pressure on the under side, properly inclined, will cause it to rise and maintain its course through the air, either parallel with the earth or at varying angles. The *orthopter* is a close imitation of the bird, with flapping wings, but in merely soaring or gliding it would have the attributes of the *aéroplane*. The *helicopter*, or "hellish-copter," as its friends jokingly call it, depends upon driving effi-



From the *Scientific American*.

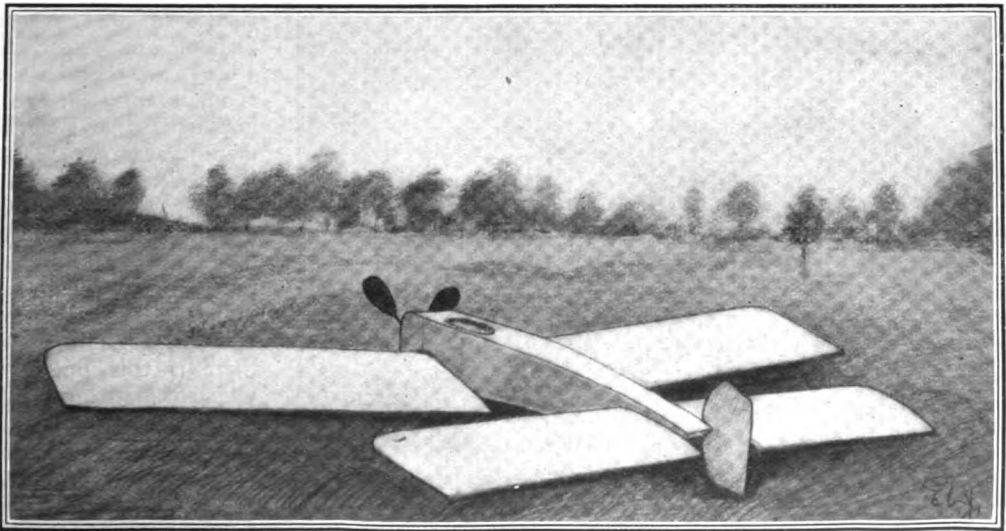
FRENCH AÉROPLANE, THAT OF ROBERT ESNAULT- Pelterie.

cient horizontal screws or propellers at a speed great enough to pull the machine vertically or obliquely into the air.

The French war dirigible *La Patrie* is a true type of the lighter than air. The *Santos Dumont No. 16* is a heavier-than-air apparatus, using gas as a means of lifting the greater part of the weight. Horizontal planes were expected to lift the small balance, but an accident in the trial of this machine, or balloon, prevented an actual test of its possibilities. A later invention of the same type, the *Malecot*, achieved a short flight, but also came to grief. Both accidents were due to other causes than to the application of this idea itself.

There is no machine of the gasless type which combines all three classes. To illustrate the aéroplane we would take as the best example that of Wilbur and Orville Wright, of Dayton. They have adopted the two-plane glider introduced by Chanute and Herring. The Gammeter orthopter would be a true specimen of that class; and the Kimball model an example of the helicopter.

We naturally ask what has been done in every line to give promise of definite results? In the gas type we have reached practical perfection. There are serious difficulties which cannot be overcome. The gas bag itself is a plainly evident one. The weight of material and machinery has already been



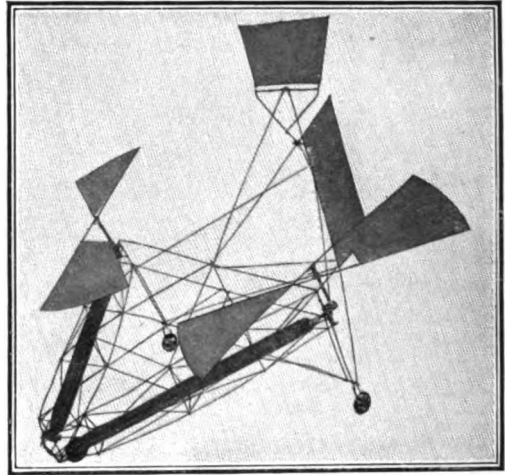
THE NEW FRENCH AÉROPLANE OF LOUIS BLERIOT, HIS SEVENTH MACHINE.



brought to the lowest limit of safety, and it is obviously impossible to decrease the volume of gas employed. Beyond certain limits in size it is believed we cannot go. Zeppelin has already gone to the extreme in size and capacity, but has been able to keep from exceeding practicability. *La Patrie* has been a great success, but it has not achieved quite the results of the *Zeppelin*. We can now count at least four perfectly practical, useful dirigible balloons, the *Zeppelin*, the *Parseval* and the *Gross* in Germany; and *La Patrie* in France.

With the 413-foot *Zeppelin* a speed of thirty-four miles an hour has been attained, and over 200 miles covered on one recent ascent lasting eight hours. This stands as a record of its kind. The *Parseval* dirigible has attained a speed of twenty-eight miles, and so has the military airship of Major Gross. The German Government is very secretive in regard to these two, and little but general information is obtainable.

For five years the wealthy Lebaudy brothers financed the building of the well-known *Lebaudy*. In 1906 it was given to the French Government, and a duplicate was ordered and called *La Patrie*. This, with a speed of some twenty miles an hour, has proved so successful that a few weeks ago orders were given for five more, to be called *République*, *Démocratie*, *Liberté*, *Vérité*, and *Justice*. On November 23, 1907, *La Patrie* traveled, *sans escale*, from Paris to Verdun, a distance of 142.8 miles, in seven hours and five minutes, a mean speed of

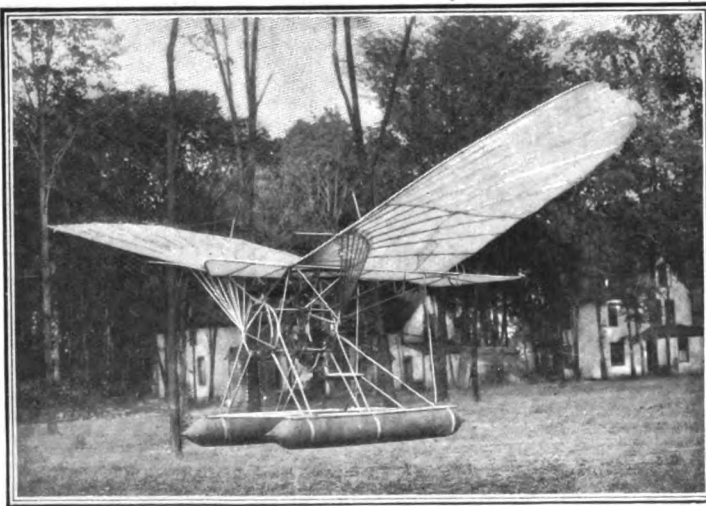


THE MODEL HELICOPTER OF WILBUR R. KIMBALL, OF NEW YORK.

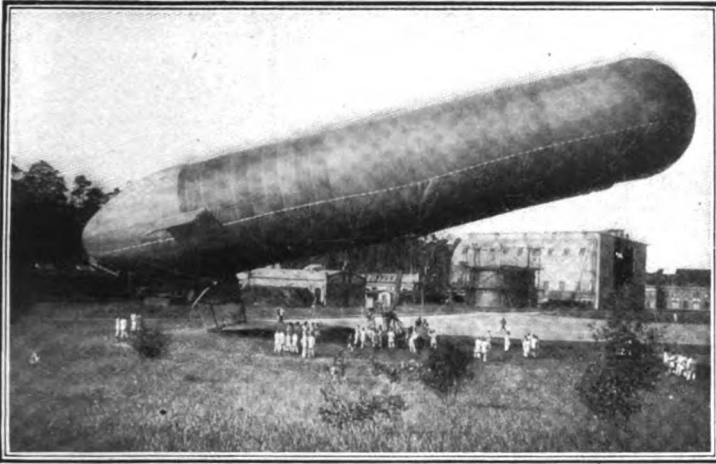
over twenty miles an hour, and this against a wind which blew at one time twenty-four miles an hour. November 30 a sudden violent gust of wind tore the airship from the grasp of the soldiers at Verdun and it was last reported as having come to earth in Ireland. There were conflicting reports as to whether any one was on board the ship or not. Of late, little information has been obtainable from the French engineers, while in the past considerable information has been gleaned.

The importance of the dirigible balloon to governments is shown in some degree by this episode: A great German rubber com-

pany obtained the agency for the French dirigible in America. Just as they were about to enter into negotiations the French manufacturers suddenly cancelled all contracts. Thus, the secrets of the recent successes in France with the dirigible balloon will probably remain with the French. But there is this question which comes up: The rubber cloth used in the Lebaudy balloons is made in Germany, and we wonder if the German concern will continue to sell its



A FULL-SIZED AMERICAN ORTHOPTER, BUILT BY H. C. GAMMETER, CLEVELAND.



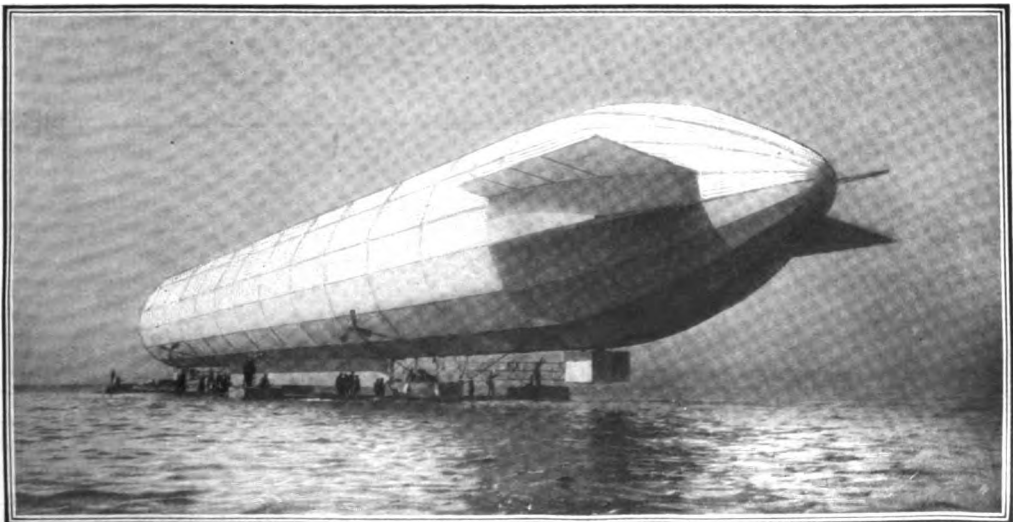
THE "PARSEVAL" DIRIGIBLE BALLOON IN 1906. IN 1907 THE ENDS WERE MADE SOMEWHAT MORE POINTED.

The United States Government has done nothing in the development of the dirigible or the flying machine, and the private citizen has had no incentive to expend time and money with the hope of disposing of it to the Government. The international balloon race at St. Louis and the great success attained abroad have done much to interest the Government, and before long we may have a dirigible to compete with those of Europe. As a guide

material to France. They certainly would not do so in time of war between those countries.

The British Government has also produced this year the *Nulli Secundus*, or, officially, *Dirigible No. 1*, under the direction of Colonel Capper. After several trial flights, with rather unpromising results, the balloon was wrecked, revealing imperfect construction and inadequate engine power. The Italian Government is actively at work on a dirigible, and we may look for definite results there. Spain also is building a dirigible 115 feet long, with two twenty-four horsepower motors.

to the desire of the American people for the furtherance by the Government of aeronautics in this country, it is interesting to note that the International Aeronautical Congress, held in New York, October 28 and 29, 1907, passed the following resolution: "Resolved, By the International Aeronautical Congress, assembled together in New York, that the President of the United States be requested to call the attention of Congress to the advisability of providing the departments of the Government charged with these duties funds sufficient to establish aeronautical plants commensurate with those of other nations."



From the *Scientific American*.

GRAF VON ZEPPELIN'S THIRD DIRIGIBLE.



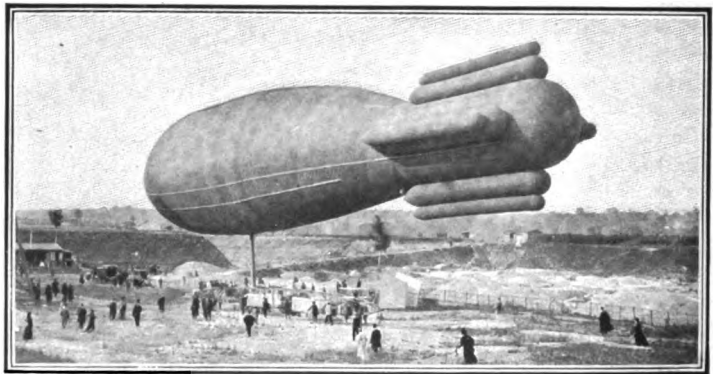
A. ROY KNABENSHUE'S SMALL DIRIGIBLE OVER COLUMBUS, OHIO.

The real gasless flying machine is about to be, or has already been, realized, and only remains to be perfected and placed upon the market. In 1905 the Wright brothers were able to fly twenty-four and one-fifth miles in thirty-eight minutes and three seconds. The flight was stopped then only by exhaustion of fuel. This flight was made over a circular course, and the average speed was over thirty-eight miles an hour. On a straight course the speed would have been forty miles. The machine, with the operator, weighed 925 pounds. The Wright flight caused a rush of foreign inventors into the field.

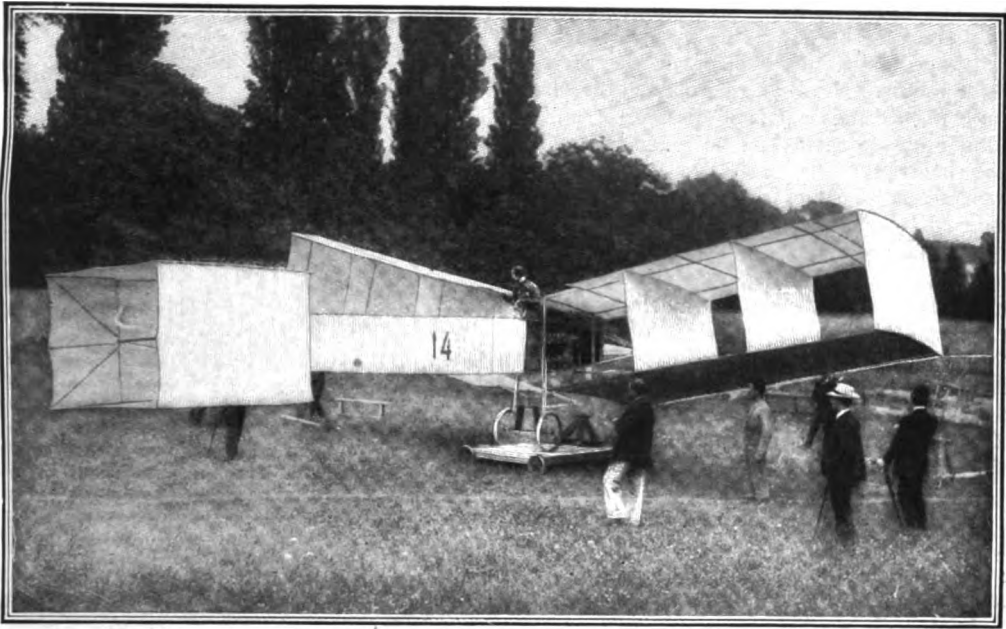
Santos Dumont, who had had no previous experience with a gasless machine, in September, 1906, was able to fly about twenty-five yards in an *aéroplane* weighing 465 pounds with the operator. Succeeding flights were longer, until on November 12, 1906, he maintained a uniform flight for 723 feet, at a speed of twenty-five miles an hour. This won for

him two prizes, one for the first *aéroplane* to fly 195 feet and one for the first to go at least 325 feet. Ellehammer, in Denmark, in January, 1906, flew a distance of 167 feet in a "Wright-type" machine. In April, 1907, the Delagrangé *aéroplane* made a flight of 164 feet, though in a previous trial a distance of 196 feet was attained. Bleriot made a flight of 492 feet in an *aéroplane* during the summer of 1907.

The world's public record for dynamic flight was first made by Santos Dumont, when he covered his 723 feet. But in October, 1907, Henri Farman introduced a new

From the *Scientific American*.

THE FRENCH DIRIGIBLE BALLOON "VILLE DE PARIS," BELONGING TO M. DEUTSCH.



THE "SANTOS DUMONT NO. 14," WHICH MADE THE FIRST PUBLIC FLIGHT OF A DISTANCE OF 723 FEET.

design of *aéroplane*, and in his first flight approached the distance of Santos Dumont. In the second trial he negotiated 935 feet, 190 feet more than Santos Dumont's record. On November 18 this distance was again increased to a kilometer, six-tenths of a mile. A complete circle and return to the starting point was accomplished, but the machine touched the ground for an instant just before and just after rounding the post at one end of the course at Issy-les-Moulineaux. The weight of the machine is 1100 pounds, and it is propelled at a speed of twenty-five to thirty miles an hour by a fifty-horsepower motor. The supporting surface is 560 square feet; thus nearly two pounds are supported by every square foot of area. This flight established a new world's record. The Wright brothers' flight cannot be placed among records of public flights, for their work has been done in secret; and we have accepted the fact of their flight on the verified statement of witnesses.

With the helicopter little has been done, and less with the orthopter. M. Cornu has, perhaps, done the most work with the helicopter, and his model, weighing thirty and one-half pounds, rose in the air "most satisfactorily and maintained a steady course." Wilbur R. Kimball, of New York, has built an eleven-ounce rubber-driven model which has flown very successfully, the longest

flights being about fifty feet, at a speed of ten feet a second. He has become impressed with the commercial possibilities of such an apparatus and expects to have a man-carrying machine completed in the near future. Otto G. Luyties, Baltimore, has completed a full-sized helicopter in which he places great faith, and he is intending to compete for the *Scientific American* trophy for gasless machines. There is also another helicopter building in Connecticut which promises much from results obtained thus far.

The orthopter has, by those who are considered qualified to judge, long been assigned among the impossible, though some small results have been attained. The claim is that nothing is to be gained by copying nature, except in principle, and that the application of nature's laws can be improved upon by man.

The helicopter, to the laity, seems to be the best type of the gasless machine. An *aéroplane* must start with a speed of at least twenty-five miles an hour in order to maintain flight, while experiments with a model helicopter, with a load of one pound to the square foot of surface, showed a speed of twelve miles an hour sufficient to maintain the machine in the air. With the helicopter one can advance at a more speedy angle than with the *aéroplane*, and there is the possibility of hovering at an angle within the limits

of a comparatively small space; and the angle of descent is sharper. But the drawback to this type is the unreliability of the present light motor. With the *aéroplane* the stopping of the motor is not disastrous, and a long glide to earth can be made, but with the helicopter the safety of the operator depends at once on the motor going until stopped by the operator on landing.

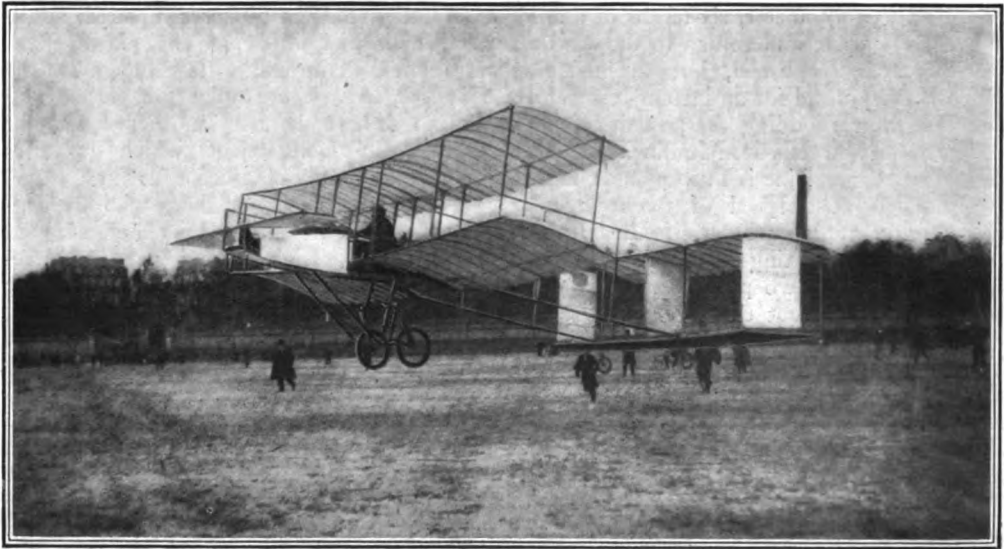
It will be seen that we actually have at least four practically perfect dirigible balloons and as many gasless machines which promise the accomplishment of dynamic flight in the very near future. While flights of a few hundred feet in dynamic machines are only "grasshopper jumps," a lesson is learned each time, and as long as the flights continually increase in length we know that the lessons have been effective.

The age of the flying machine is here,—and now. The dirigible balloon surely has *some* advantages over the dynamic apparatus, but the latter has a preponderance over the dirigible. The dirigible may be called a stepping-stone, although in another direction, to the flying machine. The dirigible is merely a balloon made steerable, while the flying machine is a new thing all the way through, not an adaptation of any present method of travel. A flying machine that



HENRI FARMAN, THE HOLDER OF THE WORLD'S PUBLIC RECORD FOR DYNAMIC FLIGHT.

flies will be *the success*, and until we attain that end we must consider adaptations and jumping apparatus *comparative*.



HENRI FARMAN, STARTING A FLIGHT IN THE MACHINE WHICH MADE A KILOMETER IN A CIRCLE.

# HOW THE CUBAN PROBLEM MIGHT BE SOLVED.

BY CAPTAIN JOHN H. PARKER, U. S. A.

[Captain Parker's long residence in Cuba, his experience with American army conditions, and his sympathetic study of Cuban conditions under the most favorable circumstances, make the following analysis and plan of his,—worked out, as it has been, during years of contact with the Cuban people and surrounded by the conditions in which they live,—unusually interesting and important. Of course, the views presented are his own, but his experience and equipment, we believe, justify the rather extended space we have given them.—THE EDITOR.]

WHEN the power of the United States destroyed that of Spain in Cuba, in July, 1898, the duty of establishing and maintaining a just and lawful government devolved upon the conqueror. From the international point of view (no nation caring to controvert, by force of arms, the American occupation of Cuba), the form of government was an affair of international administration, to be settled by the United States. The fact of American control was the only essential one in the situation. From the point of view of foreign nations which were interested, that fact alone fixed the international responsibility for law, order, tranquillity, and justice in Cuba. Its acceptance by the United States fixes upon her a continuing responsibility until there shall be established a permanent Cuban Government, capable of conducting its affairs in a manner acceptable to its neighbors.

In the performance of the obligations thus imposed the United States established first an American military government, then an independent Cuban Republic, whose stability was guaranteed by the United States, and lastly a provisional administration of that republic, under its own constitution and laws, for the very purpose of executing that guaranty of stability without which the Cuban Republic could never have been. Such is a condensed history of the relations of the United States with Cuba since the sinking of the *Maine* down to the present time.

Now arises the question as to future relations between the United States and Cuba. The international situation is the same as before. It is a matter of purely internal administration for the United States. All the nations of the world have acquiesced in the second American occupation of Cuba. Their approval is not less sincere because implied. American control is absolute and complete. American responsibility is correspondingly complete and indivisible. A dis-

cussion as to whether the former Cuban Government was wise and efficient is foreign to this point, however much it may be germane to other questions. A discussion of the capacity of the Cuban people for self-government is equally irrelevant on this point. It is the international duty of the United States to establish and maintain a just and lawful government in Cuba, of some sort, as much as it is her duty to maintain a similar government in Alaska or Missouri or the District of Columbia.

## SELF-DEFENSES AND THE PANAMA CANAL.

It has also become imperative that the United States do this on account of considerations of self-defense. Since its first intervention in Cuba the United States has embarked upon the construction of the Panama Canal, a work of great international importance, but one of far greater importance to her own defenses. Now Cuba is the key to the locks of the Panama Canal. The nation that controls Cuba can inevitably maintain control over the Atlantic exit of the canal. If the nation exercising such control be hostile to the United States the latter must lose to a hostile power the great advantage resulting from such control of the canal now being built as a public enterprise by the United States at her own expense. If this control doubles the defensive power of the United States, or doubles the offensive power of an adversary against the United States, as the case may be, it follows that American control over Cuba is just as indispensable to the interests of the United States as control over the canal itself. Such control does not necessarily imply either annexation or incorporation of Cuba into the political system of the United States; but it does imply such a future relation that the right of the United States to make use of Cuban ports as bases of military-naval operations in time of war will be fixed beyond

controversy. By virtue of our actual occupation we have that right now. It would be folly to surrender it.

Another consequence flows from the geographical position of Cuba and its recent instability of administration. A country which has many and serious disturbances of public peace, and also has a large foreign element in its population, with large business interests controlled by foreign capital, is sure, sooner or later, to become a source of international peril on account of incompetent administration. This is more especially true if such country is so strategically situated that it may become a subject of contention among other nations. Such is precisely the situation in Cuba.

#### THE FUNDAMENTAL CONDITIONS.

Stated tersely, therefore, the two fundamental conditions which must govern all relations between the United States and Cuba are these:

(1) The United States must establish a capable government in Cuba, with which it must establish such permanent relations as are necessary in the event of a war in which the Panama Canal would play a part. (2) The United States must maintain such stability of that government, and such a system of administration of Cuban laws, that Cuba shall never become a source of international peril on account of incompetent government.

The obligations of the United States above stated are the foundation of the present American occupation of Cuba. They are recognized not only by the Government of the United States and by that of Cuba, but also by the revolutionary elements of the Cuban population, as shown by their prompt laying down of arms as soon as American intervention was assured, in September, 1906.

The live question is what form the future relations between the two countries shall assume. The answer to this question is the solution of the Cuban problem. Some elements of these relations can be determined:

(1) They should be of such permanent nature as not to require continual readjustment. The prosperity of both countries depends on this condition; that of Cuba much more so than that of the United States.

(2) They must be so adjusted that Cuba will not be a source of weakness, but of more strength, to the United States, in the event of any foreign war. This is of equal importance to both countries; to the United States because, otherwise, her relations with Cuba would immobilize some portion of her fighting strength; and to Cuba because that island relies upon the

United States for her defense against foreign aggression.

(3) These relations must contain nothing contrary to our form of government; and therefore the relation between the two countries must be one capable of subsisting under the Constitution, laws, and treaties of the United States.

(4) These relations must be such that they will not greatly prejudice any of the large interests of the people of the United States, merely as a matter of practical politics. They must contain nothing to wound the high pride and sensitive nature of the Cuban people; for, otherwise, Cuban discontent will make of them a source of weakness rather than strength.

(5) With growing international responsibilities upon her hands; with a considerable part of her military forces at present immobilized by exterior possessions; with at least the possibility of emergency use for these forces previous to the completion of the Panama Canal, it is important to the United States to have its relations with Cuba settled upon a permanently satisfactory basis as soon as possible.

A factor in the Cuban problem, also demanding promptness, is the paramount necessity for permanently satisfactory sanitary conditions in Cuba. Her communication with the southern ports of the United States is so direct and short that continuance of peril to the American public from the yellow fever pest, the cause and prevention of which are now so well understood, is unthinkable. Our Government would be worse than recreant to its duty to its own if it should fail before the termination of the present intervention to impose some satisfactory guaranty that this peril to the American public shall be forever suppressed, in so far as proper sanitary precautions in Cuba can accomplish that result.

Economic relations here also play a part. The differential duty on sugar is just enough to compel the export from Cuba of the raw material, mostly to refineries in the United States. These, of course, like all protected interests, will stoutly resist any solution that entails curtailment of their privileges. Similar protests will come from the tobacco interests, probably, and from every American interest that fancies it has a little to lose by closer commercial relations with Cuba. As a matter of practical expediency, the solution must be as little objectionable to these interests as possible.

#### ANNEXATION WOULD RESULT IN ANOTHER RACE PROBLEM.

Political considerations also enter. We already have one very vigorous "race problem" on our hands. At the present time there is no race problem in Cuba. The races



live together amicably. But if Cuba enters into the political system of the United States, immigration from the States will soon create a "race problem," and one that will be far more difficult of solution than that in the Southern States. We must steer clear of that rock. A country that cannot maintain a stable government of its own will not lend greater stability to existing American institutions. The "State of Antilla" is a beautiful dream, but absolutely impracticable of realization in the present generation. The Supreme Court has held that free trade with colonies does not follow the flag; hence future commercial relations with independent Cuba can be regulated by treaty or by Congress, as may be necessary. The court has also held that citizenship, in so far as exercise of the suffrage and enjoyment of the "Bill of Rights" are concerned, does not follow the flag. These privileges are conferred not by occupation, but by specific legislation. Hence these matters are capable of regulation, if the theory of annexation is abandoned.

Among the permanent relations that must be considered, of course, are the treaties of the United States. Of these the Platt Amendment is not the only one, nor even the most important one, to be considered. The Platt Amendment incorporates into the laws of the United States and into the constitution of Cuba only a part of the mutual duties imposed upon the two countries by their geographical and historical relations. It would be the duty of the United States to establish and maintain a free and republican form of government in Cuba if there had never been a Platt Amendment; free, because the genius of our institutions permits of no other kind; republican, because no other kind is permissible under that supreme law from which our Government derives its only right to make laws or treaties. Neither Congress, nor the Senate in combination with the President, through the treaty-making power, can possibly derive a right to establish any kind of government foreign to that Constitution from which both derive all the power and authority with which they are invested. A temporary military government for purpose of defense, in case of necessity,—yes; but a non-republican form of government, under the Constitution, laws, and treaties of the United States,—never. So the Platt Amendment confers no rights, imposes no obligations, upon the United States. It merely defines part of

rights and obligations existing by force of necessity. Similarly, it imposes no conditions upon Cuba. It only defines a part of conditions imposed by necessity, under which conditions government must exist in Cuba, whether they be defined at all or not. Geography, history, and commerce have created these conditions; not the Platt Amendment.

But the Treaty of Paris did impose a condition that must be respected until the terms of the treaty shall have been fulfilled. That condition is the one which gives to Spain the same rights as to the United States in matters of commerce in Cuba for a period of ten years, which will end on February 4, 1909. This condition is one imposed not by natural laws, but by man. The United States might tolerate free trade with Cuba, but could never permit free trade with Spain also. Consequently a permanent adjustment of commercial relations with Cuba must necessarily wait for the expiration of that treaty in order that its provision giving equal right in Cuban ports to Spain may be eliminated from the Cuban problem.

#### CUBA'S IMMEDIATE NEEDS.

Cuba, it will be conceded, needs at once:

(1) A great, practical, educational development along the lines of practical experience in self-government, exercise of personal rights, and self-control must occur in Cuba before any republican form of government can be successful without outside aid and support.

(2) That aid and support must come from the United States. It is practicable to give this aid without annexation, without incorporating Cuba into the political system of the United States, thus adding an element of weakness, rather than strength, to our own institutions.

(3) That aid must come in the form of settled commercial relations as soon as the termination of existing treaty obligations will permit; and in the form of wise initiative, discreetly exercised, looking toward such changes in Cuban laws as will develop in her people capacity to appreciate free institutions, and govern themselves under a republican system. These changes must look toward reduction of the paternal attitude of the central government, with corresponding exercise of greater power by local authorities.

There appears to be one way in which these ends can be accomplished within American limitations without injury to the self-respect of the Cuban people. The educated Cubans see clearly that a period of tutelage is necessary. The uneducated Cuban cares nothing about politics, really; what he wants is results. He would just as leave have these results flow from a paternal autocracy as



from the most liberal democracy. He is ignorant of the machinery by which results are accomplished; but he knows conditions are hard for him, and will welcome whatever ameliorates his hardships, provided it be a genuine amelioration. Promises alone will not keep him quiet; they would only dam up the waters of revolution, to bring on another and worse inundation.

A "protectorate" over Cuba already exists. We have the facts, however it may be called. Names matter little. That protectorate must take some form for the immediate future which will permit of preventive, as well as corrective, measures. The present intervention is purely a corrective measure, not initiated until the mischief was done. For the future there must be a system that will prevent a recurrence of such troubles by terminating the conditions that create them.

#### WHY NOT FOLLOW ENGLAND'S EXAMPLE IN EGYPT?

The English system in Egypt illustrates what must be done. The Khedive's government has remained intact; but Lord Cromer had the initiative in such measures as were deemed essential by the British Government. An exactly similar system in Cuba is not advocated. It would be plainly impracticable, owing to our different form of government at home, with responsibility to a legislative body, as well as to the executive. But some of the features of England's Egyptian system might well be incorporated into the future relations between Cuba and the United States.

For the United States the indispensable things are:

(1) Adequate control to prevent revolutions and extravagance.

(2) Adequate initiative to introduce the gradual education in democracy that must occur in Cuba before any republican system of government can be successful without outside help.

For Cuba the indispensable things are:

(1) Stability of system, with gradual advancement toward complete independence by the development of capacity for self-control in and among her people.

(2) Readjustment at the earliest possible date of commercial relations with the United States, in such a manner as to give to Cuban products their natural market as nearly free as possible.

This means to be exercised by the United States merely two things: initiative and veto. The veto she has, now over Cuban

foreign relations and against such outbreaks as that of August, 1906. She must have more; the right of veto of the conditions which give rise to such outbreaks. Nothing less will insure stability of any Cuban Government.

Initiative in the Cuban Government is not one of the rights of the United States under present treaties. *It is one of the necessities of the situation.* It must be recognized and made a definite part of future relations. Yet that initiative must not extend to any limit that will curtail true Cuban independence, for such a condition would be intolerable to the pride of the Cuban people, and would entail worse disorders than those which have been so happily suppressed.

#### A "COUNCIL OF ADVISERS."

One admirable result has been accomplished during the present intervention. It consists in a system of actual supervision of various departments of the Cuban Government without in any known manner giving offense to the Cuban people. In each of these departments there has been detailed an American, known as "Adviser" to such a department. He is an American official, without function under the Cuban Government, and without pay therefrom; but his presence gives the tone and balance necessary for the smooth running of the machine.

It would not be possible, or even desirable, to save the coming Cuban Republic from all mistakes, for that would prevent it from obtaining the best experience. With governments, as with individuals, the best results come from learning to avoid repeating the same mistake. Hence the retention of an American adviser in each department of the new Cuban Government would be unwise, even if all errors could thereby be prevented; but the retention of some American advisers, to exercise the necessary functions above indicated, would appear to be the logical outgrowth of a tried, approved, and successful system.

The collective body, when assembled, might be designated "Council of Advisers," and might exercise the necessary powers without offense. Such a body would constitute, in fact, an auxiliary to the legislative body, a check on the executive, and a powerful stimulant to right progress.

As the present tentative system works out, each department has its "adviser." Each adviser has his assistants in the various provinces, who maintain toward the Provin-

cial Council a position similar to his own in the central government. Herein lies the germ of a suitable system. It would work out as follows:

Previous to the date on which the Treaty of Paris terminates, February 4, 1909, a new treaty should be negotiated with the Provisional Government of Cuba, to take effect at that date. This treaty should contain not only a definite adjustment of commercial relations between the two countries, but also the necessary authority to institute and maintain a Council of Advisers in Cuba. The re-establishment of the Cuban Republic, like its first organization, should be made conditional upon its acceptance of the provisions of this treaty.

The Council of Advisers should consist of one president, one adviser for each department of the Cuban Government when necessary, as for example, the Treasury Department, Sanitary Department, and that of Foreign Affairs, and one for each province. Each member thereof should be an American, entitled to the diplomatic privileges in Cuba, and an official of the United States, not of Cuba.

The functions of these officials should be threefold: to observe, to propose, and to exercise the judicial functions hereinafter described. Thus each adviser to a province would exercise the right of proposing measures to the Provincial Council. The advisers to the several departments of government would exercise a similar right. The Council of Advisers as a body should have the right to propose such legislation as might seem expedient to the Cuban Congress, and in their collective action would exercise the judicial function to be described. All proposals would be merely advisory in character, and therefore would not curtail the legislative rights of the Cuban bodies. Diplomatic privileges are given to render these officials as nearly independent and impartial in the discharge of their duty as may be humanly possible. It should be provided by the treaty that no adviser may hold or acquire any property interests in Cuba during his incumbency, nor receive any emolument or perquisite whatever from the Cuban Government or from any citizen thereof during his incumbency.

#### NO INFRINGEMENT OF CUBAN SOVEREIGNTY.

These measures provide for initiative and restraint. They leave absolutely intact all the essential attributes of sovereignty now

enjoyed by the Cuban Republic: the right to diplomatic representatives abroad; to coin money; to fix weights and measures; to regulate internal and external affairs, the latter subject to the same restrictions now imposed by treaty; to make and enforce laws; to maintain a Cuban judiciary, independent of foreign interference, and to maintain such national forces as may be necessary in the Cuban Republic. With these sovereign rights all intact, the Cuban people could well pride themselves upon their own free and independent government, acknowledged by all the nations as such,—a position for which so many Cuban heroes and martyrs fought and died upon the field of glory, and for which the whole Cuban people have made so many sacrifices.

In the foregoing plan no system has yet been proposed by which can be determined the delicate questions arising from the peculiar relations between Cuba and the United States. The defect of the Platt Amendment is that, essentially, action under it is corrective, but not preventive. Before intervention could occur Cuba had to be reduced to a condition of anarchy, through the annihilation of all legally constituted government. That was the condition which resulted from the resignation of President Palma and all legal successors to the presidency. Not until then was it possible to intervene, and then only by the use of armed force. It is greatly to the credit of Mr. Palma and his advisers that they perceived this; especially so to Mr. Palma, in his marvelous exhibition of self-abnegation in order that the conditions might be fulfilled under which the right and duty of the United States to end the civil war would be unquestionable.

#### CORRECTING THE DEFECT IN THE PLATT AMENDMENT.

Preventive as well as corrective measures are necessary. The fatal defect of the Platt Amendment is that it creates no automatic machinery for so regulating relations that intervention will never be necessary by force of arms. That machinery must be created, its functions defined and incorporated into the future relations of the two countries in the same manner as the Platt Amendment, before stability in Cuba can be assured.

Fortunately, the system above outlined lends itself perfectly to this necessity. It is true that under the actual relations of the two countries laws are liable to be enacted

prejudicial in their operation to the interests of the United States and other foreign countries, either directly or through the hardships they work upon the Cuban people by indirectly leading to revolution. It is a consequence that flows from the immaturity of the Cuban people for democratic forms of government, above fully explained. It is also true that there is at present no system by which the United States can exercise the necessary corrective measures over such matters except in the present extremity of armed intervention to suppress resultant anarchy. But it is possible to amplify the powers and duties of the Council of Advisers in such a way as to guarantee proper action on such matters in a legitimate way, unobjectionable to the people of Cuba, and entirely satisfactory to the interests of the United States.

In the last analysis, the final governing body of the United States is the Supreme Court. Before its findings fall all acts of Congress, all executive decisions. Its interpretations determine what is law, and have never been disputed. Probably it is the most important, most powerful, and most dignified body of men in the world to-day. A similar body, with the function of passing on those matters of mutual interest between Cuba and the United States as a judicial body, would be unobjectionable to Cuba, and would prevent the occurrence of "revolutions" like that of August, 1906, by removing their causes before abuses should grow into social crimes. Such a body would be the medium through which the United States would exercise that oversight in Cuba now conceded to be necessary in order to maintain stability of administration.

Hence it is proposed that the Council of Advisers shall be convened at stated intervals as an international court of revision, with power to determine whether such acts of the Cuban Government as might be properly brought before it for judicial determination were prejudicial to the interests of the United States under its treaty with Cuba, and to annul such laws and decisions as might be thus determined to be objectionable, subject to revision of its own decisions by the Supreme Court of the United

States. When so convened, it would be desirable to add a suitable number of Cuban representatives to this tribunal.

The foregoing does not, however, provide for that stability of relations and administration which is also essential to a permanent solution of the Cuban problem. This must be had by outside aid for some time to come; and it can be arranged for without offending that national pride which is a high asset of the Cuban people, and which is just grounds for hope of eventual capacity for absolute independence.

"SCHOOLMASTER WITH REAL POWERS."

The interests of the United States in Panama, of which Cuba is the key, require a considerable force in the Caribbean, within striking distance of that possession. Her treaty rights in Cuba include coaling stations, with the right to fortify and garrison them. Nothing could be simpler than to do this at such points as Guantanamo, Bahia Honda, and such other points as may be necessary, and to maintain there sufficient force to give all necessary aid to her diplomatic representatives in Cuba in the exercise of their novel, important functions.

Such a system would provide schoolmasters with real powers to teach the art of self-government to the people of Cuba. It would leave the Republic of Cuba as a distinct entity, still capable of negotiating treaties and maintaining relations with other nations. It would leave the Congress of the United States free to regulate future commercial relations with Cuba, that country being a separate international entity. It would insure all due initiative in all necessary governmental reforms. It would give ample assurance of a stable government in Cuba in the power of the Council of Advisers to summon to their aid American arms, in case of necessity, to prevent revolution, rather than to suppress it. The date of the inauguration of this system coinciding with the expiration of the unnatural conditions imposed by the Treaty of Paris, would mark the end of the Cuban problem, the beginning of permanent prosperity, and stable, progressive, republican government in the Pearl of the Antilles.

# THE NEWSPAPER AND THE FOREST.

BY W. S. ROSSITER.

THE natural resources of the United States have always been regarded as practically limitless. There exists indeed a popular conviction that exhaustion in one section is sure to be offset by the discovery elsewhere of similar resources in even greater abundance. Although mere settlement of many sections of the United States resulted in the destruction of the timber covering large areas, so much remained that the forests even of the Eastern States still appeared to be inexhaustible. It is not altogether pleasant, therefore, to awaken to the fact, so seriously stated by the President in his recent message to Congress, that the magnitude of lumbering operations, especially north and west, threatens the early exhaustion of the timber supply of the country. This is especially significant and ominous because large sections of the United States, comprising possibly more than half of the national domain, have been settled but a few decades, and no State except Rhode Island can be regarded as densely populated even at the present time.

It was estimated by the Bureau of Forestry of the Department of Agriculture that the total annual cut of timber for all purposes in the United States at the present time is approximately 100,000,000,000 feet, while the growth of timber approximates from 30,000,000,000 to 40,000,000,000 feet. Thus consumption is approximately three times as great as annual growth. The Bureau of Forestry, indeed, estimates that the standing timber of the United States will be exhausted within thirty-three years from the present time. The annual consumption of timber is approximately as follows:

PRODUCT AND DISTRIBUTION OF TIMBER IN THE UNITED STATES, 1906.		
Required for	Amount in board feet.	Per cent. of total.
Totals.....	97,868,736,000	100.0
Lumber.....	37,550,736,000	38.4
Shingles.....	2,376,000,000	2.4
Hewed cross ties.....	2,325,000,000	2.4
Pulp wood.....	1,599,000,000	1.6
Cooperage stock.....	1,067,000,000	1.1
Round mine timbers.....	993,000,000	1.0
Laths.....	764,000,000	0.8
Wood distillation.....	357,000,000	0.7
Veneer.....	327,000,000	0.3
Poles.....	210,000,000	0.2
Fuel, domestic and miscellaneous.....	50,000,000,000	51.1

It will be observed that nine of the eleven

items specified relate to what may be termed usual or commercial uses of timber. The remaining two items,—pulp and distillation,—are merely the raw material of a finished product seemingly having no relation to wood. Of these two uses for timber, the amount required for pulp is more than twice that required for distillation, and is increasing rapidly. Moreover, the demand of the paper manufacturer thus far has been confined to certain varieties of wood, upon which, in consequence, serious inroads have been made, so that the domestic supply is near exhaustion and importation upon a large scale has already begun. The relation of paper to timber, therefore, possesses so much present importance that it is considered in some detail in the pages which follow.

## THE MANUFACTURE OF PAPER FROM WOOD.

Paper manufactured from the fibre of trees began to be a commercial product in 1867, but did not assume great importance until 1890. During the seventeen years which have elapsed from that date, this branch of paper making has grown to such proportions that it overshadows all others. Wood paper has been produced so cheaply and abundantly that all classes of the community, from publishers to storekeepers, have been enabled to use it with a liberality bordering upon extravagance.

Thus far soft woods alone have been utilized in paper making. Spruce furnishes three-fifths of the total amount used and hemlock one-fifth. The remaining fifth is composed principally of poplar and balsam. In the United States these varieties of timber are found, chiefly in the Virginias, New England, New York, Pennsylvania, and the Northwest. Unfortunately they are (or were) among the most important of all the soft woods, the uses for which are of course innumerable in American communities. Obviously the additional consumption of great quantities of such timber merely as raw material for an apparently unrelated product could lead to but one result, since it proved to be a new use for the class of wood in greatest demand for every-day commercial purposes.

In 1867 the timber of New England, New York and Pennsylvania, compared with the present forest resources of that region, was practically untouched. The forests of the White Mountains, Green Mountains and Adirondacks doubtless contained soft wood sufficient for the normal requirements of the Eastern States for an indefinite period. Because of proximity to raw material and markets, and also because these States were centers of manufacturing industries, and hence of labor, machinery and power, most of the larger paper mills were established in New England, New York and Pennsylvania. This group of States thus bore the brunt of the demand for pulp wood, and still continues to do so, although practically no extensive tracts of soft wood now remain in this section. In consequence of the decreasing reserve of pulp wood in the localities which have heretofore contributed a large proportion of the raw material, several of the more distant States are now being drawn upon to furnish the required supply. Of these States, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Michigan, Oregon and Washington are the principal producers, and considerable spruce and hemlock, and also wood pulp, have been brought over the border from Canada. The former enters free of duty; the latter is subject to a tariff of 15 per cent. ad valorem, amounting to from \$1.66 to \$5 per ton.

The Eastern States in thus yielding their

consumption would not now threaten exhaustion of the varieties of timber required if the demand had not increased out of proportion to the normal growth of an industry.

Constant progress has been made in the treatment of wood pulp and in the invention of more perfect machinery for the manufacture of paper. A few years since the maximum product of the largest paper machines in existence was 300 feet of news paper a minute, but at the present time in many mills such machines have been superseded by others of much greater capacity, capable of producing from 500 to 618 feet of paper per minute, the sheet having a width of 164 instead of 100 inches.

Unfortunately no exact information is available concerning the amount of wood paper used in newspapers and magazines, or in connection with other requirements, in 1880 or 1890. The consumption was measured, however, in 1900 and 1905, and was as follows:

AMOUNT OF WOOD PULP PAPER IN POUNDS USED DURING THE CENSUS YEAR IN NEWSPAPERS AND PERIODICALS AND FOR OTHER PURPOSES, 1900-1905.

Year.	1900.	1905.
Totals .....	3,448,385,670	5,375,363,830
Per cent. increase....	...	55.9
Newspapers and periodicals .....	1,078,237,670	1,821,629,830
Per cent. increase....	...	68.9
All other uses.....	2,370,148,000	3,553,734,000
Per cent. increase....	...	49.9

During the quarter-century elapsing from 1880 to 1905, the unusual increase which

PRODUCTION OF WOOD TO BE USED IN THE

Locality.	1906.	
	Cords.	Per cent. of total.
Totals.....	3,661,176	100.0
New England, New York, and Pennsylvania .....	1,901,080	51.9
Far West (Oregon and Washington) .....	99,134	2.7
Middle West, Minnesota, Wisconsin, and Michigan) .....	634,141	17.3
All other States.....	555,542	15.2
Canada .....	738,872	20.2

\* Not reported separately. † Oregon.

MANUFACTURE OF PAPER, 1900 TO 1906.

	1905.		1904.		1900.	
	Cords.	Per cent. of total.	Cords.	Per cent. of total.	Cords.	Per cent. of total.
Totals.....	3,192,002	100.0	3,085,717	100.0	1,986,310	100.0
Newspapers and periodicals .....	1,737,899	54.4	1,663,410	54.5	1,058,944	53.3
All other uses.....	1,454,103	45.6	1,422,307	45.5	927,366	46.7
Per cent. increase....	...	...	...	...	...	...

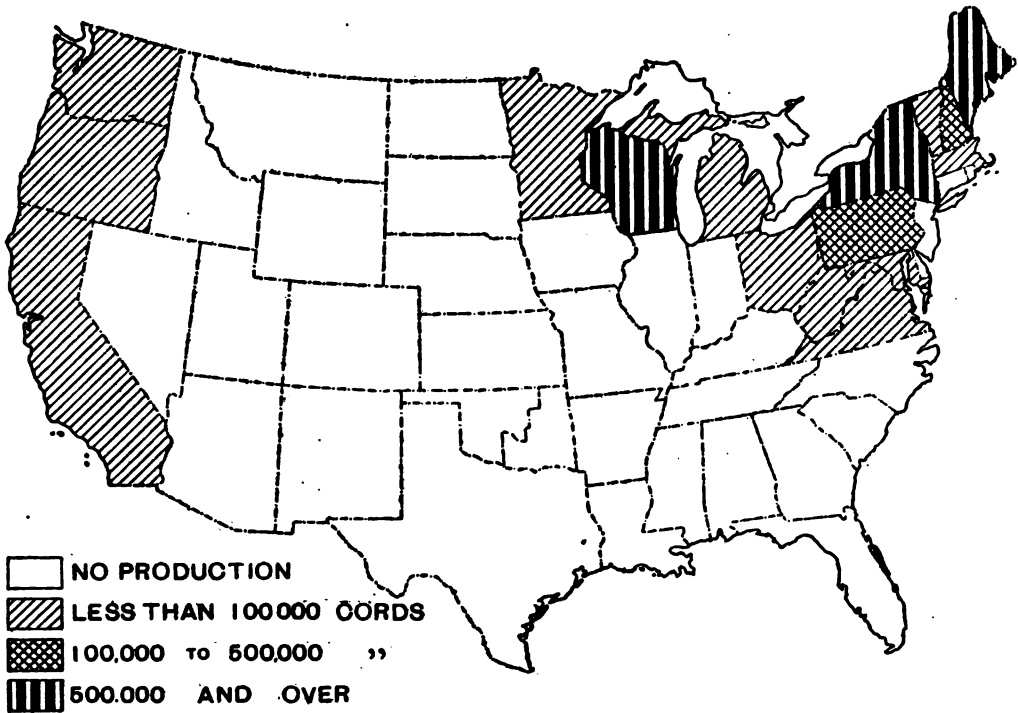
wood to the paper manufacturer have contributed for comparatively small return much of their most precious natural resource, and the one which in future years would undoubtedly prove of the greatest financial and natural value. Many land owners in New England deeply regret that within the last twenty years they have sold timber land or timber from their farms which at the prices readily secured to-day would represent a small fortune.

However much it may be regretted that the trail to raw material for paper led to the forest, it is possible that the resulting

occurred in the total amount of paper consumed was principally due to two causes: increase in circulation and increase in the number of pages per issue of newspapers and periodicals. The increasing size of publications in turn has resulted from two causes: cheapened composition and increase in advertising patronage.

INCREASE IN CIRCULATION OF NEWSPAPERS AND PERIODICALS.

The aggregate circulation during the census year of American newspapers and periodicals increased fivefold from 1880 to 1905,



MAP OF THE UNITED STATES SHOWING PRODUCTION OF WOOD FOR PULP.

or from slightly more than 2,000,000,000 to nearly 10,500,000,000 in 1905. Increase of circulation, however, is of course modified by changes in population, and thus should be measured upon a per capita basis. In 1870 the per capita circulation of all publications issued in the census year was 39 copies, in 1880 it was 41.2, in 1890 it was 72.2, in 1900, 103.0, and in 1905, 125.0. While a practically stationary condition is thus indicated during the first decade mentioned, the increase in each of the succeeding periods was so great that the people of the United States were patronizing newspapers and magazines in 1905 three times as liberally as in 1880.

PER CENT. OF INCREASE IN CIRCULATION AND IN AMOUNT OF PAPER USED IN NEWSPAPERS AND PERIODICALS, 1890 TO 1905.

Year.	Circulation per year.	Paper.
1890.....	125.8	192.3
1900.....	68.3	95.0
1905.....	31.4	68.9

Great as was the increase in circulation, it is obvious that increase in consumption of paper was even greater. Since there is to be expected a certain general relation between these items, it is clear, from the marked variation here shown, that paper must have been affected by influences other than mere circulation.

## INCREASE IN NUMBER OF PAGES.

In 1880, 1000 copies of newspapers and magazines averaged 91.5 pounds in weight. In 1890 this figure advanced to 118.4 pounds, in 1900 to 137.3, and five years

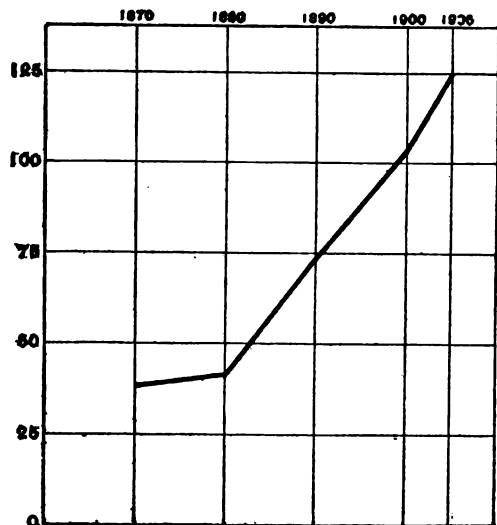


DIAGRAM SHOWING THE INCREASE IN THE ANNUAL PER CAPITA CONSUMPTION OF NEWSPAPERS AND PERIODICALS, 1870 TO 1905.

later, in 1905, an average thousand copies of American publications weighed 176.4 pounds. Thus from 1880 to 1890, the average weight increased 26.9 pounds, or 29.4 per cent., and from 1890 to 1900, 18.9 pounds, or 16 per cent.; but from 1900 to 1905, a period but half as long as the others considered, the increase was 39.1 pounds, or 28.5 per cent., and if the average thousand copies continues to increase in weight during the second half of the present decade at the rate of increase thus shown for the first half, the ten-year increase from 1900 to 1910 will reach almost eighty pounds, or 58.2 per cent. In 1905 the weight per thousand of the paper, and hence the number of pages, in all newspapers and periodicals, was almost exactly double that shown for 1880.

The increase here indicated in the amount of paper consumed is confirmed by the fact pointed out in the Federal Census report on printing for 1905, that the average number of pages in all newspapers and periodicals in 1880 was 4.4 pages, and in 1905, 8.8 pages, or double the average reported in 1880.

In almost all industries the amount of increase measures the change which has occurred: shoes, for example, or hoes, pianos or pins and needles, are constant quantities, but in the case of newspaper and periodical increase, the product which reported a five-fold increase from 1880 to 1905 is thus shown to have been twice the bulk in 1905 of that reported in 1880, hence for the paper required the forests of the United States were drawn upon in 1905 for ten times the wood pulp required in 1880. What this increase in size amounts to in pounds is best illustrated by computing the circulation of 1905 in terms of the number of pages reported in 1880. Upon the modest basis of that year, when composition was expensive and publishers had not learned to riot in wood paper, the 1905 circulation would have required 908,612,600 pounds, or 913,017,230 pounds less than were actually used. Mere increase in the number of pages in American newspapers and periodicals in 1905 as compared with 1880 thus represents each year the soft wood product,—principally spruce,—of approximately 50,000 acres of forest land.

To a limited extent increase in bulk is the natural result of increased circulation, but there are two far more important reasons: the introduction and general use of typesetting machines, and increase in advertising. The former exerted its greatest in-

fluence in increasing the size of publications in the decade from 1890 to 1900, and the latter probably in the half decade so far measured, 1900 to 1905.

#### THE ERA OF COMPOSITION INFLATION.

The beginning of machine composition may be said to date from the close of the decade 1880 to 1890, but so few machines of this character were then in use that they were not reported at the latter census. During the decade from 1890 to 1900 the use of these machines was extended to practically all the large newspaper offices of the country. In 1900 there were approximately 4000 machines in operation in newspaper offices. Thus while the larger establishments were equipped with typesetting machines during the decade mentioned, it remained to further extend the use of machines during the present decade to smaller daily papers and to some weekly papers, so that in 1905 more than 6000 machines were reported to be in use in newspaper offices. The immediate effect of the use of typesetting machines was a greatly increased amount of composition for the same expenditure formerly made for hand work. Not only did the output in pages of reading matter increase to a noteworthy extent, but further increases often occurred by substituting nonpareil (a smaller face) for minion, as the prevailing size of type. In a newspaper office one machine is generally expected to yield an amount of composition equal to the work of five men. The 4000 machines in operation in 1900 were therefore equivalent (less operators) to an army of 16,000 additional compositors, theoretically capable of setting nearly 41,000,000 thousand ems during the census year, or enough nonpareil composition to completely supply the practical requirement of 418 daily newspapers, each printing eight pages every day for one year.\*

It is obvious that this extraordinary increase offered to the enterprising publisher a chance to outstrip his competitors in the amount and variety of the reading matter which he presented. In consequence the size of the daily issue increased to some extent, while the Sunday issue greatly expanded and was made a medium for the publication of general literature. In this way the Sunday issues of important newspapers have become practically huge magazines.

\* The aggregate composition in all the daily newspapers in the United States during the whole of the census year 1880 was approximately 98,000,000 thousand ems.

In 1905 there were 456 daily newspapers issuing Sunday editions, the aggregate circulation of which was 11,539,021. If each of these Sunday newspapers averaged thirty-two pages, the paper required for each issue would have been sufficient to have formed a library of 5,907,978 volumes of 500 octavo pages each.

In New York City alone, the aggregate circulation per issue in 1905 for the six principal Sunday newspapers was 1,803,000 copies. They averaged sixty pages per issue, hence each copy represented the amount of paper required for an octavo book of 480 pages. If the circulation of all Sunday papers and of the six leading New York papers be considered on the basis of aggregate issue for the census year, the total annual circulation of the former slightly exceeded 600,000,000 copies, while that of the latter amounted to 93,729,000, or 15 per cent. of the total.

#### INCREASE IN ADVERTISING.

The part which advertising has played in increasing the number of pages of newspapers and magazines has become increasingly important during the period of prosperity which the country has of late experienced. Prior to 1890 the receipts from advertising amounted to considerably less than half of the total revenue of newspapers and magazines, subscriptions and sales contributing much the larger share. In 1890 the proportion contributed by each class of assets was about equal; after that date receipts for advertising rapidly outstripped those from subscriptions and sales, so that in 1905 advertising constituted 57.7 per cent. of the total returns and subscriptions and sales but 43.3.

It was recently stated to the writer by leading publishers in different cities that the principal change which occurred during the five-year period from 1900 to 1905 was a decided increase in the number of pages per issue (especially in daily newspapers as distinguished from the Sunday issues), due to increase in advertising, practically no additional reading matter being presented. In some cases the increase in size, due to volume of advertising, was so great as to represent an average annual increase of from one to three pages per issue.

The issues of the six principal Sunday newspapers published in New York City on December 1, 1907, aggregated 388 pages, an average of 64.5 pages. These were divided

as follows: Advertising, 149; illustrations, 89; reading matter, 150. The proportion of reading matter varied from 25 per cent. to 56 per cent., and for all six issues was 38.7 per cent., or scarcely more than one-third of the total pages. The reader, therefore, who purchased these newspapers for literary edification was burdened with the equivalent of an octavo volume of advertisements of 1192 pages, and of perfecting-press art of 712 pages. While entirely beyond definite statistical demonstration, it may not be amiss to suggest that if the proportion of reading matter, advertising, and pictures thus found to exist in New York Sunday newspapers were applied to all Sunday newspapers (it is reasonable to suppose that the proportions do not vary materially) the "library" previously mentioned would contain 2,286,387 volumes octavo of reading matter, 2,268,663 volumes octavo of advertising, and 1,352,926 volumes octavo of "art," the amount of advertising thus equaling that of reading matter.

#### INCREASE IN THE COST OF WOOD PAPER.

The changes which have been in progress in connection with cost of paper used in all periodicals are illustrated in the following summary:

##### COST OF PAPER PER POUND.

Items.	1890.	1900.	1905.
All paper used in newspapers and periodicals.....	4.3	2.57	2.59
Newspapers in rolls.....	..	1.7	1.9
Newspapers in sheets.....	..	1.89	2.18
Wood fibre book paper.....	..	3.45	3.55

The general facts here presented, however, are more clearly indicated by considering expenditures made for white paper by representative newspapers in the larger cities. Selecting typical papers of Chicago, Boston, New York, Philadelphia and Washington, it appears that the average price per pound which they paid in 1900 was 1.6 cents, and in 1905, 2.0 cents. It seems clear that the advance here indicated is likely to continue.

#### THE PROBLEM OF AVOIDING INCREASED COST OF PAPER.

There are three alternatives open to the publisher in attempting to avoid increased cost of the white paper which he requires to maintain circulation and size. The first alternative is the one to which publishers are at present turning as practically the only source of relief. An amendment to the tariff laws of the United States which shall per-



mit the entrance of paper and of wood pulp free of duty, in order that the forests of other countries (specifically Canada) may effectively supplement our own. It cannot be claimed that the plan thus proposed completely adjusts the difficulty, since the supply of spruce and other pulp woods in Canada is by no means exhaustless and an export tax appears probable. It is obvious, therefore, that this alternative is an uncertain one, and at best merely postpones ultimate shortage.

The second alternative may be better termed a scientific possibility: it is the development of a satisfactory raw material other than the limited varieties of wood now used. To that end already the chemist and inventor have long been at work. Even the federal Government is endeavoring to assist in the solution of this problem. In his current estimates the Secretary of Agriculture requests an appropriation of \$10,000 to conduct experiments in developing a suitable raw material for paper. It must be admitted, however, that the results thus far are not commensurate with the expenditure of time and money already made. The day appears to be still distant when corn and cotton stalks, plants, or straw can be utilized as a satisfactory and thoroughly practical base. Experiments have, however, resulted in the production of excellent white paper from woods hitherto unused. From eighteen varieties useful paper can now be manufactured, but the practical limitations in most cases still govern use; either the product is satisfactory for particular uses only, or the amount produced from a given unit of wood is too small to yield a reasonable profit, or there are mechanical, scientific, or natural difficulties yet to be overcome.

The third alternative is much more radical. It has been shown that the increase in the use of white paper has been principally due to two causes,—natural increase in circulation, and rather unnatural increase in the number of pages in each issue of newspapers and magazines resulting from machine composition and expansion of advertising.

Obviously circulation cannot be decreased, but on the contrary must continually increase, as the nation advances in wealth and

intelligence. It would, however, be possible to decrease the amount of composition used in most newspapers and some magazines without detriment to the publishers or loss to the public. Much of the reading matter which is now printed in Sunday newspapers may be classed as "filler," and possesses no value to any one. The impression left upon the reader's mind in connection with it, is that the editors of the different sections of the Sunday papers have been straining every nerve to pad out their space with matter which possesses no permanent and little or no passing value. It would be possible, indeed, to reduce the amount of reading matter presented in daily and Sunday newspapers by perhaps 20 per cent. before causing any loss to the community; it would be possible also to decrease space which is now being devoted to advertising by increasing the rate. If all advertisements were condensed in the same proportion, it is probable that the resulting return would, for all concerned, be precisely the same as at present.

He would be a bold reformer indeed who obstructs the path of seeming progress by deliberately advocating reduction in the size of American newspapers and periodicals, but if the figures and assertions of the forest experts of the federal Government are correct, and if no other satisfactory raw material for paper is discovered, the near future will compel the paper and publishing industries, willing or unwilling, to adjust themselves to entirely new conditions.

Whatever the present opinion of publishers may be concerning the necessity or wisdom of a great number of pages per issue, thoughtful and intelligent persons generally find the bulk of modern publications, especially of Sunday newspapers, a source of continual annoyance. The huge comic picture supplements are often so puerile that they induce a sense of melancholy; yet merely to divert thoughtless men and women for a brief Sunday morning hour with impossible and extravagant pictures printed in loud colors, thousands of stately spruce and hemlock trees upon the northern hills, which have raised their graceful branches to the sunshine and rain of many changing seasons, have lived,—in vain.

# THE GOLD FLOOD AND ITS PROBLEMS.

BY J. PEASE NORTON.

IN the present disturbance of business prosperity there are at least four factors which are fundamental to all those economic effects that are currently classed as causes, namely: First, the world-wide depreciation of gold, which has been and is operating to undermine the use of gold as a standard of value in various insidious and complicated, although sure ways; second, the ill-regulated practices of capitalization of corporations proceeding under a comparatively new combination of economic conditions, involving underwriting, investments of commercial and savings banks, trust companies, and insurance companies, and especially the methods of acquiring ownership by majority control for purposes of merger; third, the inadequacy of our currency system with especial reference to the bond secured bank note system, constituting a most important problem in the field of currency as a medium of exchange; fourth, the rapid expansion of the banking industry under the guise of trust companies without proper legal requirements covering reserves.

Because these problems have suddenly developed new aspects on account of economic changes, the whole field requires not only careful analysis by experts, but also delicate and effective legislation by Congress. From a brief survey of the disturbing factors mentioned above, which are at the root of the financial crisis of 1907, it will be possible to discuss more intelligently the financial situation with reference to the remedies proposed.

Although gold is the measure of the prices of all commodities as a standard of value, prices may increase because of a cheapening of the standard relative to commodities or because of an increase in the value of commodities relative to the standard. In the one case, inventions in gold mining and new discoveries of gold would be active. In the second case, above mentioned, short crops, deficient economic progress, and great pressure of population on the means of subsistence would be the effective causes for the high prices. High prices may, then, be classed historically in two groups, (a) inflation prices due to a depreciated money, (b) famine prices due to want.

## THE OVER-SUPPLY OF GOLD.

That high prices exist, there is no question. All average price levels, whether English or American, show in eight years more than 50 per cent. increase. In other words it requires \$1.50 to buy what \$1 would purchase on the average eight years ago. If these are not famine prices, because during eight years the crops have been bountiful, progress extremely rapid, and the standard of living throughout the world upon the increase, then the causes should be sought in the depreciation of money. If the statistics agree in showing the quantity of gold increasing, the cost of production per ton of ore diminished radically by new inventions, and the world's stock of gold showing a marked and sudden increase, little doubt remains. The facts are plain. A golden deluge is already upon us. In the year 1700 the annual production was \$7,000,000, in 1800 \$12,000,000, in 1900 \$262,000,000, in 1907 \$425,000,000, and the rate of increase is accelerating. When we remember that the larger amount of each year's production is added to all that has been produced before, unlike all other commodities; that at the present rate of acceleration the world's stock can double in less than twelve years, and finally, that the causes of the gold flood are not sporadic and exceptional, but entirely rational, namely, the ingenuity of chemists and metallurgists, who have succeeded in reducing the profitable working cost per ton of ore from \$14 to less than \$2 at the present time, by new inventions, this question of gold depreciation becomes easily the financial problem of the age. For the amount of cheap gold ore is unlimited in nature. Mr. Frederick Upham Adams, in the August issue of *Success*, quotes Mr. John D. Rockefeller as saying: "It seems to me that one of the most startling conditions this country must face is the overproduction of gold."

## THE RESULTING INFLATION.

The situation is not complex. Instead of a Congress as in the Civil War issuing millions of paper greenbacks which did not represent the amount of work which good money hitherto had cost, now a freak or

combination of nature and human science is flooding the world with golden metal which does not represent the value of the gold of yesterday; as the cost of to-day's production largely determines the value of all the stock on hand, the sudden decrease in cost has resulted in the ordinary phenomena present in all inflation. A rapid increase of prices results. A great speculation ensues to make profit by the rise. Men borrow and pyramid their profits in the speculation in commodities, securities and land. Under this borrowing demand, interest rises until the increase in the rate tends to offset the loss in principal to the lender. For, if normal interest is 5 per cent., and prices rise on the average 5 per cent. per annum, a normal interest for such inflation must be 10 per cent. Otherwise the principal loaned will be impaired when repaid by the borrower, measured in purchasing power for the lender.

#### THE HIGHER INTEREST RATE.

Without going into a technical explanation of the results of a world-wide gold depreciation, which have been fully described theoretically by Prof. Irving Fisher\* of Yale University in "Appreciation and Interest" in 1897, and later in his recent treatise, "The Rate of Interest," the subject may be usefully summarized in answer to the question: Assuming that a world-wide gold depreciation is in progress, how may business men and investors take advantage of this great economic change, to the end of limiting losses in their present commitments, and, so far as possible, reaping profits by wise foresight in guarding their future financial operations?

Assuming  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. as a normal rate of interest and  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. as the average rate per annum at which prices have increased for the past ten years, the lender, in order that his principal shall not be impaired must exact a high rate, 9 per cent., which is no hardship to the debtor, since the land, the commodities and the securities (if equities) will tend to rise in proportion to prices, namely,  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. each year on the average, with certain exceptions.

#### EFFECT ON MORTGAGES, STOCKS, AND BONDS.

The man who invests his own capital in real estate neither gains nor loses by gold depreciation. The man owning real estate

heavily mortgaged at previous low rates of interest gains largely, since the value of the property will advance but not the debt. The man who holds the mortgage loses what the other man gains. This inequality is adjusted by the increasing interest rates.

It will be profitable for business men to carry large stock of goods, bought on every recession in prices, and to advance the prices without delay. Large profits thereby become possible, on account of the appreciation in the value of the stock.

The common shares of corporations represent the equities and correspond largely to the case of the man who purchases land on mortgage. Common stocks will greatly appreciate in value unless special reasons intervene. Among special reasons are: First, the difficulty of raising prices of services or goods sold by the corporation, as in the street railway corporations, where the law fixes a 5-cent fare; in railways, so far as rates may not be readily raised; secondly, the difficulties of raising large amounts of new capital at high interest where extensive new construction has been or must be shortly undertaken. Otherwise, the stocks of companies, the more heavily bonded at the old rates of interest the better, provided net earnings may readily increase and no new capital is required, and always provided the management consists of honest men, should show great profits. For the bondholder's loss becomes the stockholder's gain.

It will be unwise to buy low interest bonds unless the buyer has offerings of equal security to his present holdings on a far higher basis than at present prevails. During the lulls, when general interest rates for a short time decline, largest profits will be made in selling bonds when they rally owing to lower interest, and immediately re-investing in the stock of companies, soundly managed, having low-priced equities and heavily bonded, the bonds dating before 1901.

#### THE NEW YORK CITY BOND ISSUE.

Doubtless, the sale of \$40,000,000 corporate stock and bonds by the city of New York will mark no less the commencement of a new era of investment values than the necessity for early changes in the laws regulating the investments of savings banks and trust institutions. That we are on a new investment basis few may longer doubt. That \$40,000,000  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. bonds, tax-exempt, should bring only 102 on the aver-

\* Readers interested in this most important subject should consult the writings of Fisher and Holt. An excellent introduction is Holt's "Gold Supply and Prosperity."

age, a basis yield of about  $4\frac{1}{4}$  per cent., adding the amount of the tax to bring this investment into comparison with securities subject to tax, said  $1\frac{1}{2}$  per cent., an equivalent yield of nearly 6 per cent. for New York City bonds, will prove for the majority of financiers sufficient indication of the trend.

The price of the New York City bond issue represents the havoc which gold depreciation has wrought up to this date. How great is the fall in New York City bonds, few even now realize. In 1904 the New York City  $3\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. bonds were distributed to the public as high as 104. Since then a decline has occurred of twenty-four points, or, say, 25 per cent. in this gilt-edged investment security. From the standpoint of the holders the comparison is even more discouraging, because the purchasing power of the dollar in the brief interval of three years has declined 10 per cent., as measured by the index number issued by Dun last May, when presumably on account of the extraordinarily rapid advance in prices this ancient statistical landmark was abandoned. Consequently, the holder of the  $3\frac{1}{2}$ 's finds that not only has he lost 25 per cent. of his capital measured in dollars, but that \$80 will only purchase what \$72 would three years ago. Therefore, measured in the real test of purchasing power, the holder has lost 32 per cent. of his capital, and received in the meantime an interest return of  $3\frac{1}{2}$  per cent., little more than one-half the current time rates now ruling for a year. That the effect must go farther, no sane critic can doubt. How far this movement may go, it will be impossible to say for two years or more, inasmuch as the conflicting tendencies produced by political disturbances pending the election, confuse the effects of the depreciation of the standard of value.

That there has been secret selling of bonds of well-informed interests in amounts reaching great proportions is doubtless within the knowledge of a few. The difficulty in unloading bonds on account of the narrow market which many issues and specialties possess makes it difficult to show the real quotations which many issues would bring.

#### SAVINGS-BANK AND INSURANCE INVESTMENTS.

That a situation has developed in the finances of savings banks as well as in insurance companies requiring changes in the laws regulating the investments of savings banks, the New York City issue forcibly suggests.

That the laws should restrict investments of savings banks to bonds and mortgages seemed safe to the law-makers because the thought of loss by depreciation of the standard of value was lacking; moreover, the laws helped the sales of bonds by large dealers. In New York, Massachusetts and Connecticut the laws were made drastic enough. Savings banks were practically compelled so far as securities are concerned to make only loans to corporations (by being forced to purchase the bonds) and restricted or rather barred from investing in the equities which represent the growth of this great country, the richest in the world. Fixed investments consist of two classes: Simple annuities undetermined as to annual rate, which in capital value are common stocks, and the combination of an annuity of stated rate and a principal sum due at the end of so many years, which in capital value are known as bonds. In former times such securities represented capital invested, because the rate of interest in all industries was subject to comparatively small differences. In foreclosure, this value could be liquidated. On account of insufficient regulations controlling capitalization, worthless pieces of paper from the standpoint of liquidation under foreclosure, inasmuch as they represent simply contingent earning power, have been sold to trust institutions for investments.

#### THE DEMAND FOR AN ELASTIC CURRENCY.

As a result of the speculation resulting from gold depreciation and advancing prices, and the immobility in the character of certain investments of trust institutions already pointed out, the tropic conditions natural in hot-houses of inflation rapidly developed. The volume of clearings increased not only in quantity but also in value, on account of higher prices. The demand for currency to transact this hot-house business became really a practical question for the bankers. Without studying the causes, Congress has proceeded to remedy this real, though unnatural, demand for more currency. Like the man who, by tugging at his boot straps to reach a higher plane, pulled so hard that he not only seriously injured his back, but tore the straps out of his boots, so the insistent demand for more currency to transact this unnatural business resulted in further inflation and increased speculation. The increase in bond-secured notes has amounted to \$400,000,000 within a few years,—an inflation by fiat money on top of nature's in-

flation through the cheapening of gold. The Aldrich bill assisted the bankers in this inflation movement by directing the secretary to deposit all the Government funds in the banks. During every fall, on account of our inelastic currency and the genuine business expansion on account of the harvest business, this demand has been intensified.

This legitimate demand for an elastic currency, presented at successive Congresses by the Hon. Charles N. Fowler, chairman of the House Committee on Banking and Currency, has been consistently shelved by Congress, although the system of asset currency as used in Canada and elsewhere is in every way sound and practicable. That the currency should be elastic and vary with business demands is not only reasonable, but conclusive. The short-sighted policy of Congress in continuing to make the bank note circulation depend on the Government debt, will, unless modified, produce in the end a great crisis. For in event of war, the \$600,000,000 worth of 2 per cent. bonds held by the banks against the bank notes, now selling above par, would, if the Government issued \$2,000,000,000 or \$3,000,000,000 bonds for war purposes, greatly depreciate, since so large a sum would require at least 4 per cent. interest, on which basis the 2's would not be worth over 60, jeopardizing the \$600,000,000 of the present assets of the banks by at least 40 per cent.

When, then, these conditions of inflation had been carried to a pitch, and many investments believed to be good were in reality only contingent annuities without value in case of foreclosure, and the inelastic currency system was laboring under a heavy discount rate, which is the safety valve of an inelastic currency, the psychological blow was struck which caused the crisis to become acute and universal,—the failure of the great Knickerbocker Trust Company.

#### INADEQUATE BANKING RESERVES.

A president of a large savings bank recently commented on the fact that the crisis did no injury to savings banks and rather testified to their splendid solidity. As a matter of fact all savings banks retired behind the sixty days' notice clause. The national banks remained solvent by suspending payments. The suspension of specie payments was the result of insufficient reserves. The reserves of the national banks were insufficient simply because trust companies, State banks, private banks, and insurance compa-

nies carried little if any reserves, re depositing in other institutions. The result is that within fifteen years the average reserves against deposits for the banking industry, which should include the trust companies,—since trust companies are little more than banks free of reserve regulations,—have been on the average cut in two. As a result a sudden run made it impossible to maintain specie payments, because the reserves were entirely inadequate for the business attempted.

#### WASHINGTON COMES TO THE RESCUE.

The fright engendered by the failure of the Knickerbocker Trust Company produced a psychological panic. It destroyed public confidence. Because the reserves were insufficient, institutions through the country suspended specie payments. Currency sold at a premium in Wall Street. The fear in the land required immediate allaying. Grasping the solution, the Administration acted promptly in a way capable of accomplishing the results desired. By immediately offering bond issues of \$150,000,000, all told, to be used to provide an emergency currency, a psychological impression was produced at one stroke, largely restoring confidence.

As soon as it became apparent that the difficulties had been met, and the intensity of the crisis allayed, it was decided unnecessary to actually sell more than a fraction of the amount offered. Had the smaller amount been offered at the start, little would have been accomplished psychologically. The move of the Administration, psychologically speaking, tended to balance in restoring public confidence, the extent such confidence had been destroyed by the opening event, the suspension of the great Knickerbocker Trust Company, the two events marking the beginning and the end of the great crisis. Great credit is due to President Roosevelt and Secretary Cortelyou in so splendidly coping with an alarming situation.

Now that public confidence in a measure has been restored, and the time of normal monetary stringency is rapidly passing, two disturbing factors have for the time been tempered. The canceling of loans by banks will proceed throughout the country. The volume of trade will lessen. In a short time money will begin to accumulate in the banks, and business will pass into that state of torpor which is most discouraging to business men.

In the dismay at fortunes wrecked and

profitable business swept away, the immediate mental reactions of men are two: Responsibility for the crisis, in order to fix the blame, and, second, remedies of many kinds largely designed to affect some of the innumerable minor phases which have struck the minds of men in vivid ways.

#### SOME SPECIFIC REMEDIES.

Many special interests under the guise of remedies for the crisis are suggesting changes in our financial system dangerous to the interests of our people. Leaving out of the question the many impracticable suggestions, the possible remedies, when financial, political and commercial conditions are carefully weighed, are few. On the whole, it is probable that no direct legislation at all would be most advantageous for the prosperity of the country. Stripped of technicalities, the following measures, which are the substance of several bills to be introduced, would be salutary, provided a currency campaign shall not result.

(I) Require the State banks, trust companies, etc, to become national banks.

(a) By extending to the national banks complete powers possessed by trust companies and requiring adequate reserves against notes as against deposits.

(b) By taxing all institutions upon deposits by a graduated scale decreasing with the proportion of reserves held, similar in a way to the 10 per cent. tax on bank notes of State banks. These two laws, if carefully worked out, would insure uniform administration of banking institutions and enforce adequate reserves. Trust companies and State banks would be forced to become national banks.

(II) Give to the national banks the right to issue bank notes, unsecured by Government bonds against which reserves should be required, provided the bank has already outstanding say 60 per cent. of the present Government bond-secured notes. In this way the transition to the Canadian system of asset currency can be gradually brought about without injuring the prices of Government bonds now held by the banks.

(III) Henceforth, Government bonds should not be the basis for circulation to a total amount greater than the \$600,000,000 now outstanding, although they may be given in exchange the privilege of becoming the sole security for Government deposits.

These remedies may be adopted by the

present Congress to advantage. But the danger to business is great, since a prolonged currency discussion in Congress is apt to throw the entire question into the presidential campaign.

#### REASONS FOR THE APPOINTMENT OF A GOLD COMMISSION.

The remedy for the problems arising from gold depreciation, from the irregularities in regulations governing the investments of trust institutions, and, finally, the suffering caused by the financial crisis of 1907, may well be entrusted to a gold commission. Extensive testimony should be taken, and thorough investigation carried on in order to obtain the statistical data necessary for final recommendations. Moreover, this is an international question, and negotiations should be carried on with foreign countries. If the reasoning of experts that prolonged depreciation tends to upset the relations of the various classes in a society is correct, grave social conditions must shortly develop. Extensive readjustments of wages must ensue if the present cost of living does not come down. Already it costs 50 per cent. more to live than ten years ago. If, as has been stated, prices may advance in three years 30 per cent. more, this will mean that within thirteen years the cost of living will have doubled.

From the standpoint of business, could the political and financial-legal conditions of disturbance be removed,—now that the periods of malignancy of the disturbing factors are temporarily passed,—prosperity would rapidly renew its course, and a bitter commercial depression be largely avoided. For in periods of gold depreciation, crises although violent are of short duration, provided political factors do not intervene. The crisis of 1857 was quickly passed, but the agitation preceding the Civil War immediately followed. Could all interests agree to compromise by the appointment of a gold commission with extensive powers to investigate and recommend legislation to the Congress of 1909, this whole subject would be removed, to the great advantage of business, from the realm of politics as a disturbing cause. These questions are too, perhaps, safer in the hands of experts than in the throes of partisan efforts and their misuse by unprincipled political agitators. There are these two alternatives,—a gold commission or a stormy campaign disturbing business.

# THE STORY OF THE HOARDERS.

BY WILLIAM JUSTUS BOIES.

NEVER before in the history of this country has the mania to hoard money deprived the people of so vast a sum as that which has been withdrawn from circulation since the opening days of the October panic. It has been a most curious, unreasoning, but picturesque movement, with which the banks of the great cities have ever had to deal, and now that the different phases are becoming better known, it is clear that all sorts and conditions of men have engaged in the practice, and that thousands of big and little banks throughout the United States have helped it along. The movement has been too broad for any one to trace closely, but it is safe to say that, taking the country as a whole, fully \$100,000,000 in currency has been locked up by timid individuals, banks, and corporations. It has been estimated that fully half of that sum was withdrawn from the banks and trust companies in the immediate vicinity of New York during the excitement attending the unprecedented runs on three or four trust companies of the metropolis.

The movement was given great impetus by the action of the New York Clearing House banks in authorizing the issue of loan certificates on October 26 last. It is true, however, that hoarding had begun two or three weeks before this action was taken. The banks were obliged to authorize loan certificates because of the tremendous drain of currency to the interior, which largely accounted for the \$12,900,000 cash loss shown in the bank statement of the day that the loan certificate expedient was resorted to, and by the heavy withdrawals of currency by individual depositors. As soon as the newspapers announced that cash settlements by the banks had been temporarily suspended the safe-deposit companies received applications for thousands of "one month boxes." That meant that the hoarders wanted a safe place to store their money pending the resumption of normal conditions, and that they thought that the situation would be sufficiently settled within a month to enable them to either re-deposit their funds or invest them permanently. What was true of New York applied in a way to other centers, and as loan certificates were

taken out by the banks of Philadelphia, Chicago, Boston, Pittsburg, St. Louis, and other points, the hoarding mania extended, and soon developed into a national movement of grave consequence.

## "TRADING" IN CURRENCY.

Although the craze began through the withdrawal by timid depositors who were honestly concerned as to the solvency of their banks, there can be no doubt that much of the vast sum taken out of circulation was withdrawn deliberately for the purpose of securing the premium on the currency that the hoarders knew would be paid as soon as the currency famine became at all acute. Within a week after the loan certificates were issued, currency became so scarce as to make it difficult for the banks of New York to supply their customers with pay-roll money. This led to serious complications, as hundreds of mill owners found themselves in a position where they could not meet their wage schedules, and were in danger of having to shut down their plants. Although the more intelligent class of laborers might be content to receive certified checks and various forms of "token money," the greater proportion were too ignorant to be reasoned with, and could not be induced to take anything but the actual currency. In the South, especially, this trouble caused great embarrassment, as was evidenced by a "hurry call" from a cotton planter for a quick shipment of 5000 silver dollars to be used in paying off negro help. The planter had to pay a premium of \$150 to make it worth while for the Wall Street money brokers to scour the city one Saturday afternoon to procure the coin.

This state of affairs soon made the buying and selling of currency an important part of the banking business, and by November 4 the financial columns of the newspapers were full of the announcements of money brokers stating that they were ready to "trade" in currency. That was the inducement that thousands of hoarders had been waiting for, and within two days the currency premium became the most important quotation in Wall Street. The money changers did a thriving business immediately, and as soon as



their announcements were out there was a steady procession of shamefaced people to the Wall Street offices bent upon selling what currency they had. This throng of greedy hoarders represented all the types of a great city, ranging from the rag picker of the East Side, who had sewed his currency in his clothes for safe keeping, up to the rich men whose secretaries emptied huge bundles of crisp, new bills on the money changers' counters. Hundreds of women joined the throng, and had it not been for the vigilance of the Wall Street detectives and the known terrors of the financial district to thieves of all classes, many of the hoarders would have been relieved of their savings before they had a chance to sell them. It was a common thing to see frail women take from insecure wrist bags great rolls of gold certificates and bills of small denomination to be sold. Some of the women hoarders drove hard-headed bargains and forced the money changers to pay them  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. and even higher for their currency. In one instance two wealthy women were seen emerging from a Harlem bank carrying huge packages, each containing \$50,000 in currency, which they immediately hid away in a safe-deposit vault located in the basement of the bank's own building.

The money brokers paid for the currency with certified checks drawn upon national Clearing House banks. The curious feature of this arrangement was that the hoarders who were apparently afraid to leave their money on deposit with the banks were willing to accept checks drawn upon these same institutions. These checks they deposited in the regular way and the credits were placed to their personal account in the banks. This furnished rather conclusive evidence that the hoarders, in withdrawing their money from the banks, were governed more by a sense of greed than a sense of prudence. It must be remembered, however, that the 2 or 3 per cent. premium which the hoarders received for the currency that they sold represented as much as they would have obtained from the trust companies for a year's interest. Then, too, after collecting their premium,—\$200 or \$300 on each \$10,000 of currency sold,—they could take the certified checks covering the sum of their original withdrawals from the banks, plus the premium paid by the money brokers, and deposit it with the trust companies on the regular interest basis. It will be seen, therefore, that the incentive for such an operation from a cold

business point of view, was really very great.

As high as 4 per cent. premium was paid for currency in the New York market by interior banks. The record transaction in this way was the purchase of a \$500,000 block by a Western bank that had to have in its possession that amount of actual cash. It had considerable difficulty in securing the money, even at a premium of 4 per cent., which meant that the bank had to pay \$20,000 in order to obtain the cash it needed. This was as high as was paid by the money changers during the panic of 1893, when the business of buying and selling currency during the period of financial disturbance was first developed in a large way.

#### THE BANKS AS HOARDERS.

Between \$40,000,000 and \$50,000,000 in currency was traded in by the money changers of Wall Street during this season's disturbance. That was three-fold the volume of sales reported during the panic of fourteen years ago, and this season's totals might be greatly enhanced were it possible to trace the private sales that were effected between individuals and banks. Although the country banks have been severely criticised for hoarding currency, it must be remembered that their position was peculiarly trying in that many of them were without Clearing House protection. Some of these banks saw the storm coming months before it broke, and prepared accordingly. In certain cases interior institutions having cash reserves averaging 40 or 50 per cent.,—15 per cent. being the legal requirement for national banks outside the reserve centers,—made urgent appeals to the New York banks for cash shipments, stating that they could not get along without the money. But they did get along without it, as soon as they found out that they had to, so the New York banks, except in instances where legitimate need was clearly apparent, refused to send interior correspondents all the cash that they called for. Many of the banks that were so anxious to secure currency did not need it at all, but carried it as an emergency fund for use in case of panic.

Let me say here that I believe that the New York banks handled a very difficult situation admirably and that they were not guilty of withholding currency from their Western correspondents at all. There have been such charges made, but without, I believe, just warrant. Comptroller Ridgely, in his annual report speaks thus of the

hoarding by banks: "The banks have been fearful as to what might develop, and finding their usual reserve deposits only partially available, if available at all, they have been compelled in self-protection to gather from every source all the money they could possibly reach and to hold on to it by refusing payment whenever it is possible and satisfying their customers with the smallest possible amount of cash."

#### NEW YORK BANKS NOT GUILTY.

This does not apply to the New York banks, since they gave up \$52,000,000 in the four weeks following the adoption of loan certificates by the Clearing House. The comptroller's own figures show that between August 22 and December 3,—covering not only the entire panic period but the preliminary stages of disturbance,—that the New York banks lost \$43,000,000 in reserve money, as against the normal drain of only \$12,400,000 in the corresponding period of 1906. This difference of \$30,000,000 is explained by the withdrawals of currency by interior banks and by the payments to the "assisted trust companies" as well. In this period, too, deposits in New York banks belonging to out of town institutions ran off \$27,412,000. These changes show rather conclusively that New York has not withheld money belonging to the interior, and that the great banks of Wall Street, whatever their sins in other directions, cannot properly be charged with hoarding money in this crisis. The very fact that they have been for weeks unable to meet the pay-roll requirements of their own customers, and that they have been forced, on many occasions, to go into the market and buy currency to provide the legitimate needs of their own clients, indicates that they have had no private hoard to resort to in this great twentieth century emergency.

The New York trust companies were for a time rather conspicuous hoarders of money, too, and in the nature of things they had to be. Having just survived a series of runs, during which two of the companies were forced to pay out virtually all their deposits in cash, the other companies were naturally desirous of "keeping strong." That meant accumulating the heaviest cash reserves that these companies

ever carried, and the combined drain was naturally sufficient to continue the currency premium in force. In addition to these withdrawals, large manufacturing concerns, with other great employers of labor, were obliged to keep constantly on hand enough currency to provide their pay-roll requirements a week or two ahead. In the case of one industry, located near New York, to which the Wall Street banks were accustomed to ship \$500,000 monthly in pay-roll money, it was found that the currency did not flow back as formerly, and that it was being hoarded. Investigation showed that the banks of the district were retaining all the currency they could get to meet a possible emergency.

After the Comptroller of the Currency called on the national banks to report their condition, as of December 3, much of the hoarded money was released. The banks had long been expecting the call and the day before it was issued the Wall Street money brokers did a thriving business in supplying currency to interior banks that desired to fortify their reserve position in anticipation of the demand. One Western bank came hurriedly into the market, bidding \$10,000 for a quick shipment of \$500,000. Other banks did the same thing, although in a quiet way. As soon as this demand was satisfied the premium declined from 2 per cent. to  $1\frac{1}{4}$  per cent., which was rather significant evidence that the sudden rise had to do with the "window-dressing" operations of the banks. Since then the premium has dropped to 1 per cent. and under.

What was called a currency premium, however, was not that at all. The premium on currency really meant that the checks of solvent banks were selling at a discount, since the banks themselves were not paying out cash for their customers' checks. The premium has become the most important quotation of the market and its daily fluctuations have been followed with the keenest interest by intelligent students of financial affairs everywhere. When the premium is abandoned altogether there will be genuine rejoicing among those critics who believe that there can be no permanent improvement until currency becomes sufficiently plentiful again to give the banks of the country what they need without bidding a premium for it.

# THE EUROPEAN BUSINESS MAN IN RETIREMENT

BY ANDRÉ TRIDON.

THE excellent article on retiring from business in the United States, by Mr. Marcus M. Marks, which appeared in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS for November, dealt with conditions which, in the main, are peculiar to American life, although, of course, Mr. Marks' general contention holds good the world over.

In Europe the case is somewhat different. The fondest dream of every European mother is to marry off her daughters and to see her sons provided with government positions. When the first of those wishes is left unfulfilled, a convent may conveniently open its doors to the forsaken wallflower. But when the heir either decides to be a free lance or fails to come up to the requirements of a civil-service examination, lamentations are the response of the entire family. As a makeshift, and if the father happens to be a prominent merchant, his son may succeed him in the management of his affairs. To the average European mind, however, nothing is sweeter to think of than a desk and a stool for life in the offices of some public or semi-public organization.

Why should such "dry drudgery at the desk's dead wood," as Lamb puts it, appeal so strongly to Europeans, or, to be more exact, to Continentals, for the British have remained comparatively immune against the civil-service microbe? The answer is: Because of the old-age pension. Almost every one on the Continent who is able, physically and mentally, to pass an examination, may in time become a pensioner, for not only the governments, in most of the European countries, but banks, railroads, large business houses as well, pension off their employees after twenty-five or thirty years of continuous services.

When an American realizes the exact amount of these old-age pensions he may express some surprise. Few are above \$800 a year, and the majority are below \$200. That paltry \$200, however, is a thing perfectly assured, a pittance which cannot possibly fail to be doled out to whomsoever has held a steady position for a quarter of a century or so. This pittance does away with all the worries concerning the future, and the humblest office holder may sleep peacefully,

satisfied that after years of toil he will be able to rest and enjoy life, if life then be granted him.

It is at this point that Anglo-Saxons and Continentals have disagreed radically since the days of the Reformation. Puritanism taught that profitable suffering and work were the foremost accessories of a Christian life, work being not only a necessity but a duty as well. Catholicism, with its Greco-Roman tinge of paganism, has steadfastly refused to forget the carnal deities, and while countenancing suffering of a rather unnatural sort, such as asceticism, has permitted contemplative anchorites to set an example of indifference to strenuousness, an example of blessed idleness. Of course, it will be understood that I do not oppose Catholicism to Protestantism, but to Puritanism, for, although England and North Germany are both Protestant countries, they differ as much on the subject as pre-Shakespearean England differs from the England of, say, George Bernard Shaw.

The result of such widely different teachings is that to Anglo-Saxons work is an end in itself, praiseworthy and even enjoyable. To the Continental it is only a means to an end, the end being an independent life of idleness, or, as we might prefer to put it, elegant leisure. According to Continental views, whoever can secure for himself a daily pittance without toiling for it, ought not to toil, and no credit is given to the wealthy young man intent on increasing his capital by engaging in some trade, nor to the man of fifty or fifty-five who remains at work after amassing a small competence.

Therefore, we meet in every Continental city a large class of idle men, who, having dismissed for the balance of their life the care of money-making, have no ambition beyond that of living and enjoying life. That their enjoyment includes but a meagre dole of life's material comfort is evident, but this gives them a peculiar charm.

There is, however, a real value to the state in their view of life. Many devote themselves to intellectual pursuits which routine work made an impossibility in the preceding years. A large number of interesting works on military matters, science, history, biogra-

phy, and memoirs, are due to the pen of "retraités" from the army or navy, who, owing to the importance the army plays in European life, form a large contingent of the retired class.

Some of the retired Continentals engage in minor political activities. Town councilors are in the majority of cases retired officers or former civil-service men, who, with their indifference to money questions, make perhaps rather poor administrators, but public-spirited and of an unimpeachable character.

The influence of this great leisure class in the shaping of the nation's tastes and ideals is a thing an untraveled Anglo-Saxon can hardly realize. Thanks to this "idle" class, literary and artistic salons after the fashion of the eighteenth century are still a possibility on the Continent of Europe. In the late afternoon the "retraités" gather either around the marble tables of some café and play cards, or preferably meet at the fireside of some hospitable hostess. These men of a mature age, who have ample leisure for thoughts of the past and can observe the present without haste, make the most delightful conversationalists.

The retired army man, to whom a wandering garrison life or cruises on the seven seas have revealed every part of his fatherland and its distant colonies; the clerk, who has scribbled many sonnets on official note paper and is busy publishing them; the financier, who, from the battlefield of the money market, has brought perhaps only his knowledge of human psychology; the college professor, who, forsaking the teaching of one specialty, may look at life from a broader angle, and apply to actual events his critical faculty; the diplomat who has bid an eternal good-bye to lands afar off,—all those men, from whose minds and from whose lives hurry and bustle are definitely exiled, make the European drawing-room an intellectual paradise.

What peerless advisers they become for the young! The Anglo-Saxon grandfather is

generally the exhausted ploughhorse, which pity alone keeps housed and fed in a back stable. He is not and cannot be "up to date." He is rarely exhibited to strangers and his opinions are usually held in scorn. The Continental grandfather, leisurely and serene, is the educator of the young and often the arbiter of the family's destinies. This makes for conservatism. Not infrequently, it must be confessed, it blights useful initiative in the younger generation. But those men who take their time before deciding and acting give the family life a wonderful balance and repose.

The man who, in order to earn the pension granted to employees of twenty-five or thirty years' standing, has been compelled to stick to one line of work, and put up silently with all the little worries of his position, is not likely to yield very often to temporary excitement. The "retraités" are, indeed, to the active business workers of Continental Europe what the Senate is to the Chamber of Representatives.

Much of the quietness, mellowness and unconventionality of European life can be traced to the influence of the care-free, independent, slightly cynical "retraités." And the artistic life of the country cannot but thrive under that influence. What a blessing it is for the actor to play before men who have not come in quest of relaxation, but simply with a desire to give their minds some literary exercise. Painters and novelists have some one to cater to besides prudish old maids, and their art fears not to become a thrall to women's effete taste. Poets find patient listeners to whom no pressing business affords an excuse for hurrying away.

If the European mother's dream of a thirty-year desk servitude for her son explains many of the Continent's shortcomings in the business field, it is also responsible to a large extent for the development of civic cleanliness and of art, refined and manly, among the Latin, Germanic, and Slav nations.



## LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

### THE FIGHT FOR THE FORESTS.

NATIONAL forestry began with Cleveland's administration, when that executive, under authority from Congress, set aside certain forests from the national lands. National forests are farms of wood, of water power, of grazing, all for the public benefit. Waste and permanent injury to the forest cover are the only restrictions. Any man living near a national forest can obtain free all the timber he requires in one year up to the value of \$20. If he requires more than that amount he makes application in due form. Last year 14,000 of these free-use permits were issued. All the timber in a national forest is for sale and at a reasonable price, but only ripe trees are cut, and in such a manner as to protect the young trees from destruction. The work must be undertaken within six months and completed within a specified time, and, wherever necessary, brush and tops must be piled and burned. These provisions prevent "skinning" and the fires that succeed that piratical process, also holding for future speculation.

Lumber companies in California are heavy purchasers of Government timber. One of these tried to grab, then to steal, and finally decided to buy. Another was caught trespassing in the Hell Gate Forest and was mulcted in \$20,000 damages. It paid and immediately bought \$200,000 worth more of the timber it had been stealing, says Mr. Edward Stewart White, in the *American Magazine* for January. Still the country's timber to the extent of four-fifths is in private hands. Receipts from sales rose from \$60,000 in 1905 to \$750,000 in 1906.

Homes may be located, mines exploited, and the grazing industry promoted in the national forests, but "mushroom" settlements to further the land thieves in "skinning" the forests are prohibited. Last year 7,000,000 animals were pastured therein, and the small and local cattleman is given preference to the big raiser who lives farther away. All our irrigation and water projects are dependent on the forest cover, which absorbs the rain and moisture like a sponge, and prevents floods and erosion. Reservoirs, residences, pipe lines, ditches, stores, ware-

houses, wood yards, hotels, electric railroads, livery stables, summer resorts, mining camps, windmills, and even two cemeteries are to be found in these forests.

Not only must they be protected against misuse and trespass, but against their greatest enemy, fire. Last year only one-eighth of 1 per cent. was burned over and only three one-hundredths of 1 per cent. actually destroyed. In all 1100 fires were extinguished by the forest rangers, at a total cost of only \$9000. This alone justifies the existence of the Forest Service. The protective force last summer numbered 1200, giving each man on an average 206 square miles of mountainous wilderness,—that is to say, an area greater than nine Manhattan Islands. He patrols and polices this district, issues permits, builds trails, attends to the business interests and fights fires, in addition to cooking for himself and caring for his animals. For the same area that we have one guardian,—206 square miles,—Prussia employs 120 men, and finds it pays.

Moreover, the Forest Service adds to the nation's wealth, in other ways. It has increased the yield of turpentine 30 per cent. with far less injury to the trees than formerly. It has demonstrated that the "lodgepole pine," considered worse than useless, after a certain treatment makes excellent railroad ties. Western hemlock and Southern gum timber have also been made serviceable by this body. It is now working on other materials than forest woods for paper pulp, and is nurturing a young plantation of willows, to prevent importation of materials for basket-making. The Service has discovered that tannin may be procured from willow bark, which must be of value to the shoe industry. By-products are being utilized that formerly were discarded.

It freely imparts information to the public, and maintains an educational department to inform the people by lectures and publications on forestry matters. Against this excellent service a war has been waged in Congress by the timber interests, who have complained that the forests are "vast and unproductive solitudes," withdrawn from set-

tlement and progress, and that the Forest Service is a resort for "invalids and dudes." Their fight failed last year, but its renewal is expected at the present session. In the interest of the republic and of a branch of the public service than which there is no

better or more deserving, the writer urges every reader to communicate by letter with his Senator and Representative and inform them of his approval of the national forests and request these public servants to stand up and fight for them.

## THE TRUE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE PACIFIC CRUISE.

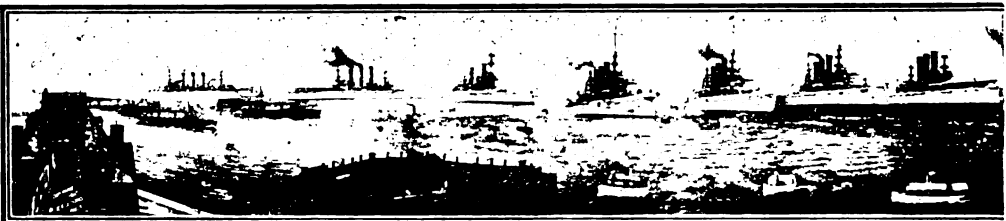
**M**OST interesting and exhaustive, because dignified and logical, is the discussion of Capt. A. T. Mahan, U. S. N., on the projected movement of our battleships to the Pacific, in the *Scientific American* for December. Its effect, however, upon the imagination of several journals, despite its importance and grandeur from a national viewpoint, has been such as to suggest the border line of insanity.

A measure designed to reach a practical solution of one of our most urgent naval problems has been persistently represented as a menace to Japan, and to such an extent that certain of the press of Japan have echoed the cry. This, in a sense, is true of European journals, notably those of Great Britain. The latter, he points out, is singularly inconsistent, in view of the fact that by May, 1908, 86 per cent. of the British battleships will be concentrated in or near home waters, probably in the North Sea, and relatively near to Germany. "We Americans," says he, "are attributing to other peoples a thinness of skin suggestive of an over-sensitiveness in ourselves which it was hoped we had outgrown."

Japan and America both know, says he, that international law or comity has no barrier to a nation's moving its navy from one coast to another; yet, certain of the press in this country would have one think otherwise, and would impute to our own Government motives and purposes which cannot be known, and *prima facie* are less probable than the object officially avowed.

The experience to be gained on this expedition is, in the writer's opinion, a perfectly sufficient reason for its undertaking. It presents huge administrative difficulties, particularly that of self-dependence,—with no navy yard at hand. The renewal of stores and coal on the voyage is a big problem. It is one of combination and of subsistence; a distinctly military problem. To grapple with such a question is as necessary as fleet tactics or target practice. Indeed, in his estimation, the voyage should have been begun earlier. For practice and proficiency it is imperative. The manœuvring of a body of several ships in rapid movement, changing from one position to another, must progress gradually, in order that commanding officers and their understudies may gain, not only ability, but confidence, based upon habit; upon knowledge of what their own ships can do, and what they may expect from the other vessels about them.

Fleet life can only be gained at sea, and the transfer of our ships from the Atlantic to the Pacific is wise and timely, for it is what they would be compelled to do if war were declared against us. They will be enabled to judge of coaling and victualling facilities, more vital than tactics or gunnery to a navy in wartime. The great strategist is ever a great administrator, as, for instance, Lord Nelson. Our captains will be given an opportunity to test their administrative ability. They will learn when to clear a storeship, where to fill with coal, where to take on water, etc. What anchorages are



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THE FLEET OF AMERICAN BATTLESHIPS ASSEMBLED AT

available outside neutral limits? If driven to coal at sea, where will conditions be most propitious? Is the quietness of the Pacific between the equator and Valparaíso, suitable for colliers to lie alongside while the ships hold their course? If so, at what speed can they move?

Our fleet, says the writer, cannot make this voyage once without being better fitted to repeat the operation in war. It will result in that mobility which loses no time because it never misses opportunity. "Such mobility can be acquired only by a familiarity with the ground, and with the methods to

be followed, such as Nelson by personal experience had of the Mediterranean and of the West Indies; of the facilities they offered, and the obstacles they presented. Such knowledge is experimental, gained only by practice. It is demonstrable, therefore, that the proposed voyage is in the highest degree practical; not only advisable, but imperative. Nor should it be a single spasm of action, but a recurrent procedure; for admirals and captains go and come, and their individual experience with them. Why not annual? The Pacific is as good a drill ground as the Atlantic."

## THE POLITICAL CRISIS IN PORTUGAL.

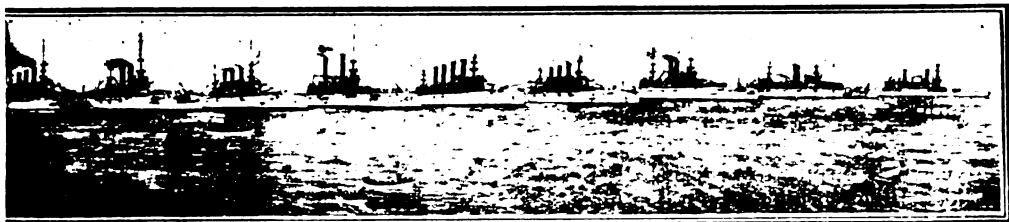
THE cause of Portugal's crises has always been the same. It has always been the result of parliamentary impotence, the consequences of the errors of the two great parties so long in power. From a political point of view,—and at the present time no other point of view would be practical,—according to an article in the *Revue Générale* (Brussels), Portugal's institutions are similar to the institutions of the other constitutional monarchies of the old continent, but the governmental methods are very different, and the executive and legislative powers of Portugal clash more frequently than the corresponding powers of other countries.

Often forced to act without the support of the legislative bodies, the government is accused of making attacks upon the national constitution. To say that the so-called "dictator," Prime Minister João Franco, is more to be blamed than his predecessors, is to ignore contingencies and to deny the present needs of the country. The same men have stood at the head of the government, fighting against the same difficulties with the same weapons more than a quarter of a century. Looking at nothing but the dates of the reinstallations of the prime ministers, it would seem that the rotary system of government, the system of ministerial alterations, might have the advantage of giving a man a long

term of office cut by vacations; but if we count the costs of the sacrifices made to prolong the existence of the cabinets, we see the error of such an opinion. At Lisbon the strongest governmental party suffers as much from the importunities of its friends as from the dissensions provoked by its opponents in Parliament. For example: to satisfy the ambitions of his friends, and to answer to the spite of his enemies, the Progressist Prime Minister changed his officials four times within eight months.

Senhor Franco accepted the King's charge to form a ministry, and within twenty-four hours formed a cabinet of his own associates, a ministry composed of *homines novi* in every sense of the term. "Whatever errors they may develop, they will have no skeletons to confront them when their enemies open the political closets of the past." The press had lauded the old parties too long to give favorable notice to their successor, but the people welcomed the men who ask for nothing but time to show what they can do. The general opinion is that the reformers did not come too soon.

When the deputies and peers came to the King and told him that Franco had cast off his Parliament to satisfy his taste for dictating the King might have said a good deal.



HAMPTON ROADS FOR THE LONG CRUISE TO THE PACIFIC.





KING CARLOS, OF PORTUGAL, ON THE BALCONY OF THE ROYAL PALACE AT LISBON.

Being a man of calm mind he contented himself with the answer: "I note your motion and representations and I shall lay the matter before my ministers." He laid the matter before one minister at least. That was proved a day or two later, when João Franco made a long speech before the Centro Regenerador Liberais, reminding them what his reasons for dissolving the chamber had been:

My dictatorship is administrative, not political. To govern by decree is an affair of transition, a passing thing. Whenever the parties are conscious of their duty and ready to do it Parliament will be open to them. In the meantime I must do the work of reform. I must do my duty. I shall govern over the parties, and, if necessary, against the parties.

The Prime Minister is "solid" with the King, and, as a whole, the nation approves of him. The taxpayers attribute their unprecedented surplus to his excellent financial policy. The working people like him. The old ministries ignored the lower class. Under the new system the workingman is the

object of high governmental attention. The people uphold the government because the government shows solicitude for them. Men who have few party interests stand for the Frankists government and against the conservatism of the ancient parties. The nation also loves the royal family.

"Portugal is in Africa," said a politician, recently, "probably because the wealth of the colonies of Angola, Zambesi, and Mozambique is so great that the main country might well live on what she draws from them."

One thing is sure: If Portugal is an eccentric country from a geographical viewpoint, she is far more like the ultra-Mediterranean countries than like Africa, and if we consider her political events of the last few months she is not far from a footing with the democracies of the world. To quote Lord Salisbury, while conditions are such "no one can class Portugal among the dying nations."

#### The Economic Future of Portugal.

With the Azores and Madeira, Portugal measures approximately 35,500 square miles. Her possessions in Africa and Asia cover 803,000 square miles more. Her land is rich in agricultural resources and in mines, and her geographical situation is such that from the point of view of foreign relations she seems to have been predestined for action as an intermediary between the neighboring and surrounding countries and the new countries of western Africa and South America. "We know that Portugal was for a long time first among the nations, we know what abuses and disorders led to her fall," says a writer in the *Revue pour les Français*. She is now the least of the powers. "She may not have deserved her fate, but however abnormal the consequences of her actions, they have been logical." This writer continues:

As the Portuguese of the past found commerce their easiest and most efficient means of wealth, they ignored the rich possibilities of the land and neglected agriculture as they neglected industry. When, by the double action of their excessive ambitions and the efforts of their rivals, they were so reduced that they had to turn to the native soil for support, they knew so little of work and they had so little agricultural strength, perseverance, and the patience requisite to the farmer's life, that the land gave out poor returns. Generally speaking, when agriculture has been profitable, success has been due to the fact that the farmer has been a foreigner, and the profits have fallen into the foreign pocket.

The population of Portugal increases rapidly, but the people prefer emigration to colonization of their country. The result is that more than half of the arable land lies

waste. The land under cultivation yields little, because all the methods and implements are superannuated. In all that concerns industry, says this writer, further, Portugal's inferiority is unquestionable. Statistics list the working population as 1,000,000, but that enormous figure includes every one who can be classed as a worker, no matter what he does or where he works. The simple day laborer and the man bent over his needle and thread in his own bedroom help to enlarge the list.

Generally speaking, the manufactories and workshops are the private establishments of foreigners. None of the profits fall into the na-

tional treasury. Portugal is rich in minerals, but the land produces no combustibles. There are no coal mines, but all that sort of working material could be easily procured at a low price in Spain or in England. The earth abounds in copper, tin, zinc, antimony, etc. The country has not much money, but it has the equivalents. It could give collateral for any amount of foreign capital. The merchant navy is the least important of the navies of the world: seventy-seven steamboats and 497 sailing vessels, with a total tonnage of 114,000 tons, or a third less than Belgium.

Portugal must make a serious effort. Her condition is not desperate. A little determined application and her land would astonish the world.

## THE FIRST TWO RUSSIAN DUMAS AND THE PROSPECTS OF THE THIRD.

ON the results of the first two years of the Russian Parliament there were many comments in the Russian press. According to an article in the *Tovarishch* the two first Dumas have not brought about any actual results along the lines laid down in the manifesto of October, 1905. There were no positive gains in the radical reconstruction of Russia on new principles. Still, Russia has made some headway. "Arrayed against us," says the writer of the article, A. P. Tolstoi, "was the old rusty and rotten, but deep-rooted mechanism of bureaucratic autocracy; with us we had our incisive forces before and behind us in a 'vulcanized' country."

We wanted too much and gained nothing. But we have learned very valuable lessons and laid the foundations of a new order. To weave it into the texture of Russian life will take many years, but the foundation is there.

Among the several points scored the writer names constitutionalism, which, though not an inseparable part of the Russian Government, has completely captured public opinion down to the bottom. Those who only yesterday would have none of the idea of popular representation, especially of that with legislative power, had to give us the "Statute of the State Duma," and new organic laws.

They had even to submit their law bills to the Duma and answer its interpolations. Again, the representative régime is on the aggressive while its opponents are now on the defense, being compelled to justify their unconstitutional and restorative measures. A number of semi-official organs, headed by the *Rossia*, are a proof that

public opinion has indirectly secured some official recognition of its relative weight. Alongside of the political issues, the social and especially the agrarian problem loomed up in full size, and forced the attention of those who had heretofore lulled themselves with the prospects of the notorious migrations and would not hear of a land famine.

In short, concludes the writer, it is enough to recall our very modest hopes and expectations not only during the dark days of Plehve, but even during the "vernal" days of Svyatopolk-Mirski, in order to realize how much headway we have made during these two years. We are, it is true, in the ebb tide of the social and political movement, but this is a natural reaction against the one-sided high tide after centuries of torpidity.

The symptoms of the healthy trend are seen in the increased demand for culture and all forms of cultural social effort. The growth of trade-unions and co-operative experiments among the toiling masses is another sign. This, in connection with the awakened political consciousness of the people, with a clearer conception of the political questions,—all this together is the desirable form of strengthening the foundation of the new order of things. A deeper conscious attitude toward the conditions confronting the people, and the habit of persistently day by day battling in united effort for achieving their ends, will prevent the former danger of the movement's dwindling to one-sided puny attempts without political perspective.

Altogether, development of the situation during these two years is the natural and characteristic appearance of the "Black

Hundred "forces, recruited from the bottom and upper strata.

This was, of course, a natural effect of the progressive onslaught, and this reaction is quite handy for the reigning dynasty, which means to yield as little as possible to the new régime. But the "Black Hundreds," on closer inspection, can hardly be regarded as a safe mainstay of the government, as they come from the moribund layers of the people, doomed by history. In this respect the new election law of June 3 is too flagrantly contradictory to real conditions, and we need not, therefore, fear that such parliamentary representation will last a long time. Besides, these reactionary forces, once awakened, will not be content with simply upholding somebody, but will assume the rôle of power that can dictate its will, and this must precipitate a conflict between them and the ruling bureaucracy.

This is beginning to show itself in the relations between the "League of the Russian People" and the government,—relations that bear the character of authoritative claims. The bureaucracy, in so far as it will give a setback to these reactionary appetites, will subject these reactionary elements to a searching examination as to whether they have strength of their own, or whether it is confined to mere impudent fire-work and governmental favor. In so far, then, as these elements will fail to pass their examination, "they will have their weakness exposed and will, of course, prove a very poor mainstay for a reactionary régime."

#### What of the Third Duma?

In an editorial review in a recent issue of the monthly magazine *Vyestnik Yevropy* (St. Petersburg), edited by M. Stasyulevich, the following comments on the situation in Russia are noteworthy:

Only two years have passed since the historic day when the Manifesto of October, 1905, was issued. What has become of the sentiment which had taken hold of the whole Russian society? What has become of all the hopes of a regeneration of the economic strength of the peasantry which had reached the state of desperation? Where are the dreams of a condition of life under legal rights, of a participation in the legislation of the best representatives of the people freely elected by the people, of new laws and of an emancipation from the arbitrariness of a corrupt bureaucracy? All this is far, far behind us. All this has already become the subject matter of memoirs and reminiscences.

On October 17, 1907, two years later, this editor points out, St. Petersburg and Moscow elected representatives to the third Duma on the basis of the election law of June 3, and here is the situation:

This law has prevented the mass of the people



NICHOLAS KOMIAKOV.

(President of the Third Duma.)

from effectively expressing their will. The privileged minority, with the help of the reactionary administration, have elected the majority of the members of the Duma. Freedom of speech, of assembly, of association, and of personal inviolability exist only for the "yellow shirt" hoodlums, for the "Archbishop's fusion" of Minsk, for the conventions of the nobility and of the new type of Zemstvoists, for the anti-Semitic press, for the demonstrations of "the league of the Russian people," and for the propaganda of the absurd assertion that the defense of the principles of the manifesto is a criminal act incurring the death penalty.

The cause of this new departure, we are told, lies not only in the unstable policy of the government, but also in the excesses of the extremists of the radicals which have called forth excesses on the part of the government to such an extent that it seems to have given up entirely the idea of popular representation in the Duma.

The question of the real character of the present form of government in Russia was recently discussed among representatives of the administration. In one of the conferences of the St. Petersburg municipality, under the chairmanship of the city governor, the majority of the members of the administration came to the formal conclusion that a constitution really exists in Russia.

The governor, however, protested and declared categorically that there is no constitution whatever, and that the Czar remains what he

has been,—an autocratic monarch. The Prime Minister, Stolypin, found the protest of the governor justified, and presented the case to the decision of the first department of the Senate. From this moment a condition is created, for the Senate, which has no equal since the time of

Peter the Great, is to decide the question who is right,—whether the government officials, who acknowledge the Russian monarch who calls himself an autocrat to be a constitutional monarch, or the governor, who categorically does not acknowledge the constitution.

## TWO CENTERS OF REAL MUNICIPALIZATION.

**U**P in the Province of Ontario, with Lake Superior on one hand and an unbroken wilderness on the other, lie two obscure and relatively insignificant cities on the shores of Thunder Bay, named, respectively, Fort William and Port Arthur. Thirty thousand souls are their joint boast, but honesty and morality in municipal administration are more noticeable than in the teeming marts of men that count their inhabitants by the millions. Street-cars are run and conducted by police officers,—because all motormen and conductors are policemen; and these, in addition, act as parcel-carriers occasionally, for along their route,—so honest is every one,—residents leave packages on the roadside for these officials to take down town.

Three years ago each city had a population of 6000. Their joint increase to 30,000 gives them the distinction of being the most rapidly growing communities in the world. There is not a franchise in either city that is not owned by the people, except the Bell telephone, and as only one of these instruments is installed in every eight telephones in use the cessation of the company is only a matter of time. The people of Fort William own their electric light and telephone systems, their water-works, a municipal theater, and a city dance hall. Port Arthur owns the electric railway in both towns, its own electric light and telephone systems, its water-works, and 1500

acres of valuable land fringing Thunder Bay, which means about one-half acre for every taxpayer in the city. Fort William, in the Kakabeka Falls, has a source of water-power that could suffice for a city as large as Chicago.

The "Twin Cities," as these small but progressive communities are styled, aim for perfection. They have killed municipal politics and its graft and dishonesty. There are no party lines therein, and a candidate who would seek office along party lines would destroy the last vestige of hope for success. To be elected to office is an honor and a demonstration of civic confidence in one's honesty and integrity. Mayors and aldermen serve without compensation, and any taxpayer may run for office if he appears on a certain day, announces his candidacy, and is "supported" by one other city voter. On election day all the names appear on a single slip of paper. From the aldermanic



THE HOSPITAL CONDUCTED BY THE CITY OF FORT WILLIAM, CANADA.  
(Doctors' bills and attendance charges at this institution are included in the patients' city taxes.)

candidates the voter may select eight names. There is no division by wards, or the like; the whole town elects each representative.

To serve the city well is an advertisement; to have served it unwisely is "misjudgment," perhaps excusable; to have served it wrongly is a perpetual discredit. Thus is the moral tone uplifted. The newspapers of both cities are owned by the municipalities and are the preachers of integrity and honest ambition. They are neither lurid nor purchasable. But the citizens have carried matters too far, says Mr. J. O. Curwood, in the November *Reader*. They have chosen splendid citizens to superintend works of which they have absolutely no technical knowledge. The man, rather than his particular ability, has been magnified. This difficulty they will overcome, doubtless. Their street-car service is respectable, their buildings substantial, their streets serviceable, and their theater modern in every way, seating 800 people, and paying 6 per cent. on the investment. All plays are under the censorship of the city, and some expect that the day will soon dawn when the towns will be taxless, while others go further and declare their belief in a future which will see the citizens receiving dividends!

The net profit of Port Arthur's street

railway during the last four years equals one-fifth of the total cost of the road. From its beginning it has netted the city a total profit of \$90,898.38, and its franchise is estimated at \$1,000,000,—for a nine-mile railway! All that the "Twin Cities" have accomplished was not won without molestation from corporation "pirates," who foresaw wisely the possibilities of the future. Telephone tolls are \$12 a year for residence 'phones and \$24 a year for commercial service. These charges earn money for the city, Fort William's profits for four years being \$3,525, and Port Arthur's \$5,239. The writer attributes the remarkable success of these towns to the direct and personal interest of their citizens, who feel that in every public undertaking they are working for themselves. Fort William is now expending \$350,000 on a gravity system of water supply, which will be one of the finest and cheapest in America when completed.

In these remote little centers of population, destined, as the writer believes, to be the doorways of Greater Canada, municipal ownership has reached its greatest development on the American continent, and has wrestled with the problem of "city-owned cities" in a manner unparalleled in American history.

## THE QUESTION OF FUEL WASTE.

CERTAIN portions of Mr. Cochrane's paper in the September REVIEW entitled "How Long Will Our Coal Supply Last?" have apparently stimulated interest in the fuel problem, especially among engineers. Mr. F. R. Wadleigh, a coal expert of Norfolk, Va., writing to the *Black Diamond*, of Chicago, says:

In the last fifty years the best engineering talent of the world has devoted its time and thought to reducing the waste of fuel in generating steam and to developing the more economical use of the steam in the engine.

That this work has been in a large measure successful is shown by the fact that about five times as much work is done now with a like amount of coal as was done fifty years ago. The pounds of steam used per indicated horsepower per hour have been actually brought down from thirty-three and over in the simple non-condensing engine to as low as twelve in the compound-condensing engine. The New-comen engine took twenty-six and six-tenths pounds per horsepower, while a modern, up-to-date plant will not take over one and five-tenths pounds, or, on tests, even less.

This writer believes that not more than 25 per cent. of the coal seams are now left underground as a permanent loss. However, in estimates of unmined coal allowance is always made for this loss.

As to the waste of energy in the ordinary steam boiler, Mr. Wadleigh believes that it will average not more than 40 per cent. Under favorable conditions, boiler efficiencies, on recorded tests, have reached 86 per cent. The main loss is not in the burning of the coal, but in the transmission of the steam from the boiler to the point where it performs its work.

Mr. Wadleigh maintains, in conclusion, that a great waste of coal might be saved by improved methods of firing and stoking. Firemen should have instruction.

Improved furnaces will not show results unless properly handled. You must train your men to use them intelligently. The average fireman knows nothing about combustion and is told very little. He is very poorly paid, considering the importance of his work.

## DEATH AND DISABILITY ROLL OF OUR RAILWAY EMPLOYEES.

**TERRIBLE** is the indictment against the inhumanity of our railroad service furnished in the death and disability roll of its employees. Railroad officials admit that many of these casualties are unnecessary, but the indifference of the press and public to the prevalence of this slaughter for many years, has developed an almost general belief that it is their vested right to maim and kill those who care for the transportation service of the country. Forceful legislation is needed to give them an enlarged perspective, and to impress on them the enormity, the brutality, of such a state of affairs.

Owing to the isolated nature of these casualties they pass unnoticed by the general reader, but in the aggregate they are simply appalling. For the year ending June 30, 1906, 3807 railroad employees were killed and 55,254 injured, while in the performance of their duties. Compared with the fatalities of any great battle, our industrial slaughter completely overshadows it. These injuries and deaths arise from many causes, of which practical railway employees are fully cognizant.

The track is the first important feature that is neglected. The 100-pound rail has been in use for many years, and ties of an ancient standard. Engines, cars and train tons have increased almost double since the rails and ties aforementioned were adopted, and the speed of our "limiteds" has been greatly accelerated, with few additional precautions for safety. On one of the Pacific Coast roads there have been twenty-five serious wrecks since January 1, 1907, and these have been attributed to over-worked crews and defective equipment in rolling stock or track.

"The open statement was made," says Mr. D. L. Cease, editor of *The Railroad Trainmen's Journal*, in *Charities and The Commons* for December, "that the heaviest tourist business in the United States is being done over a track that is absolutely rotten, that spikes may be pulled out by the fingers, and that ties are so far gone that tie plates are buried in them to the depth of an inch or more."

Track maintenance appears to be a lost art. Inspectors who do not inspect are many, and the section foreman on some roads has no longer the right to condemn

defective ties. Miles of track are patrolled by a foreman and one man, and many more miles are left without supervision of any kind, at a period when the heaviest freight and passenger business the country has ever known is being recorded. The tracks are the same to-day as they were when equipment was lighter and speed less. In addition, steel rails, it has been asserted, are frequently defective when laid. What are we going to do about this calamitous situation?

As long as the death and disability list was more closely confined to the railway employees, the public did not give much heed to the dangers of the service. But contempt for danger as it applied to the employees has been lost by the gradual creeping in of greater danger to the passenger. He is commencing to sit up and take notice of it.

Government interference promises to be the only solution. Moreover, rules and practices in train operation are faulty and confusing, and there are not sufficient employees to properly inspect engines, cars, and track. Railroad economy has been reduced to a dangerous science. Freight trains are notoriously short-handed. Sometimes there are but two men to a freight train almost a mile in length, one to do the work, and the other to hold the flag. How can efficient service be rendered under these circumstances? Again, men are started out on long trips that will consume twenty-four hours or more. Neurologists declare that such practices tend to brain strain, epilepsy, and nervous prostration.

European railroads employ three times as many men as our own roads, and they are reasonably safe. In this country, increased cost of operation invariably leads to a reduction in the operating force. It is the fault of the financial system, that looks for dividends first, that has led to these results, and some of the money that has come to the railroads, as the reward of their greed and the price of human life and suffering, they should be compelled to expend in the installation of a block-signal system, the employment of more men for engine and train service, for track and equipment inspection, and in the retention of practical men. If this were done, much good would be accomplished and sacrifice averted. To such ends the people should address themselves.

## WHEN MISSOURI OWNED THE RAILWAYS.

**A**BOUT forty years ago the State of Missouri tried its hand at railroad ownership and found the experiment costly. The net loss was about \$15,000,000. The Governor was the manager, establishing rates, running trains, maintaining tracks, and even adding betterments to the property. He kept the balance on the right side of the ledger. Nevertheless, he reported to the Legislature that "the paramount want" was completed railroads. Hence the State disposed of its railroads, retaining its power to regulate. An account of the undertaking is given by Mr. Walter B. Stevens in *Appleton's Magazine* for January.

Owing to the presence of 2000 steamboats at the St. Louis docks, Missouri was slow to build railroads, and not until 1851 was the first railroad out of St. Louis constructed. Prior to the Civil War railroad charters enabled the carriers to fix their own freight and passenger tolls, but this was changed by legislation after 1865. State aid began in 1851. Bills were passed authorizing State bond issues to guarantee railroad construction, the condition being that each railroad had to put up \$50,000 of its own bonds for each grant of \$50,000 bonds by the State. In 1855 the free trial of this policy led to the discovery that the State had authorized the issue of \$9,000,000 of bonds, that the building of the roads was progressing slowly, that the cost was twice or thrice the original estimates, and that the bonds were below par and selling at a discount.

Strange as it may seem, even after this unfavorable showing, the railroad companies obtained from the Legislature an additional \$10,000,000 in bonds, this time putting up \$1 of their own money to \$2 of the State's.

In 1861, the results of ten years' policy of State aid to the roads showed as follows:

Pacific Railroad.....	\$7,000,000
Southwest Branch.....	4,500,000
Iron Mountain.....	3,501,000
Cairo & Fulton.....	650,000
Platte County.....	700,000
North Missouri.....	4,350,000
Total.....	\$20,701,000

Not one of these roads was complete. Following the war, in response to popular sentiment for a railroad across the State, these railroads were taken over by the latter. Only the Southwest Branch, now a part of the main stem of the 'Frisco system, was operated by the State, under Gen. Clinton B. Fisk, for about six months, with an entirely creditable showing. It was then turned over to a company which guaranteed extension. Although all the other roads virtually belonged to the State by virtue of long existing default on the bonds which the State had issued to aid construction, not even a minority sentiment favored the suggestion that they should be operated by the State.

Eventually the roads were foreclosed and sold to companies who undertook to guarantee their completion, subject to the right of the State to regulate freight and passenger charges. To the wisdom of Governor Fletcher must this reservation be attributed, and he also endeavored to make the State a sharer in the profits of the roads, but the Legislature ignored his suggestion. In 1865, when the Fletcher administration entered upon the solution of Missouri's railroad problem, there were 826 miles of road in the State. In 1868, when the last foreclosure and sale were completed, there were 1394 miles. These roads are to-day the main stems of 7000 miles of railroad, valued at \$350,000,000, within the limits of the State.

## THE FUTURE OF OUR NAVIGABLE WATERS.

**R**IVER and harbor improvement is reaching a critical stage in the United States. In many sections public agitation has been started in aid of the internal waterway movement, and last month the National Rivers and Harbors Congress met at Washington to impress on our Washington Legislators the urgent necessity for more liberal appropriations for waterway improvement. Commercial and non-commercial advocates alike are interested in this project. Water

routes at one time were the only commercial highways of the nation. The railway's advent altered this, however, and the Civil War had much to do with the abandonment of canals in the North, through forcing it to extend its railroads to move the crops to the Eastern seaboard instead of by the usual route down the Mississippi Valley.

Before the war our Western rivers had been snag-infested and bar-obstructed, and after the struggle they were in worse condi-



tion. Railway rates were lower than steamboat rates had been. Extravagance had departed, and there was no longer any inducement to keep steamboats in operation. The mouth of the Mississippi was blocked by bars, while New York was open to deep and cheap-carrying steamships. Hence, river trade fell away and lagging Government improvement was never sufficient to produce a channel to offset these handicaps. So, writes Mr. John L. Mathews, in the *Atlantic Monthly* for December.

In a region extending from the Alleghenies to the Rockies, in which there are 20,000 miles of river navigable, or susceptible of navigation, there is but one profitable and significant movement of cargo,—that of coal from the Ohio to New Orleans. With the railroads unable to do the work imposed on them, in consequence of the tremendous industrial activity and commercial expansion of the country, the river problem is given a new stimulus. The section particularly affected by this transportation shortcoming is the Mississippi Valley. Under existing conditions it can neither get its products to seaboard at reasonable rates, consistent with speedy carriage, nor obtain from seaboard imports which are necessary.

Pittsburg, notable for its coal, iron, and steel tonnage; Chicago, the principal depot of the lakes, a manufacturing city of high rank, and the greatest railway aggregating center in the world; Minneapolis and St. Paul, the chief flouring cities of the nation and the collecting and distributing foci for the North and for the newer Canada; Kansas City, St. Joseph, Omaha, and Sioux City, the hoppers for the grain harvest of the West and Northwest; and St. Louis, a progressive city of large and growing manufacturing interests and a jobbing center of national importance, are the chief cities into which pours the golden flood from our harvest fields; coal from our mines; iron and steel from our foundries, endless loads of manufactured and natural food products,—to stagnate in congested freight yards; for so overburdened are the railroads a loaded car moves now but an average of twenty-five miles a day.

Each of these cities lies at the head of one of the main divisions of the Mississippi system. It is reasonable, therefore, for the people, in view of the circumstances aforementioned, to demand the transformation of these great arteries into proper traffic highways. There has never been a department

provided to supervise river or harbor construction work, and this has been responsible in large measure for the non-utilization of our navigable waters. Military engineers have been requested to supervise the construction along these lines in recent years; but this practice of employing civic appropriations for commercial purposes under the control of military direction, says the writer, "is really the fundamental fault." By training and inclination West Pointers have no leaning toward trade and no experience in business, and are unfitted for work of this kind. The result has been to establish a mode rather than a system of procedure, through the co-operation between the War Department and Congress. Reports from military engineers on trade conditions never consider the real problems of the river valley, and are "rough guesses." Consequently, Congressional appropriations are ever inadequate.

From this mode of procedure we had (1) no large outlook on rivers and harbors, and consequently no connection between any two projects; and (2) no one whose business it is to enter into and carry out projects for waterway development, or who is certain of money to do so. The Roosevelt Waterways Commission is a remedy for the first, and, for the second, the slackwatering plan for the Ohio, adopted by Congress in 1875 on the reports of Majors Merrill and Weitzel. Although their recommendations were approved, and four years were estimated for the completion of the work outlined, it has not been completed to date, nor probably will be in the next twenty years if the methods herein are not changed. "At present," says this writer, "the Ohio has been surveyed for a nine-foot slackwater channel and it is estimated that \$63,000 will be needed to complete it to Cairo; but at the present rate of operations it will require about 150 years to attain that end."

The Chicago trunk line, which formerly earned \$300,000 a year in tolls, now lies idle, a shallow canal, outgrown by trade, connecting the Illinois with Lake Michigan. The Illinois has seven feet of water, the Mississippi above St. Louis five or six. Chicago is advancing its drainage canal toward Lake Joliet, having spent \$50,000,000 to carry and deepen this waterway twenty-two feet to the Illinois, and leaving but \$28,000,000 for Congress to spend to carry it to St. Louis with a fourteen-foot depth, which the latter abstains from doing. An expert commission

in 1884 took hold of the lower Missouri problem and established that it could be made to carry a six-foot channel from Omaha and, probably, from Sioux City to its mouth, even at low water. After doing this and opening the river to six-foot boats for 275 miles from its mouth it was abolished.

Similarly did Congress fail to back up the report of the Mississippi River Commission, which demonstrated that by means of revetment and contraction a ten-foot channel from Cairo to the sea, permanent and safe, could be kept open all the year around. Not until St. Louis is made the head of the river trunk will the river below or above Cairo attain the trade it should carry, or the Chicago route, the Upper Mississippi or the Missouri begin to carry the trade to which each is entitled. Our river system is confusion and—chaos. This condition implies an enormous economic waste.

Slackwatering a river produces a large electric power. By selling this power money can be procured for river improvements. Congress faces this discovery to-day, but is too overworked to deal with it. What we need, therefore, says this writer, is a trained body to consider our waterway problem and plan for its systematic development, a body like that suggested by the Cullom-Breckenridge bill of twenty years ago. Add to this a department of utilization to acquaint rivermen and merchants, says he, in the use of shallow and deep draft streams, and, in time, we shall have deep water in all our seaboard harbors and rivers, fourteen feet from the Lakes to the Gulf, nine feet to Pittsburg, six to Minneapolis, and six to Sioux City, and a swiftly evolving, comprehensive, natural system of routes, alive from year's end to year's end; with fleets of barges driven cheaply, and without undue risk, by economically designed power-boats.

## A GERMAN ECONOMIST ON OUR FINANCIAL CRISIS.

PROFESSOR LEXIS, one of the most eminent of German economists, makes the American banking and currency crisis the occasion of an article in the *Woche* (Berlin,) in which he deals with it as part of a world-wide phenomenon which was manifested in its greatest intensity in this country. It is noteworthy that, like other authorities of corresponding rank in France and England, Professor Lexis discusses the developments that have taken place as a result of strictly economic causes, apparently ascribing no importance to the political factors,—such as the course of President Roosevelt, whose name is not even mentioned in the article,—to which some of our journalists are fond of ascribing the catastrophe. Coming to the analysis of the New York crisis, Professor Lexis says:

The fact must always be borne in mind that the money stringency of the past twelvemonth, in America as well as in Europe, is based, in the last analysis, upon a relative scarcity, not of ready money, but of money-capital, which is, in the main, represented otherwise than by ready money. A draft, for example, that a manufacturer or merchant has drawn, based upon a sale of goods, truly represents money-capital, even if its amount has not been transformed, through the process of discounting and endorsements, into a bank deposit. The stringency arose simply from the circumstance that the demand for money-capital increased more rapidly than the creation of such capital, which can really be created only by a surplus of income. That in-

creased demand was occasioned partly by the swift expansion of production, but partly also by the gigantic speculations in stocks and commodities. Momentarily the exigency was met by drawing upon the future, without a real foundation. If, for instance, uncovered bank notes are loaned on hypothecated securities, no new capital is formed thereby, but the price of materials and means of production and the rate of wages are raised by this artificial increase of purchasing power. Through this and the simultaneous increase of the rate of interest, the exaggerated expectations of profit from the newly invested capital are disappointed, the economic advance comes to a standstill, and, generally, the crisis then first assumes the shape of 'change of a sudden fall of speculative stocks.

Tracing the cause of the scarcity of money from the time of the San Francisco catastrophe, this writer says:

The railroads made increasing demands which were not satisfied; they turned toward Europe. The consequent outflow of money from there was stemmed in 1906 by the action of the Bank of England and the German Reichsbank in raising the rate of discount; the railroads continued, however, to solicit gold upon hard conditions, and it appears, furthermore, that they placed great quantities of their notes with the American trust companies. In the meantime a daring game with railway stocks held sway on the New York 'Change, culminating in a crash in the middle of March, 1907. This crisis reacted severely upon the Berlin bourse also. In Germany the industrial development had likewise been extraordinarily auspicious during the last few years, but here, too, with the close of the year

1905, a disparity became apparent between the demand for and the creation of capital, evidenced by the 6 per cent. rate of discount of the Reichsbank. Industrial conditions continued, it is true, entirely satisfactory throughout 1906; yet a vague feeling grew more and more widespread that the meridian had been passed. Under the pressure of the high rate of interest prices of securities began to decline very markedly from the opening of the year 1907. Owing to the New York crisis this retrograde movement was changed into a sudden fall on the 14th of March, and since then a depression, with a greater or less money stringency, has continued in which the prices of all securities have come within dangerous proximity to the critical situation of 1901. The condition of the

banks has deteriorated through the depreciation of their assets; industrial activity has, on the whole, not been impaired, but fears are entertained of a future decline of orders. The check upon speculation by the withdrawal of credit on the part of the banks cannot fail to have a salutary effect through promoting a restoration of normal conditions in regard to capital; and they likewise appear, fortunately, to have kept aloof from co-operating to satisfy the American money exigency.

It is a gratifying fact, concludes Professor Lexis, that the latest American crisis, which occurred on the 19th of October, exerted no material influence upon the Berlin bourse.

## HAVE WE BEEN UNFAIR TO GERMAN COMMERCE?

GERMAN opinion, as expressed in the newspaper press and the more deliberate monthly and weekly periodicals of the Kaiser's empire, on the commercial relations between Germany and the United States, indicates a growing dissatisfaction with what is frequently referred to as American "unfairness." The Germans are insisting that "In making a bargain the fault of (the Americans as well as) the Dutch, is giving too little and asking too much."

A representative article expressing this opinion is contributed to the *Deutsche Vorkämpfer*, the monthly published in New York City "devoted to the mutual interests of the United States and Germany," by Dr. Ludwig Max Goldberger, Privy Councilor and member of the Imperial Commission for Commercial Treaties, and author of the now celebrated work, "The Land of Unlimited Possibilities." Dr. Goldberger reviews in detail the history of the various agreements and compromises between Germany and this country which have marked the trade relations of the two peoples during the past year. This history has been recounted and commented upon a number of times in this REVIEW.

"Through it all," says Dr. Goldberger, "a cheerful and persistent determination to maintain the friendly character of the German-American relations was exhibited by the German Government and people." This attitude, the German writer asserts, has not been maintained by the other side to the bargain. He boldly asserts: "It is high time to abolish the one-sidedness in German-American relations that has heretofore prevailed."

There is little fairness in the present condition of things. The new compact on which both parties agreed, does no more than lessen the tension. This was the view held by the members of the North Commission who had the courage to announce their conversion to it in their own country. Their example should spur on the leading persons and corporations throughout the whole wide realm of the United States to enter upon the path of fairness. It can only be to the credit and the honor of the American nation, if it pursues a course upon which the confidence of the friendly German nation can follow it. The advantages, in regard to tariff, which the German-American agreement secures to us, are trifling. The sum which is thus saved by Germany on her exports to America each year, according to American statistics, is \$208,168. The advantages which our lower tariff on imports from America insures to that country result in the saving of \$6,664,000 annually. Of American imports into Germany 96.7 per cent. by the provisions of the new agreement are free of duty or are favored by the imposition of the very lowest tariff. Only 1.4 per cent. of the German exports to America are allowed to partake of the concessions granted by the agreement of 1906.

It is only by considering the number of German concessions to America, this writer continues, that the disproportion between the mutual concessions of the two countries can be comprehended.

It is quite conceivable that those in America who are averse to the agreement and oppose any commercial compact with Germany can, even on the ground of the present one-sided arrangement, find occasion to arouse the suspicions of the American people, as if under the latest agreement advantages had been secured by Germany which the members of the North Commission had failed to detect, and would have been unwilling to concede. Even under the influence of these prejudiced representatives and falsifications, however, it was impossible to secure fairness for Germany. The benefit of the new agreement to Germany does not lie in the de-

partment of tariff concessions, but in the obtaining of a long desired change in the principles upon which the United States consuls were instructed in matters pertaining to differences arising from technical questions regarding the applying of custom laws, in the concession that agents sent from the United States to Germany must be "personae gratæ"; in that the certificates from the German chambers of commerce must be accepted as sufficient proofs, and finally, in the new rules for the practical working of the customs administration.

This certificate supplied by the German chambers of commerce Dr. Goldberger regards as of great weight. He does not believe that American business men or officials understand the value of it, since they perhaps do not appreciate the conservative official character of chambers of commerce in the Fatherland, and their fairness and integrity. Dr. Goldberger further admits the value of the concessions made to Germany. He says complimentary things about the North Commission, which, it will be remembered, went to Germany some months ago to look into the whole matter of mutual commercial relations, and some uncomplimentary things about the selfishness of some protected American business interests. He then refers approvingly to the appointment of the later commission, headed by Mr. James E. Reynolds. This Export Commission, however, he says, is only a "pacifying concession to the movement against the

treaty." Referring to Mr. Reynolds's assurance that "to the honest exporter, no matter whether he sends us his wares from Germany or from any other lands, we extend a helping hand and strive to remove every technical obstacle from his path," Dr. Goldberger says:

These are good and fitting words. We have nothing to conceal, and we throw wide our doors to welcome the American commission. We ourselves desire to reach the object for which Mr. Reynolds declares that he and all other Americans are striving. We have no sympathy with fraudulent practices, on whichever side they manifest themselves, and we are as unwilling to be cheated by a fellow countryman as by the member of another nation. We are also fully convinced that the honest merchant should be protected against the fraudulent. But this protection does not consist in the setting of snares or digging of pitfalls. We have already met with many disappointing surprises after concluding commercial treaties with Russia and other countries in our efforts to give our resolutions full effect. These disappointments were generally atoned for by a friendly reconciliation. But this has not always been the case in our commercial dealings with America.

The reasons for this, the German writer contends, is the fact that "for twenty years past our trade arrangements with America have been merely of a provisional character." He insists that some permanent, reasonable, and just arrangement must be made immediately if the friendly commercial relations between the two peoples are to be maintained.

## INDUSTRIAL PEACE LEGISLATION IN CANADA.

CANADA'S legislative measure known as "The Industrial Disputes Investigation Act, 1907," is one of the most important ever enacted in the Dominion. It became effective on March 23, 1907, and was largely the outcome of the serious dispute in connection with the coal mines at Lethbridge in Western Canada. This dispute kept the mines closed for nine months, with all the attendant ills of industrial war, and contributed to bring about a fuel famine in Saskatchewan and Alberta during the most inclement season of the year. This painful experience impressed the government with the necessity for legislation which would provide machinery for the adjustment of industrial disputes, and prevent, if possible, a recurrence of strikes and lockouts in connection with mines and public utility industries until at least such an adjustment had been attempted.

Investigation led to the belief that if the parties to a dispute could be brought together and given an opportunity to frankly discuss their troubles, an agreement would be arrived at. To secure this conference and result the act aforementioned was passed. Under this law, it is illegal to resort to a strike or lock-out until the dispute has been made the subject of inquiry before a board of conciliation and investigation to be established by the Minister of Labor. This is binding alike on employer and employee, and the procedure that either must follow is definitely set forth.

When a dispute arises in an industry identified with a public utility, either party thereto may send to the registrar of boards of conciliation and investigation an application for the appointment of such a board. That official at once brings this request to the attention of the Minister of Labor. The application must contain (1) the parties to the

dispute; (2) its nature and cause, and the claims and demands to which exception is taken by either party; (3) an approximate estimate of the number of persons affected (because ten employees must be affected in order to give the board jurisdiction); and (4) the efforts made toward adjustment. The application must be accompanied by a statutory declaration that failing an adjustment, or reference, a lockout or strike will be declared, and that the necessary authority for that purpose has been obtained. A copy of the application must be sent to the other party coincident with its transmission to the registrar, and the other party must prepare a reply and serve a copy on the applicant in like manner.

Within fifteen days of receipt of application the Minister appoints the board, consisting of three members, to which are added two others, chosen, respectively, by the employer and employees. These two select a third, who acts as chairman, and failing to do so within five days the Minister appoints him. The board is sworn, equipped with all necessary assistance, and when constituted is invested with all the powers of a court of justice. The proceedings may be public or private, as may be deemed expedient, and competent experts or assessors may be engaged by the board. The parties to the dispute may be represented each by three, or less, persons, or by counsel with the consent of the board. During the conference the board may do whatever it deems proper to induce a settlement, and may dismiss any matter which it considers frivolous or trivial.

"If a settlement is effected, a memorandum of the terms is drawn up," says Mr. John King, K. C., in the *Green Bag* for December, "by the board and signed by the parties, and shall, if so agreed, be binding as if made a recommendation of the board under the act." A copy of the memorandum with the report is then forwarded to the Minister. If a settlement is not reached, the board reports fully to the Minister the whole proceedings, findings, recommendations, etc. Although the board's findings are not *per se* binding, by mutual agreement the award may be made a rule of court and binding as if made pursuant to a reference to arbitration on the order of a court of record.

The first board established was in connection with the Western Coal Operators' Association in British Columbia, and affected between 3000 and 4000 employees. An effective settlement for two years was reached. Another was between the Grand Trunk Railway and its machinists, when all disputed points were adjusted. Others invoking this law were the Cumberland Railway, Canadian Pacific Railway, Halifax Longshoremen, Intercolonial Railway of Halifax, and the Montreal Cotton Company. Several important mining companies also had recourse to this law.

Although in force only seven months, twenty-one applications have been received for boards of conciliation and investigation. Eleven have been satisfactorily ended, three others were settled without a board, and in the others the proceedings had not been terminated at the time of writing.

## EUROPE'S GUARANTEE OF NORWAY'S NEUTRALITY.

WHEN Norway separated from Sweden, two years ago, certain international agreements affecting not only Norway herself, but also vitally concerning the balance of power in Europe, were rendered ineffective. The existence of one of these agreements first became public knowledge when a treaty to take its place was signed.

With regard to this treaty, concluded between the four great powers, England, France, Germany, and Russia, with a view of safeguarding the integrity of Norway, which came into existence only two years ago, there prevails as yet some confusion, for the text of the treaty has, thus far, not been published, nor has any reliable account of its

contents appeared. Nevertheless, it is certain that the four powers mentioned have agreed to respect the integrity of Norway. There seems to be no question of any "guarantee" on the part of these powers, and when this point is brought out, authoritatively, the unpleasant sentiment which has manifested itself in Sweden on account of the agreement will gradually give room to a calmer judgment.

On November 2 last (October 20, Russian style), two treaties were signed, according to the *Frankfurter Zeitung*, in the Foreign Department at Christiania. One of these, which is termed a "declaration," and concerns the abrogation of a treaty of No-

vember 21, 1855, is made between Norway, Great Britain and France, while the other,—a treaty in regard to the integrity of Norway,—has the signatures of the Norwegian Minister of Foreign Affairs and of the representatives of Great Britain, France, Russia and Germany.

The treaty of November 21, 1855, was principally directed against Russia, inasmuch as the King of Sweden and Norway agreed not to permit the cession to Russia of any territory belonging to either of the two countries aforesaid, nor to suffer the occupation by Russia thereof. Furthermore, this treaty provided, that if Russia insisted on securing any of the several privileges mentioned in the document, the King of Sweden should notify the Queen of England and the Emperor of France thereof, in order to procure from the latter "sufficient naval and military forces" for co-operation with the King's own forces in resisting the advances or claims of Russia.

This treaty, of course, became invalid through the separation between Sweden and Norway, and it could have been annulled two years ago, had it not been for a desire in Norway, and also in England, to reaffirm, in some other manner, the main purpose of the agreement.

The prospect of Russia acquiring a naval basis on the coast in the Far North has always given the English a great deal of anxiety, and particularly during the last few decades. Although the British apprehension in this regard has been declared without foundation in Russian quarters, yet an impartial observer will readily infer that the Russian statesmen, who have brought their country's domain as far as Port Arthur, and who would not balk at the idea of seizing Korea, might also get a notion of obtaining a Russian naval station on the Norwegian coast. Such plans, ought, however, now to have been abolished, once for all, through the recognition, even by Russia, of the integrity of Norway. On the other hand, if Russia could persuade Norway to cede a harbor "in pact" for ninety-nine years, this would certainly be considered as a violation of Norway's integrity, but England would not have to take up arms, as it would have been obliged to do under the treaty of 1855.

Some time ago, the present Norwegian Premier, Mr. Løvland, at that time Minister of Foreign Affairs, declared that there would be no question of "guaranteeing" Norway's neutrality. Such a "guarantee" through four powers, with Sweden excluded, would undoubtedly give the Swedes a good reason to feel hurt, since the "guarantee" must be looked upon as a safety measure against eventual attack from Sweden's side.

The insult would be the greater, in consideration of the dignified and peaceable stand taken by Sweden in the face of Norway's insolent at-

titude at the time of the dissolution of the union between the two countries. How is it, anyway, that the two powers concerned have not signed a declaration with Sweden, in regard to the abrogation of the former treaty, at the same time they did so with Norway?

The Paris *Temps* contends that such a proceeding was contemplated, but later abandoned, on account of unreasonable opposition in Christiania. The Paris paper adds that Norway, in its inveterate haughtiness, insisted upon some security which would look like an affront to Sweden. Instead of bringing the stubborn Norwegians to terms, however, and teaching them not to abuse the patience of Europe any too much, the powers gave in to the Norwegian Government, presumably in order to get through with the affair in short order.

#### A Representative Swedish View.

The *Dagbladet*, of Stockholm, gives in a recent issue what it claims to be a summary of the text of the integrity treaty. The declaration made in the latter, according to the Swedish journal, contains four paragraphs.

In the first, Norway agrees not to cede any territory; in the second, the powers agree to assist Norway in maintaining its integrity, when threatened, by such means as may be considered most suitable; paragraph 3 gives Norway the right to make special agreements with Sweden and Denmark, in regard to the preservation of its integrity; in paragraph 4 is stated that the treaty is valid during twenty years, and shall be considered renewed at the expiration of that period, unless any party to the treaty has declared, five years previously, its intention of receding from the agreement. Renewal may, however, still be made between the remaining parties.

In its commentaries on the text, the Stockholm journal points out the fact that the treaty contains no insinuation against Sweden, nor does its text, in any way whatever, justify the suspicions which have caused the prevailing anti-Norwegian sentiment in the former brother-country. In conclusion, it suggests that the text of the treaty might have been modulated somewhat just on account of the strong outburst of that same sentiment.

When one considers that any plans or desires on the part of Germany and France, the carrying out of which would violate the integrity of Norway, are out of the question, but that England has an interest in having the most important stipulation in the treaty of 1855 renewed through another measure against Russia, the conclusion must be that, apart from Norway, the London government has been eager to close the new treaty.

## A "MODERNIST" CRISIS IN THE JEWISH CHURCH.

THAT Modernism has not only assailed the Church of Rome, but that it has also tainted the ancient faith of Judaism, is the opinion advanced by M. Paul Bernard, who writes in *Etudes* (Paris). At the actual moment, the two great historic religions of the world are in the throes of combat with the forces of scientific unbelief, and not less than its eldest and most prolific combat with the forces of scientific unbelief.

Mr. Schwab, in his work, "The Spirit and the Letter," proceeds the same authority, declares that the Jew, however much he may cling to the spirit of his tradition, no longer practices the teaching of his faith. He still teaches his children that religion forbids them to work on the Sabbath, and yet we find himself and his children working on the most solemn of the feast-days in their calendar. What Jew now obeys the injunction of the Mosaic Law against the eating of oysters? Which of them does not smile when, in praying for the restoration of the Temple at Jerusalem, he thinks of the strange figure a modern Jew must make on the steps of that edifice? If we are not in the presence of the death of a race, at least we are facing the close of an historic faith.

In the opinion of M. Bernard, all modern research into the history of the Jew goes to show that, down the long course of the ages, he has really ever been the concealed champion of unbelief and atheism, and that to-day, in the fullness of his power, he is imposing his intellectual individuality upon the beliefs of mankind. Says M. Bernard:

The Jew has been the high-priest of unbelief; he has fostered mental revolt to further his own ends, and he has ever sought to struggle out of his Judaism, even as he strove to leave his Ghetto, knowing well that once received among the Christians, he would soon obtain the mastery over them. His faith, its apparent intensity, and its elaborate rites, were only instruments used by him in finding the way out of slavery and oppression. Once the hour of civil emancipation sounded for him, the Jew was heard of no longer as a man of learning or piety, but as a practical ruler of men. He had experienced so many reverses, had seen so many modes of life in his peregrinations throughout the world, and had tried so many shifts in order to subsist, that nothing was so new to him that he could not adapt himself to its exigencies. In proportion as he became modernized, he lost the distinctive characteristics of his race, threw off his pious traditions, laughed at his sacred books, and foreswore not only his teachings, but also his exalted code of morality. In some of those capitals in which the real spirit of Christianity still survives, the Jew is, nevertheless, to be

found in small groups, attached to his faith and its traditions. The London Jew, for example, is at the present moment the strongest in point of orthodoxy that remains in the world, the French Jew being on all counts the least tenacious of his faith or its observances.

It is in his treatment of the Bible, that the modern Jew is to be judged. Formerly it was the light of his life, and his never-failing hope. To-day he, more than any other, says, in effect, M. Bernard, applies to it the criteria of modern scientific discovery; he, more than any other, is disposed to mock at its mysteries. Not only are parents and children indifferent to its teachings, but even the abomination has penetrated into the holy of holies, and the priests of the ancient faith of Moses are wavering in their beliefs. Last year a conference of rabbis convened in Paris, with the object of suggesting remedies for the situation, only succeeded in demonstrating to the world to what an extent atheism and scientific dogma had undermined the faith of the majority of its members.

Like the Modernist who assails the deposit of Catholic faith, the modern rabbi inclines to belief in the Symbolical, leaving the ritual practices and doctrines to take care of themselves. They, too, have presented their manifesto to their high-priests in which they allege their conviction that religion, like everything else, must follow its course of evolution. In every respect their Modernism coincides with that of the pseudo-Catholic Modernists, and may be termed a mixture of Pantheism and Rationalism. Nevertheless, reformers of the Jewish faith have sprung up.

While the Modernist Jews proscribe both Talmud and Bible, and the orthodox Jews are heart and soul for their retention, the reform party agree with the former to sacrifice the Talmud, and with the latter to preserve the Bible, but with such restrictions, attenuations and compromises that the principle of religion is almost wholly threatened. What they ask is a minimum of worship, a minimum of morality, a minimum of dogma. Everything, it is clear, is to be surrendered to the exigencies of the material world,—thus, the sacrifice of the day of rest, the suppression of fasts, liberty of choice as to foods and the abolition of the practice of circumcision. As for dogma, they retain, it is true, their belief in the unity of God, but the Messianic prophecies are to be understood only from the emancipation of the Jews. As to the moral prescriptions, they are to be reduced to their simplest expression, to wit: "Do unto others as thou wouldst be done by." That constitutes the religion of the Jewish Modernist.



## HOW ANIMALS ACT DURING EARTHQUAKES.

THE news dispatches, it will be remembered, announced that on the eve of the great earthquake at Karatagh, in Central Asia, on October 20, all the dogs of the region set up a howling, horses stampeded, and cattle bellowed with fright. This report is in singular confirmation of some general principles as to the conduct of animals during earthquakes laid down in an article in a recent number of the Dutch review, *Vragen van den Dag*.

The writer of this article reminds us of the frequent contention that some animals are able to feel in advance certain conditions of the weather or other natural phenomena, and that they are thus, in this respect, better endowed than man.

Whether this power has been lost to man in the process of civilization, or that it was never possessed by him at all, we would not undertake to affirm. Although animals are not to be wholly regarded as weather prophets, still by a close observation of their behavior under particular circumstances of the kind, something may be gained in this line of human knowledge.

In connection with the fearful catastrophies of recent date in Italy, California, and elsewhere, which, like so many others of like nature, will long retain a hold on human memory, attention has again been called to the fact that many animals give intimations of such great disturbances in advance by certain particular and often unusual conduct. It is particularly such animals as have their abode under ground that often indicate, days before the event, that something unusual in nature is about to occur, by coming out of their hiding places under ground into the open.

Aelian mentions that, in the year 373 before Christ, five days before the destruction of Heliopolis, all the mice, weasels, snakes, and many other like creatures, were observed going in great masses along the roads leading from that place. Something similar was noticed also, later, though not to so marked an extent as in the case mentioned by Aelian. This leaving of their subterranean abodes by underground creatures on such occasions might possibly be explained by the emission of various malodorous and noxious gases during these disturbances of the earth.

But not only do animals living under ground furnish indications that something out of the ordinary is about to happen. The larger animals on the surface, such as cows, horses, asses, sheep, and many birds, even,

seem to get premonitions of particular natural phenomena and events.

Thus it is related that in 1805, during an earthquake, the cattle at Naples and its neighborhood set up a continuous bellowing some time before the event, at the same time trying to support themselves more firmly by planting the forefeet widely apart; the sheep kept up a continuous bleating, and hens and other fowl expressed their restlessness by making a terrible racket. Even the dogs gave many indications of uneasiness at the time. The actions of animals observed during the great earthquake of 1783 seem to have been most remarkable. Thus the howling of the dogs at Messina became so unendurable that men were sent out with cudgels to kill them. Their noise was most marked during the progress of the earthquake, while it was difficult to pacify the animals in the vicinity for some time even after the cessation of the shocks. Dogs and horses ran about meanwhile with hanging heads, or stood with outstretched legs, as if aware of the need of planting themselves firmly. Horses that were ridden at the time stopped and stood still without orders, trembling so at the same time that no rider could remain in the saddle. Scophus tells the story of a cat during an earthquake at Locris which set up a most dismal caterwauling at the approach of each new shock, meanwhile constantly jumping from one point to another. The roosters kept up a continual crowing, both before and during the earthquake. In the fields Scophus observed hares so under the influence of the terrestrial disturbance that they made no attempt to escape and seemed in no way disturbed by his presence. A flock of sheep could not be kept on the right road, notwithstanding the efforts of shepherd and dogs, but fled in affrightened haste to the mountains. During the same year of 1783, fear had taken such possession of the peasants of Calabria that they were seen to flee from their huts the moment dogs began to howl, asses to bray, or cows to bellow. Birds, also, seem to have premonitions of the coming of such catastrophies. During the earthquake at Quintero, in Chile, in November, 1822, the gulls uttered all sorts of unusual cries during the whole of the preceding night, and were in constant restless motion during the quake. On February 20, 1835, the day before the earthquake at Concepcion, in Chile, at ten in the morning, great flocks of sea-birds, mostly gulls, were seen to pass over the city landward, a phenomenon not to be explained by any stormy condition of the weather. It was fully an hour and a half after their passage, at 11.40 of the forenoon, before the earthquake came, one so disastrous that nearly the entire city was reduced to ruins. Even the fish in the sea seem to be disturbed at the approach of an earthquake. Thus during the one of 1783, quantities of fish were caught at Messina, of a kind that usually keeps hidden in its secret abodes at the ocean's bottom. And Alexander von Humboldt, the famous traveler and naturalist, tells of having observed the crocodiles of the Orinoco leaving the water and fleeing to the forest during an earthquake.

## RECENT PROGRESS IN CURING TUBERCULOSIS.

A REPORT of the sessions of three scientific associations, published in the last number of the *Centralblatt für Bakteriologie* (Jena), includes accounts of two series of investigations of tuberculosis that are of especial interest.

The first is a report of the Royal Commission on Tuberculosis, under the direction of which Dr. Eastwood made a histological and comparative study of the course of the disease, which was generated, experimentally by tuberculosis, both of human beings and of cattle, with also a further investigation and comparison of the two kinds of bacilli, as seen in artificial cultures, in order to get an understanding of the relationship between them.

Experiments were made upon a great variety of animals, such as calves, guinea pigs, cattle, anthropoid and other species of apes, goats, rats, dogs, cats, etc., both by feeding and by injecting the tuberculosis bacilli.

In some cases, as a result of this treatment, the animals developed typical tuberculosis, while in other animals there was no symptom of the disease, although the tissues were full of the bacilli. Rats proved to be highly resistant to human tuberculosis, for although the bacilli might swarm in the body, yet its tissues would be only slightly affected, and usually the animal would show no evidence of having the disease.

The general results of the investigation forced the writer to recognize the identity of the processes of the disease although induced experimentally by means of the most different tuberculosis bacilli of human or of animal origin.

The violence of the attack which the animal experienced varied with the amount of bacilli injected, and with the resistance of the animal, but when very resistant animals, such as calves, were inoculated with bacilli of relatively slight virulence, typical masses of bacilli developed at a distance from the point of inoculation that resembled the masses generated in cattle by highly virulent bacilli, while in especially susceptible animals, such as anthropoid and other species of apes, more or less chronic or acute disease was induced by means of the less virulent bacilli.

It has been found that the bacilli of tuberculosis are variable, and that after

growing for a long time in the human body, bacilli of bovine tuberculosis may undergo such changes in the characteristics that distinguish those directly isolated from cattle that they can no longer be distinguished from human bacilli.

After careful study and comparison of the effects of the disease induced experimentally by tuberculosis from both sources, it was found that either kind of bacilli produces symptoms that are typical for the disease in all animals susceptible to mammalian tuberculosis, although germs derived from cultures of human bacilli have relatively slight effect upon cattle. In experiments made upon anthropoid apes, the animals most closely related to man, typical tuberculosis symptoms were produced by bacilli from cattle, and also by treatment with the same cultures of human origin that had proved relatively harmless for cattle.

There does not seem to be the least evidence of any characteristic of bovine tuberculosis that renders it harmless to the human body, and further comparison of various cultures, made on artificial media, shows that all tuberculosis bacilli of mammals have common characteristics and the nature of the disease is the same, whether produced by one or the other kind of bacilli.

The action of sunlight upon bacteria, and especially upon the bacilli of tuberculosis, was discussed in a paper presented at another scientific association by Dr. John Weinzirl, who believes that in view of the devastation wrought by tuberculosis, the question deserves much more consideration than it has received. He tested the direct action of sunlight upon the bacilli by smearing a solution containing them upon a strip of glazed paper, exposing it to sunlight and afterward inoculating an albuminous culture medium with the dried residue.

If the bacilli were not killed by the sunlight there would be a luxuriant growth of them on the culture medium in proof of their active condition, but, as a matter of fact, the results showed that the bacilli were killed in about ten minutes, while species such as *Coli communis*, which serves as a test for the presence of typhoid, and other spore-free micro-organisms, were destroyed in even less time.

He believes that sunlight possesses a much stronger bactericidal action than has previously been realized, and that consequently, as a hygienic factor, it is far more powerful than has before been known.

## LEADING FINANCIAL ARTICLES.

(The great public interest aroused by recent events in the conduct of financial and industrial institutions, in security values, and in trade conditions, is bringing direct, simple, and well-written articles, meant for the aid and education of investors, into the periodicals. By grouping the most helpful of these in a new department, the REVIEW OF REVIEWS hopes to be of service to the many readers who should keep in touch with financial movements.)

### INVESTMENT SECURITIES.

WHILE accumulating money is a task of difficulty, its subsequent investment is by no means an easy matter. Inquiry for information thereon is daily increasing, and this can be accepted more readily when it is understood that the wealth of the United States increases about \$4,000,000,000 each year, or more than \$10,000,000 each day.

The simplest form of investment is a loan, on which "interest" is paid by the borrower, representing the value of the use of the borrowed money for the time agreed upon. Nearly every form of investment is a loan. Money deposited in a bank, invested in a mortgage, or in a corporation bond, makes the owner of the money so applied in each case a creditor. Contrariwise, a purchase of real estate, stocks, or an interest in a business enterprise, is an indicia of ownership, and is not characterized by an expectancy to recover back the principal, plus interest for its use, but anticipates more particularly a profit from the venture.

In the *North American Review* for November "Financier" discusses the more common forms of pure investment. "For the man who has a small sum of idle money," says he, "which he wishes to use in such a way that it will bring him in some return, there is probably no better place for his funds than a savings-bank." These are, as a class, conservative and the risk attaching to a deposit is not great. In New York, Massachusetts, Connecticut and elsewhere the character of their investments is carefully presented. Not so in other States. In the latter case, savings-banks, in order to pay dividends and an attractive rate of interest, occasionally make hazardous investments, which sometimes end in disaster.

There are other suitable forms of investment which offer equal or superior security and yield better returns than the interest paid by a savings-bank. For instance, loans secured by mortgages against real estate. The difficulty herein is this: The lender has to acquaint himself with the property, its

valuation and the character of the borrower, because foreclosure suits are costly and tedious. Moreover, such loans are not marketable or divisible, and cannot be rendered liquid, if needed before maturity, very readily. Again, a mortgage loan is not convertible or available as collateral, and it is difficult to obtain a mortgage for just the amount one may wish to invest for the period desired and secured by property sufficiently valuable. To overcome this objection, companies have been organized to make large mortgage loans and to sell small participations of \$100, \$500, or \$1000 to investors of limited means. Sometimes the companies guarantee these loans.

Investment bonds form another available outlet for surplus funds. These are issued in convenient denominations, are readily convertible into cash, and as safe as anything in the future well can be. Interest and principal are easily collected. If registered, the owner receives his check by mail; if a coupon bond, interest coupons may be collected through a bank, and the principal may be collected in the same manner, or by presentation of the bond to the issuing corporation's agency. The usual denomination of a bond is \$1000. Some are issued in \$500 pieces, and a few of \$100 each are obtainable. Small issues are likely to increase in the future in this country, as prevailing in France to-day.

First-mortgage bonds of an established railroad are perhaps the safest bond investments. As a rule, railroad bonds are better than those of an industrial corporation, because railroad earnings are more stable, both in good and bad times, than those of any other industry. This is due to the economic necessity of transportation at all times.

In the December issue of the *North American Review* this writer refers to the business reaction of 1904 and reviews the earnings of a great industrial corporation, and likewise, of a prominent railroad. In 1903 the net earnings of the United States Steel Corpora-

tion were \$109,171,153, and in 1904 only \$73,176,522, a decrease in a year of only moderate trade reaction of 33 per cent. On the other hand, the net earnings of the Lake Shore & Michigan Southern Railway in 1903 were \$8,017,086, and in 1904, \$7,976,773, a decline of only one-half of 1 per cent. The railroads, generally speaking, during 1904 maintained their records of 1903, and the aggregate railroad net earnings of the country in 1904 were \$639,240,000 against \$592,508,500 in 1903. In this tendency of railroad earnings to remain constant or to increase, is found the basis of the security and safety of railroad obligations.

Bankers usually secure railroad bond issues and then sell them to investors, and on

the former devolves the duty of seeing that the deed of trust is properly drawn and bondholders' rights thereunder adequately secured. The investor, however, in addition, should himself look into the mortgage securing the bonds. These may be divisional first-mortgage bonds, branch-mortgage bonds, or terminal-mortgage bonds, secured, respectively, by a lien on a division, a branch line or a terminal. The earning power of the particular part of the system is the criterion for their security. Terminal bonds are generally safe, because terminals are most essential to a road's operations. Nevertheless, first-mortgage bonds are safe only when all interest charges are well within net earnings.

## IF YOU CAN AFFORD TO TAKE A CHANCE.

"X Y Z is bound to rise in price, isn't it? It's selling now at 30 per cent. less than it was a year ago. I can't possibly go wrong in buying it at present prices, can I?" Thousands are asking such questions, now that security values have shrunk within the year by some \$3,000,000,000.

But there is, indeed, now as well as at any other time, a possibility of "going wrong" with any investment that promises an unusual interest return or appreciation in value. No such purchase can be recommended "to the man who, by hard labor and perseverance, has amassed a small fortune in the savings banks and seeks an absolutely safe investment for that fortune; nor yet to the woman seeking an investment for the money left, perhaps, from a life-insurance policy; nor yet to the 'average investor,' a timid man, unversed in financial matters."

So runs some very sound advice in the *World's Work*. "It is intended," says the author, "rather for that larger class which seeks investment for its surplus, for unnecessary funds that lie in the bank. The lawyer, the young doctor of large practice, the merchant, the editor, the salaried business expert, all these and a thousand other classes of men have revenues for investment in a business way. None of them is compelled to live upon the proceeds of the investment. Most of them want the investment to grow."

Let us take one bond and consider it, not because it is by any means the best in the class, but merely as an example. Suppose, being anxious to make a purchase for large interest

and ultimate profit, you note that the Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific collateral trust 4 per cent. bonds are selling at 64. You think they are, perhaps, cheap. Before you make a purchase of them, you should ask many questions. Some of the questions and the answers in this case are as follows:

Q. Why are these bonds selling so low?

A. It is due to the general market conditions. There is no especial weakness about the Rock Island to-day.

Q. What is the market record of these bonds?

A. They were listed in November, 1902, and sold at that time at about 86; they declined to 66 in the bad market of 1903-04; they rallied to 90 in 1905; and they sold at 77 early in the current year.

Q. Is the interest well secured?

A. The report for 1907 shows a surplus of \$4,450,000 after paying all the fixed charges of the C., R. I. & P. Railroad, which amount is about \$3,700,000. The report seems to indicate that the road was well kept up.

Q. If the company should default what would I get?

A. The bonds are secured on \$1,000 of the stock of the old Rock Island for each \$1,000 of bonds. That is the ultimate security.

Q. What kind of a market is there for them?

A. They can be bought and sold at any time on the New York Stock Exchange.

Here are the leading questions answered. For assurance, ask your broker to go over with you the last annual report of the company, and a copy of the mortgage on this particular bond. He will probably support the summing up in the *World's Work* that "the bond is fairly safe for its interest; it is secured on stock that has for thirty years had a high value and that represents a good road in the Middle West, and one that seems

to have fair prospects for a prosperous future. The price to-day is lower than it has ever been prior to this year. The last time it had a twenty-point decline, in 1903, it rose twenty-four points when conditions righted themselves. The probabilities are that it will do so again." And every day the permanent trade improvement seems nearer.

Even greater precautions should precede a purchase of the bonds of any industrial company. "A month before the Westinghouse Electric & Manufacturing Company went into the hands of receivers, even the

best informed Wall Street bankers, closely in touch with the affairs of that company, were recommending the bonds and notes of this company as perfectly safe. In the long run they probably are, but even the business investor does not care for 'temporary receiverships' along with his bonds."

"In closing this article, the financial editor desires to reiterate the statement that investment along the line here outlined is not recommended to any but men and women that are fit and prepared to take the usual risks of business."

## GILT-EDGED BONDS SELLING CHEAP.

**B**ONDS are cheap this winter. And the right kind of a bond is the right kind of an investment for a woman, a trustee, or any one who cannot give the purchase constant and expert attention, and who has no right to risk either principal or fixed rate of income.

Stocks cannot be advised in such cases,—not even the standard railroad securities, which appear so attractive at present rates. The management of any railroad, no matter how established, may deem it best to cut, defer, or pass the dividend on its common stock, if poor crops or manufacturing shut-downs cause a loss of traffic and thus of earnings.

But the holders of a properly secured mortgage bond are as independent of business disasters as any investor can be. Their income is fixed; their principal is secured up to its full face value by real and tangible property, through a mortgage held in their behalf by a responsible trustee. This property belongs to them and to them only in case of the company's failure. Some bonds, equally desirable, are protected by other securities of ample value which they have replaced.

As to choosing the bond; an article in the *Saturday Evening Post*, under the heading: "Your Savings,—The Time to Buy Bonds," contains some good hints:

If you want to buy bonds cheap now is the time to do so. Gilt-edged railroad bonds which are legal investments for savings-banks in such States as New York and Massachusetts, where the savings-banks' laws are the strictest, and which, under normal market conditions, would yield about 3.80 per cent., may be bought now at a price to make them yield as high as 4.75 per cent., or even 5 per cent.

This cheapness in the price of bonds is due to

practically the same causes which brought about the decline in stocks.

Since railroad bonds are the most stable, the following list, which comprises some of the best known, is given for the benefit of small investors:

Louisville & Nashville Railroad (Atlanta, Knoxville & Cincinnati Division) Mortgage 4s, due in 1955. The interest is payable May and November. This bond may be bought at 82, and the yield would be about 4.90 per cent.

Lake Shore & Michigan Southern Gold Debenture 4s, due in 1931. The interest is payable May and November. This may be bought for 85 and interest, and the yield to the investor would be about 5 per cent.

Baltimore & Ohio General Mortgage 4s, due in 1948. The interest is payable April and October. The present price is 90 and interest, and the yield would be about 4.55 per cent.

St. Louis & San Francisco Mortgage Refunding 4s, due in 1951. Interest is payable January and July. The price is 69, and the yield is about 6 per cent.

Northern Pacific-Great Northern Joint Collateral Trust 4s, due in 1921. The interest is payable January and July. The present price is 84½, which would make the yield about 5½ per cent.

Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific General Mortgage 4s, due in 1988. Interest is payable January and July. The price is 89 and interest, which would make the yield about 4½ per cent.

Chicago & Northwestern (Sioux City & Pacific Division) First Mortgage 3½s, due in 1936. Interest is payable February and August. At the present price of 84 and interest, the yield would be about 4.40 per cent.

Central Pacific First Refunding 4s, due in 1949. Interest is payable February and August. The present price is 90 and interest, which would make the yield about 4½ per cent.

Louisville & Nashville Unified 4s, due in 1940. Interest is payable January and July. At the present price of 92½, the yield would be about 4.40 per cent.

Chicago, Burlington & Quincy (Illinois Division) Mortgage 4s, due 1940. Interest is payable February and August. The present price of 96 would make the yield about 4.20 per cent.

## HOLDING ON TO STOCK BARGAINS.

"AFTER buying stocks do not watch the newspapers with eager interest to see if they have gone down. The chances are that they will go down after you buy, but do not let that excite you and make you sell out at a loss." This is the counsel of a recent article in the series entitled "Your Savings," appearing in the *Saturday Evening Post*.

The advice must, of course, be qualified, in the case of "widows and orphans," or any others upon whose investments depends a total or necessary income. Such investors should stick to approved bonds. These are cheap enough at present. And even to those who draw on a surplus, independent of necessary income sources, to pick up stock bargains at times like these, no general advice to "hold on" can be given unless each purchase has been thoroughly considered and well recommended. For a real stock bargain, even the active business man must stick to railroads whose conduct and situation form reasonable assurance of increased future earnings.

The quotation above interrupted continues in this manner:

It is good to remember that the great railroads of the United States whose stocks are suggested as an investment are doing a big business; . . . that the country is really prosperous, and that people and business must use the transportation lines. The country has always emerged safely from these periods of financial disorder and unrest.

It has invariably happened that when investors have bought high-class stocks in the very darkest hours of panic, and held on to those stocks, they have made a great deal of money.

Below is the *Saturday Evening Post's* list of important railroads worthy the investor's consideration. The prices and yield have been corrected up to the date of going to press of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS:

Railroad.	Price.	Yield. Per ct.
Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe.....	70	8.55
Atlantic Coast Line.....	66	9.00
Baltimore & Ohio.....	80	7.50
Cleveland, Cincinnati, Chicago & St. Louis (Big Four).....	53	7.54
Delaware & Hudson.....	138	7.24
Great Northern, preferred.....	115	6.08
Illinois Central.....	122	5.73
Louisville & Nashville.....	90	6.66
Chicago & Northwestern.....	134	5.22
Northern Pacific.....	114	6.14
New York Central.....	94	6.37
Pennsylvania.....	111	6.30
Southern Pacific.....	72	8.33
Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul.....	100	7.00
Union Pacific.....	115	6.08
Norfolk & Western.....	64	7.81

## THE LINE BETWEEN SPECULATION AND GAMBLING.

"IS there such a thing as honorable or useful speculation?" asks a Unitarian clergyman, Charles F. Dole, in the *Atlantic Monthly*. He replies with an emphatic yes, but immediately points out the quality that, with most people, reduces speculation to pure gambling,—ignorance. He first cites some instances of worthy speculation:

Does not a farmer like to have a grand crop,—a hundredfold over what he put into the ground? Does not every fisherman like to strike a school of mackerel or bluefish? All inventions and the labor-saving application of natural powers are simply means to bring about the most rapid production of wealth.

The telephone was thus at first a great speculative venture. But this element of hazard did not make it wrong to buy its stock at a few dollars a share. In fact, if some people had not believed in it and risked their money, the world would have had to wait indefinitely for the use of this wonderful new instrument of civilization. We suspect that even Mr. Emerson would have been pleased with the results, if he had trusted the proceeds of one of his lectures in the infant enterprise.

The injustice begins when men set an excessive

price of their own on their work, as if they had performed an act of original creation. We can applaud Mr. Carnegie's and Mr. Rockefeller's enterprise, but we denounce their system of tariff, their manipulation of railways, and their appropriation of mineral lands, through which their speculation has passed over from useful social service into the form of colossal extortion. We cannot even see the social use of any sort which has attended the building of the Astor and other similar fortunes. The scout in this case has merely seized and fortified a height above the city and become a robber-baron.

Then there are the professional appraisers of values,—the expert dealers or manufacturers, who "study crops and harvests and movements of traffic and labor. They have a certain normal relation to the values in which they are dealing. It is evidently these men alone,—only a limited number,—who at the best can claim to confer a social service by their speculations."

In sharp contrast is the very large group familiarly called *speculators*, "who are only ignorant guessers or bettors. No doubt they often act under advice of their brokers, but

they contribute no particle of intelligent study in the appraisal of values. This class surely are of no sound economic use in crowding upon the market. So far from helping to fix or maintain values, they probably add an element of exaggeration, excitement, and peril to the conduct of business. Their presence and the stakes which they wager tempt the *bona fide* or expert class of speculators to play upon their hopes and their fears, and to create artificial 'booms' or panics, and actually to unsettle values. In short, the people who 'take flyers' are mostly gamblers pure and simple. They pay their money to support a considerable and expensive group of bankers and brokers. To the honest question: What actual social service do you render through your speculative transactions, such as might justify you in pocketing your expected winnings, abstracted doubtless from the common wealth? they can give no rational answer. They are not merely trying to get something for nothing,—a harmless amusement,—but they are trying to get what does not belong to them."

The pathos of speculation lies in this direction. It is not wrong that the village school-master, or the country minister, or the dress-maker with her scanty earnings, wishes to have a share in the fabulous wealth which modern society is accumulating. They rightly think "it would be fine" if their bit of investment in the wonderful mine described in their denominational journal turns out as successfully as they hope. What they do not see is that they have no business to hope for this success; they do not know enough. No one has taught them that every useful or promising kind of speculation depends upon effort, skill, experience, the play of intelligence upon the conditions of each new problem. Honorable speculation is a form of science. It is never mere cheap guesswork. But these innocent people,—a great host of them,—are daily matching their ignorance against the loaded dice of those whom their credulity tempts to make a business of floating all kinds of plausible and worthless enterprises.

When will the world learn the supreme law of life? We have no right to expect to receive when we give no equivalent return. We have no right to expect ordinary gains, unless we give at least ordinary service. Much less have we right to extra gains from our investments, where we put in no extra skill, foresight, or other form of service.

## WATCHING TRADE BAROMETERS.

ARE "times" good, or are they bad? and how good or bad are they? The busy investor can easily find out for himself by keeping in touch with the three sensitive trade barometers: The state of steel and iron manufacture, of combined railroad earnings, and of bank clearings in the different principal cities. These figures appear in any newspaper with a proper financial department, and they are placed opposite corresponding figures for the past year, so that an exact comparison of increase or decrease is apparent. J. H. Gannon, Jr., in *Pearson's Magazine*, comments on these three "barometers" as follows:

The United States Steel Corporation has assumed such a leading position in the steel and iron trade, through its attraction to itself of many of the biggest plants in the United States, that a knowledge of its business fortunes is really accurate information of the situation with all other steel and iron-making concerns. Iron and steel are in this age the basis for so many different kinds of activity, finding extended use in the construction of skyscrapers and buildings of many kinds, as well as in railroad work, such as bridges, rails, and equipment, that when the Steel Corporation reports a falling-off in orders it means declining trade in real estate and in

railroading, along with a multitude of allied businesses.

When it is remembered that the railroads are really the trade arteries of the country, it will be seen how well the heart action of business may be determined by scrutiny of these earnings month by month.

Bank clearings represent, of course, the ebb and flow of business as this passes through money institutions. The volume of checks drawn upon banks in any one city in any given week shows accurately, of course, the amount of money required to handle the business of that city in the course of that week, and, therefore, the amount of business actually transacted. If it is compared with the business transacted in the previous week, or in the same week of the preceding year, the picture of the business situation so far as that particular city is concerned is complete.

Below the editors of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS furnish the latest "readings" of the three "barometers." To follow such reports as they appear, and to form deductions constantly improving in accuracy, adds interest to daily affairs, and is a habit that every investor should cultivate.

First, the latest quarterly report of the Steel Corporation is quoted. The item of "unfilled orders" is always significant:



## UNFILLED ORDERS ON HAND.

Tons.		Tons.	
Sept. 30, 1907..6,425,008	June 30, 1904..3,192,277		
June 30, 1907..7,003,878	Mar. 31, 1904..4,136,961		
June 30, 1906..6,809,589	Dec. 31, 1903..3,215,123		
Mar. 31, 1906..7,018,712	Sept. 30, 1903..3,278,742		
Dec. 31, 1905..7,605,086	June 30, 1903..4,666,878		
Sept. 30, 1905..5,865,377	Mar. 31, 1903..5,410,719		
June 30, 1905..4,829,655	Dec. 31, 1902..5,347,253		
Mar. 31, 1905..5,597,560	Sept. 30, 1902..4,843,007		
Dec. 31, 1904..4,696,203	June 30, 1902..4,791,993		
Sept. 30, 1904..3,027,436			

Commenting on this table, Chairman E. H. Gary said, on October 29:

In view of the fact that there has been some recession in business during the last three months, which has resulted in numerous inquiries from stockholders, I feel justified in making to you a frank statement.

On June 30, 1907, our companies had on hand unfilled orders aggregating 7,603,878 tons. On September 30 this tonnage had been decreased to 6,425,008 tons. This has since been decreased by about 400,000 tons. The bookings in August were about 18,000 tons per day. In September they were about 20,000 tons per day. There were further increases during the first half of October, but since that time the bookings have decreased, and are now at the rate of 18,000 tons per day for the month.

Since November 1, the corporation has cut down its output more than 50 per cent. But it was run at top capacity for the first ten months of the year, so that the total production for 1907 will be the greatest of any year in its history.

In the table of net earnings which follows, notice especially the last line, which shows the heavy increase for the first three quarters over the similar 1906 period. This means that the net earnings for the fourth quarter of 1907 could decrease more than \$13,500,000, and still leave the corporation with net earnings equal to those of the prosperous year of 1906.

## NET EARNINGS FOR NINE MONTHS ENDING SEPTEMBER 30.

	1907.	1906.
January .....	\$12,838,703	\$11,856,375
February .....	12,145,815	10,958,275
March .....	14,137,974	13,819,840
First quarter.....	\$39,122,492	\$36,634,490
April .....	\$14,800,838	\$12,581,902
May .....	16,056,832	14,041,601
June .....	14,846,035	13,501,530
Second quarter.....	\$45,503,706	\$40,125,033
July .....	\$13,804,187	\$12,242,098
August .....	15,279,173	13,158,860
September .....	14,720,945	12,713,666
Third quarter.....	\$43,804,285	\$38,114,624
Total nine months....	\$128,430,482	\$114,874,147

Next is shown the latest monthly report of bank clearings, exhibiting a decrease for the whole country of 29.3 per cent. as compared with 1906. Least falling off appeared in the South Atlantic and Western sections.

	1907.	1906.	Per ct.
November.			
New England..	\$865,159,589	\$852,522,128	- 22.0
Middle .....	836,210,809	1,003,506,127	- 16.7
South Atlantic.	247,779,142	271,638,428	- 8.8
Southern .....	518,549,437	631,814,752	- 17.9
Central West..	1,203,402,734	1,431,162,354	- 16.0
Western .....	407,206,872	419,446,046	- 2.9
Pacific .....	273,061,371	428,490,531	- 36.3
Totals .....	\$4,151,359,754	\$5,038,580,362	- 17.6
N. Y. City....	5,500,742,162	8,607,987,812	- 36.1
United States.	\$9,652,101,916	\$13,646,568,174	- 29.3

The New York City figures are larger than all the rest of the country's put together, but are less significant of trade conditions than the others, because of their connection with the transactions on the two great stock exchanges. Stock "purchases" and "sales" have fallen off radically during the autumn depression; but only a minor proportion of these transactions represents actual business, as distinguished from speculation. In spite of the heavy decrease in New York City, it is reassuring that no banking institution of established conservative reputation was forced to close its doors.

The third table, that of the latest reported gross earnings of railroads, looks a little pessimistic at first glance, but some allowances must be made for special conditions. The figures given are those of railroads reporting to the *Commercial and Financial Chronicle*, of New York City.

## 55 RAILROADS, JANUARY 1-NOVEMBER 30.

Year.	Gross earnings.	Mileage.
1906.....	\$540,238,902	72,766
1907.....	590,965,575	74,037

Increase, 9.39 per cent.

## 56 RAILROADS, MONTH OF NOVEMBER.

Year.	Gross earnings.	Mileage.
1906.....	\$53,425,317	73,168
1907.....	54,770,493	74,439

Increase only 2.52 per cent.

In other words, the November, 1907, increase of 2.52 per cent. was little more than one-fourth the average increase for the eleven months of 1907,—9.39 per cent. But the situation is not as bad as it looks. Although business depression undoubtedly played some part in the lessening of the increase, two great agricultural conditions were largely responsible,—the delayed movement of Northwest grain and of Southern cotton. The farmers are holding this traffic back for higher prices.

However, it is still too soon to prophesy accurately the extent of the threatened trade reaction merely from railroad earnings. There were sufficient unfilled orders on hand October 1 to keep most factories and mines at work for several weeks. The December figures for railroad gross earnings, available about the middle of January, 1908, may be expected to make even a lighter showing.

# THE NEW BOOKS.

## NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

### ILLUSTRATED EDITIONS.

Among the holiday books with classical or semi-classical subjects which have come to us for notice are: "The Story of Sir Launcelot and His Companions" (Scribners), written and illustrated by Howard Pyle; "The Story of Joseph" (Baker, Taylor), retold from the Old Testament, with pictures in color, by George Alfred Williams; "Gallantry" (Harpers), an eighteenth century "dizain in ten comedies with an afterpiece" by James Branch Cabell, illustrated in color by Howard Pyle; "God's Calendar," illustrated in color from photographs (Jennings & Graham), by William A. Quayle; "Favorite Fairy Tales" (Harpers), the childhood joys of representative men and women, illustrated and with colored marginal designs by Peter Newell; "The Holly-Tree Inn and a Christmas Tree," of Dickens, arranged (Baker & Taylor) with illustrations in color and line by George Alfred Williams; Longfellow's "Hanging of the Crane" (Houghton, Mifflin), illustrated in color by Arthur Keller, with designs by Florence Swain; "The Rivals," Sheridan's famous comedy, brought out by Crowell with an introduction by Prof. Brander Matthews and illustrations by M. Power O'Malley; "Alice's Adventures in Wonderland" (by Lewis Carroll), brought out by Doubleday, Page & Co., with twelve drawings in color and pen sketches by Arthur Rackham and a poem by Austin Dobson; and "The First Nantucket Tea Party" (Doubleday, Page), illustrated, decorated, and illuminated by Walter Tittle.

Other holiday books depending almost exclusively for their attraction upon their illustrations are: "The Harrison Fisher Book" (Scribners), a collection of drawings in colors and black and white, with an introduction by James B. Carrington; "The Astonishing Tale of a Pen and Ink Puppet" (Scribners), "being some gentle sarcasm on the genteel art of illustrating," by Oliver Herford; and "The Teddysey" (Life Publishing Company), a series of good-natured trysts at the President by Otho Cushing.

A beautiful edition of "Hymns of the Marshes," by Sidney Lanier (Scribners), is illustrated from nature by Henry Troth, whose drawings are aptly fitted to the verse which they accompany.

### NATURE AND OUT-OF-DOOR BOOKS.

So marked has been the recent increase of the output of American "nature books" that a change has taken place in the customs and methods of publishing houses. The publication of this class of books is no longer confined to the spring or summer months, but is distributed throughout the year. It happens that during the past autumn an unusually large number of books having to do with out-of-door life, both vegetable and animal, have been issued from the press.

Two volumes in the Garden Library (Double-

day, Page & Co.), entitled "Daffodils, Narcissus and How to Grow Them" and "Water-Lilies and How to Grow Them," give an abundance of helpful suggestions to the rapidly increasing number of men and women who take a personal interest in the growing of hardy plants. The writer of the daffodils book, A. M. Kirby, gives a chapter on flowering daffodils in winter and also on "water culture" in the house, containing practical suggestions for people who are interested in the indoor cultivation of those bulbs. The authors of the book on water-lilies, Prof. Henry S. Conard and Mr. Henri Hus, have made a special study of aquatic plants, giving special attention to practical methods for building effective water gardens.

A popular guide to American mosses and lichens has been compiled by Nina L. Marshall, the author of "The Mushroom-Book" (Doubleday, Page). Numerous cuts, interspersed throughout the text, together with the full-page plates, several of which are in color, afford a ready means of identifying many of our commoner mosses and lichens, and the author adds useful information concerning the uses and methods of preserving these plants.

A little book by James Buckham, entitled "Afield with the Seasons" (Crowell), gives a series of interpretations of nature in its varying moods as related to the recurring changes in the seasons.

All American bird-lovers will welcome a new book by that brilliant young naturalist, Mr. William L. Finley, of Portland, Ore., whose photographs of bird life as they have appeared in some of our leading illustrated magazines during the past few years have commanded general interest. The studies forming the basis of the present volume,—"American Birds Photographed and Studied from Life" (Scribners),—were largely made in the West, but representative birds from other parts of the country are included in the survey, so that the work as a whole is national in its scope. Many of the photographs employed were made by Mr. Herman T. Bohlman, with whom Mr. Finley has been closely associated in studying bird life for many years. To secure such photographs as these involves in itself a study of the subjects which goes far to insure the general accuracy of the observations recorded in the text.

About ninety American birds are described in a volume entitled "Feathered Game of the Northeast," by William H. Rich (Crowell). The author is a practical sportsman and has himself hunted nearly every bird in New England which he describes in this book.

The first volume in the "Animal Behavior Series" (Macmillan) is "The Dancing Mouse, A Study in Animal Behavior," by Dr. Robert M. Yerkes, instructor in comparative psychology in Harvard University. This book is as useful, perhaps, as a disclosure of the methods by which the behavior and intelligence may be studied as for what it contributes concerning the particular

animal under investigation. To people who have not followed the recent developments in this field of science the book is a revelation.

In a little book entitled "The Natural History of the Ten Commandments" (Scribners) Mr. Ernest Thompson-Seton develops his theory that the Commandments are not arbitrary laws given to man, but are fundamental laws of all highly developed animals. In an interesting way Mr. Thompson-Seton traces through the animal world the consequences following upon a breach of the ten great principles on which human society is founded.

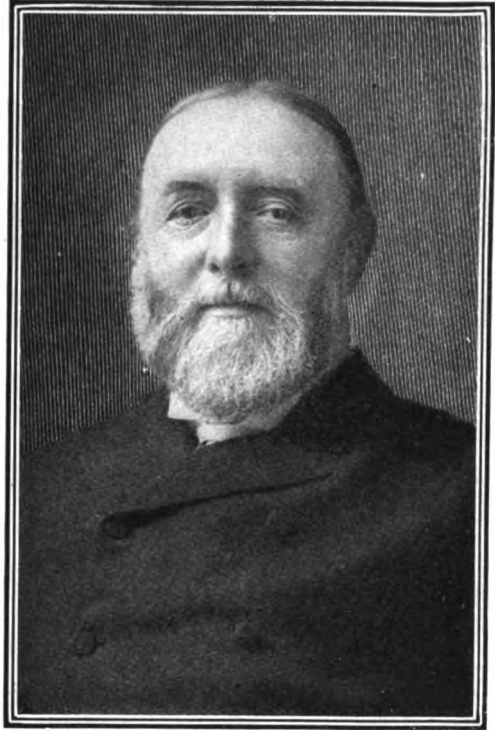
In a volume entitled "Great Golfers in the Making," edited by Henry Leach (Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.), a number of the most celebrated players of this ancient Scottish game give autobiographical accounts of their early progress, "with reflections on the morals of their experience." These men answer, each in his own way, the question: "How did you come to take up this game?" The several autobiographical chapters not only answer this question, but they indicate in large measure what are the secrets of the success of these great players.

#### BIOGRAPHY AND MEMOIRS.

"Memorials of Thomas Davidson, the Wandering Scholar," collected and edited by William Knight (Boston: Ginn & Co.), will appeal to a great number of students in America and England, many of whom may never have had an opportunity to know Professor Davidson personally, but had grown familiar with his writings as they appeared at frequent intervals in the magazines and reviews for many years. Davidson, a Scotchman by birth, had been drawn to America by his desire to found a sort of fellowship of ethical propaganda and social reform. Before coming to this country, however, he had wandered over Europe, coming into contact with leading minds in the chief universities. All these experiences fitted him for the lectureship on the East Side of New York to which the later years of his life were devoted. The bibliography printed in the appendix to this volume of memorials gives an amazing exhibit of the range of Davidson's work in the fields of speculative philosophy, ethics, and sociology. Professor Davidson died in 1900, at the age of sixty.

Owen Wister's "Seven Ages of Washington" (Macmillan) is a biography of a new and attractive type. Such a departure from the conventional lines might be hazardous in the case of most of the great men of American history, but in this instance we believe it to be fully justified, since the great number of biographies already in existence may be counted on to supply the average reader with the necessary groundwork of data. What Mr. Wister attempts to do is to paint a picture of Washington at successive stages in his career, beginning with his boyhood and ending with his retirement from the Presidency. It is safe to say that from Mr. Wister's 250 pages the American boy or girl will come away with a clearer image of the Father of His Country than could possibly be formed by reading the ponderous volumes that made up the earlier "lives" of Washington.

Two additional volumes in Col. Theodore A. Dodge's "Napoleon," in the Great Captains Series (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), are confined to the second half of Napoleon's mili-



THOMAS DAVIDSON.

tary life from the beginning of the Peninsular War to the end of the Russian campaign. It will be remembered that this history of Napoleon, complete in four volumes, is only a portion of the author's "History of the Art of War," which was begun in 1890 with the life of Alexander. In this work political events are barely touched on, and personal matters are alluded to only for the purpose of throwing light on Napoleon's career as a soldier. Although a part of the larger history, this military life of Napoleon is still of itself a complete work. Colonel Dodge's ability as a military writer is so well known as to require no extended comment in this place.

Concerning the Hon. William Pitt Fessenden of Maine little is remembered to-day save that he was one of the seven Republican Senators who voted against the impeachment of President Johnson. His brief period of service as Secretary of the Treasury in the last year of the Civil War is almost forgotten. Yet the two volumes which make up the authorized "Life and Public Services of William Pitt Fessenden," by his son, General Francis Fessenden (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), show that he was an important if not a conspicuous figure in the stirring legislative annals of the Civil War and Reconstruction epochs in our political history. Senator Fessenden belonged to that group of committee workers, the members of which made up by assiduous attention to public duties what they lacked by way of newspaper fame. It is said that even during his lifetime his personality was comparatively little known, and it is hardly

strange that his memoirs remained unpublished until one of his sons, after much delving in public and private records, was able to prepare this full and very satisfactory account.

In view of the bicentennial anniversary of the discovery of the Hudson River it is eminently appropriate that a good popular account of the episode should be given wide circulation. To this end Mr. Edgar Mayhew Bacon, who has written acceptably before on the Hudson River, has prepared an interesting sketch of "Henry Hudson, His Times and His Voyages" (Putnam's). As the title indicates, this work includes much more than an account of Hudson's exploration of the Rhine of America, although a large proportion of the space is naturally devoted to that exploit. Mr. Bacon has made careful studies of all of Hudson's voyages, and em-



HON. WILLIAM PITT FESSENDEN.

bodies in this work a great deal of information that will be new to most American readers.

"Grant, Lincoln, and the Freedmen" (Longmans, Green & Co.) is the title given to a volume of reminiscences by the late Gen. John Eaton, United States Commissioner of Education. These reminiscences have to do chiefly with the Civil War, having special reference to the work for the contrabands and freedmen of the Mississippi Valley. An interesting biographical sketch of General Eaton, prepared by Miss Ethel Osgood Mason, serves as an introduction to the volume.

The name of Franz Grillparzer is so little known to American lovers of the drama and literature that a real welcome will be accorded Mr. Gustav Pollak's study of this dramatist, which Dodd, Mead & Co. have just brought out under the title "Franz Grillparzer and the Austrian Drama." This, if we mistake not, is the first biography and critical estimate of the famous Viennese dramatist which has been pub-

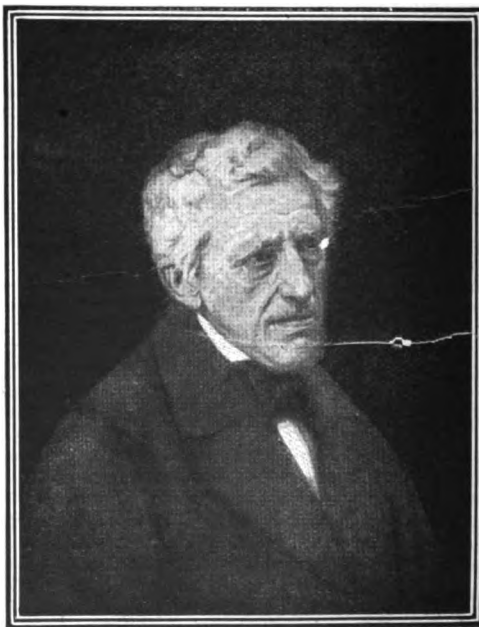


"LAST VOYAGE OF HENRY HUDSON."

(From painting in the Tate Gallery, London.)  
Frontispiece (reduced) from "Henry Hudson."

lished in the English language. Mr. Pollak gives us the setting of the life and times which produced the plays covering almost all the Metternich régime. The volume is an outgrowth of a series of lectures on Austrian dramatists delivered by the author at Johns Hopkins University.

An intimate personal story of the life and



FRANZ GRILLPARZER.

career of "The Real Sir Richard Burton," by Walter Phelps Dodge, comes from the press of T. Fisher Unwin, of London, imported by the A. Wessels Company. This record of the life and achievements of the great explorer, whose name ranks with those of Livingstone and Stanley, is intended to supersede all other lives and biographies of the cultured Englishman whose translation of "The Arabian Nights" has given him also an imperishable fame in the literature of our English tongue.

The autobiography and life-work of the "king of conjurers," Robert Houdin, recently brought out in a volume in French, entitled "Confidences d'un Prestidigitateur," has been translated into English by Coates & Co., of Philadelphia. This work, which has had a great run in Europe, is now presented for the first time to the American reading public.

#### HISTORY.

A noteworthy human document of the Russo-Japanese War is Tadayoshi Sakurai's "Human Bullets" (Houghton, Mifflin). It is the story of the experiences of a Japanese lieutenant, written with the spirit and verve of a man of twenty-five who sees the world with the glow and courage of his years. The book refers particularly to the siege of Port Arthur, and has the fascination of a novel as well as the intimate appeal of a personal diary. There is an introduction by Count Okuma. It is interesting to note that the translation from the Japanese into English is by a Japanese, Masujiro Honda, the Eng-



SIR RICHARD BURTON, RECITING HIS VERSION OF  
"THE ARABIAN NIGHTS."

Frontispiece (reduced) from "The Real Sir Richard Burton."



TADAYOSHI SAKURAI

lish text, however, being edited by Alice Mabel Bacon.

"Old Paths and Legends of the New England Border," by Katharine M. Abbott (Putnam's), is a richly illustrated volume of local history and description which supplements the author's "Old Paths and Legends of New England." The present volume deals in the main with portions of Connecticut and old Deerfield, and the Berkshire country of western Massachusetts. Some of the negatives made by well-known amateur photographers of the localities treated have been drawn upon for the half-tone illustrations, while a number of clever drawings supplement these photographs.

In this field of local history no American in recent times has worked more diligently or to better purpose than President Lyon G. Tyler, of the ancient College of William and Mary, in Virginia. President Tyler's "Cradle of the Republic" (Jamestown and James River) was the first serious attempt to tell of the topographical history of Jamestown and the James River. The discovery of new materials led the author to bring out a second edition last year, and this valuable work now has a companion volume in "Williamsburg, the Old Colonial Capital" (Richmond, Va.: Whittet & Shepperson). Williamsburg succeeded Jamestown as the capital of Virginia, and it was here that the spirit of the



"THE THOMAS LEETE HOUSE OF 1730."

At Sachem's Head, Gullford, in 1907. Illustration (reduced) from "Old Paths and Legends of the New England Border."

Old Dominion found expression in the resolutions against the Stamp Act, the resolution for the Committees of Correspondence, and other legislative decrees which preceded the Declaration of American independence. As the seat of William and Mary College it is associated with the lives of Jefferson, Marshall, Monroe, the Randolphs, and many other great Virginians. Old Williamsburg's fame extended far beyond State boundaries and became a national heritage.

The Albert Shaw Lectures on Diplomatic History at the Johns Hopkins University in 1906 were delivered by Dr. Jesse S. Reeves, assistant professor in political science in Dartmouth College. They are now brought out in book form under the title "American Diplomacy Under Tyler and Polk" (Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press). The lecturer has discovered a thread of continuity in the foreign relations of the United States during the terms of these two so-called "accidental" Presidents. The dominating questions were those relating to boundary. These two administrations accomplished the settlement of three boundary questions: the northeastern and northwestern through negotiation, and the southwestern by conquest.

#### TRAVEL AND DESCRIPTION.

Among the recently issued noteworthy books on those portions of the Old World which are always receiving pilgrims of art lovers, are: "Venice: The Golden Ages," a translation (McClurg) by Horatio F. Brown from the original Italian of Pompeo Molmenti; "Greece and the Ægean Islands" (Houghton, Mifflin), by Philip Sanford Marden; "The Cathedrals and Cloisters of Midland France" (Putnams), in two volumes, by Elise Whitlock Rose, with many illustrations from original photographs by Vida Hunt Francis; "Italy, the Magic Land" (Little, Brown), by Lilian Whiting, copiously illustrated; "The Art of the Prado" (L. C. Page & Co.), an illustrated study of the contents of this famous gallery, by C. S. Ricketts; "Browning's Italy" (Baker, Taylor & Co.), a study of Italian life and art in Browning, by Helen Archibald Clarke, and "Holland Sketches"

(Scribners), very attractively illustrated in color by Edward Penfield.

Mr. J. N. Léger, the Haitian minister to the United States, has completed his descriptive work, "Haiti, Her History and Her Detractors," which is published simultaneously in English and French by the Neale Publishing Company. Mr. Léger treats his country from every standpoint,—historical, social, and political. His experiences and reach of view entitle him to respectful attention. He makes no particular claim for his country,—simply asks a hearing. The first part of the books deals with the history of the island from its discovery to the election of Gen. Nord Alexis as President. The second treats of the natural conditions of the



Illustration (reduced) from "Holland Sketches."

country, the customs and manners of the people, and the political administration.

A work of more than 300 large pages, in large type, with many illustrations, devoted to "Fiji and Its Possibilities," is a new contribution to the descriptive literature of the season. The book is written with sympathy and evidently from a background of extensive knowledge by Beatrice Grimshaw, and published by Doubleday, Page & Co.

A thoroughly up-to-date description of Mexico, territorially, politically, racially, and economically, is Mr. Nevin O. Winter's "Mexico and Her People of To-day" (L. C. Page & Co.), illustrated from original photographs. Mr. Winter has endeavored to be expository rather than controversial, to make a complete and accurate presentation of his subject "rather than to advance radical views concerning and harsh criticism of our next-door neighbors." The illustrations are particularly interesting and helpful in supporting and amplifying the text.

It is no new claim that the history of mankind through all time has been largely governed by



climatic conditions. A striking and new confirmation of this theory, however, is to be found in Mr. Ellsworth Huntington's recently issued book, "The Pulse of Asia" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), which gives a very readable account of a year spent in daring scientific exploration in the deserts of Chinese Turkestan. Mr. Huntington's study of the primitive home of the Chantos convinces him that these are probably the nearest of all existing races to the primitive Aryan stock.

In Dr. Charles A. Eastman's "Old Indian Days" (McClure) we meet the traditional red-



J. N. LÉGER.

(Haitian Minister to the United States, author of "Haiti, Her History and Her Detractors.")

skin, all strong and superb, his career all grandly heroic and breathlessly adventurous; but, on the other hand, we read authentic accounts of some curious national customs of the Sioux, rendered the more interesting through the author's comparing these with latter-day Indian usages. The color plates, done by Groesbeck, adorning the volume, are brilliantly executed.

Mr. Richard Harding Davis has made a very readable travel book out of his experiences in equatorial Africa, and the Scribners have brought the book out with the title "The Congo and Coasts of Africa." Mr. Davis saw a great many interesting things in the Congo region, some of them despite the assiduous efforts of the Belgian officials to prevent. The volume is illustrated from photographs taken by the author.

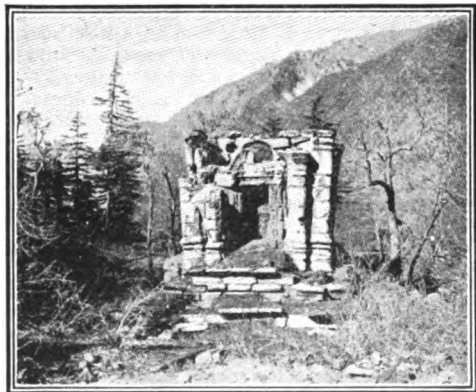
A series of first-hand views of London life on its pathetic side, with much of sociological interest, is brought out (McClure) under the title of "The Soul Market." The authoress is Olive Christian Malvery (Mrs. Archibald Mackirdy).



DR. CHARLES A. EASTMAN.

#### SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC DISCUSSION.

In a little volume entitled "Some Neglected Aspects of War" (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) are included essays by Capt. A. T. Mahan, Dr. Henry S. Pritchett, and Julian S. Corbett. Captain Mahan treats of the moral and practical aspects of war, war from the Christian standpoint, and the Hague Conference of 1907 and the question of immunity for belligerent merchant shipping; while ex-President Pritchett writes of "The Power that Makes for Peace," and Julian S. Corbett, lecturer in history to the Naval War



THE THREE-THOUSAND-YEAR-OLD HINDU TEMPLE  
IN THE VALE OF KASHMIR.

Illustration (reduced) from "The Pulse of Asia."





"A PEON AND HIS WIFE."

Illustration (reduced) from "Mexico and Her People To-day."

Course, contributes a paper on "The Capture of Private Property at Sea."

The lectures on socialism delivered in various parts of this country last year by W. H. Mallock, at the invitation and under the auspices of the National Civic Federation, have been slightly recast and published by Mr. Mallock in a book entitled "A Critical Examination of Socialism" (Harpers). Mr. Mallock's attitude, while eminently fair, is in general that of a non-Socialist. His analytic and literary powers, as shown so brilliantly in his former well-known work, "The Reconstruction of Religious Belief," characterize also this little volume. In his preface he admits the justice and value of some of the criticisms made upon his lectures by American Socialists. These criticisms, however, he maintains, indicate how far "modern Socialists thus are unable, so far as fundamental principles are concerned, to controvert the main arguments brought forward in this volume."

A new book by the editor of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS is entitled "The Outlook for the Average Man" (Macmillan). The appeal of this work is chiefly to those young men of our day who feel that in the changing social and economic conditions which must now be faced the old landmarks are lost or obscured, while even a moderate degree of success in life's battle seems to require a wholly new kind of equip-

ment. Dr. Shaw has a message of encouragement for the "average man" of our time. Never before, in his view, was the young man's opportunity greater than it is to-day; but the best investment that any young man can make is in his own training for useful and effective work in the world. "If trained capacity has been a valuable asset in the past, it becomes the one indispensable asset under the new conditions." The five college addresses which make up this volume are all rich in suggestions derived from many years' observation and experience.

#### ESSAYS AND GENERAL LITERATURE.

Prof. George E. Woodberry's "Appreciation of Literature," which comes to us from Baker & Taylor, consists of a series of studies including Keats, Byron, Milton, Goldsmith, and Lamb, written in the author's happy, optimistic spirit. Professor Woodberry's other recent volume, "Great Writers" (McClure) considers Cervantes, Scott, Montaigne, Milton, and Shakespeare. Mr. Robert A. Willmott's "Pleasures of Literature" (Putnams), on the other hand, is less of a study of literary masters than a pleasantly written compendium of sound advice to those who would make writing a profession.

Among other studies of literary masters recently issued we have received Dr. William Wharton Payne's "Greater English Poets of the Nineteenth Century" (Holt); Dr. Elmer James Bailey's study of "The Novels of George Meredith" (Scribners); and of course the inevitable Shakespeare studies, including "Shakespeare as a Dramatic Thinker" (Macmillan), by Prof. Richard G. Moulton, and a recast old edition of the immortal bard's sonnets under the title "Shakespeare, England's Ulysses," being the masque of "Love's Labor Won" dramatized from the sonnets of 1609 by Latham Davis (press of M. N. Willey, Seaford, Del.)

The mystical, seductive charm which characterizes all the writings of the late William Sharpe ("Fiona Macleod") fairly saturates the two little volumes just brought out by Duffield: "Pharais, The Romance of the Isles" and "The Sin-Eater, and Other Tales."

"Culture by Conversation" (Dodd, Mead), by Robert Waters, is a plea for the resurrection of the old lost art of conversing, which, says the author of this volume, is as superior to books as living men and women are to the post mortem stories of their lives. Another phase of the same subject,—treated, however, more technically,—is Prof. M. V. O'Shea's "Linguistic Development and Education" (Macmillan).

In "Inquiries and Opinions" (Scribners), Prof. Brander Matthews, who is one of the few living masters of the essay, discusses literary craftsmanship and the technique of the drama.

Maurice Maeterlinck's "Intelligence of the Flowers" is ostensibly a nature book, but the delicate imagination and exquisite literary style of the author are so pervasive and charming throughout the book that it is really a work of literature. The English translation is by Alexander Teixeira de Mattos, and the publishers are Dodd, Mead.

"Days Off" (Scribners), by Dr. Henry van Dyke, is a series of "digressions," as the genial Doctor puts it, meaning holiday outings and particularly fishing trips. These digressions are

written in the Doctor's own inimitable style, and the book, which is well illustrated, is dedicated to ex-President Cleveland, "whose years of great work as a statesman have been cheered by days of good play as a fisherman."

The latest addition to the Little Journeys series of Elbert Hubbard is "Little Journeys to the Homes of Eminent Orators," including studies of Pericles, Mark Antony, Savonarola, Martin Luther, Burke, Pitt, Marat, Beecher, Ingersoll, Henry, King, and Phillips.

#### RELIGIOUS AND THEOLOGICAL WORKS.

The approach of Christmas is always heralded by the appearance of a number of books on religious or semi-religious topics, some of them exclusively ecclesiastical in subject, others of a more general philosophical or popular tone. Dr. William Trumbull's "Evolution and Religion" (Grafton Press) is a study of the great religions of the world, ostensibly by a confirmed evolutionist in talks with his children; Dr. James Orr's "Virgin Birth of Christ" (Scribners) is a collection of lectures delivered during the past year to Bible teachers, aiming to re-establish faith in the miracle of Christ's incarnation; "Christ and Buddha" (American Baptist Publication Society), by Dr. Josiah Nelson Cushing, is a reverend, comparative study of the sublime figures in the title.

Among strictly ecclesiastical studies we have received Dr. Caspar René Gregory's "Canon and Text of the New Testament," in the International Theological Library now being issued by the Scribners, and Dr. John Scott Lidgett's "Spiritual Principle of the Atonement," being the fourth edition of this work, now brought out by Jennings & Graham.

Of volumes of sermons and religio-philosophic studies there are many, including among the most noteworthy: "The Sinner and His Friends" (Funk & Wagnalls), by Louis Albert Banks; "A Ministry of Reconciliation" (Revell), by Dr. Charles F. Aked; "The Empire of Love" (Revell), by W. J. Dawson; "Signs of God in the World" (Jennings & Graham), by John P. D. John; "The Infinite Affection" (Pilgrim Press), by Charles S. Macfarland; "This Mystical Life of Ours" (Crowell), by Ralph Waldo Trine; and "The Temple of Virtue" (Houghton, Mifflin), by Paul Revere Frothingham.

Two very welcome English versions of important philosophical and religious works of European masters are: Nietzsche's "Beyond Good and Evil," a prelude to a philosophy of the future (Macmillan), the authorized translation by Helen Zimmern, and the "Religion and Historic Faiths" of Dr. Otto Pfleiderer (University of Berlin), translated from the German by Dr. Daniel A. Huebsch and published by B. W. Huebsch.

"The Representative Women of the Bible" (Jennings & Graham), by Dr. George Matheson, and "The Story of the Covenant and the Mystery of the Jew" (Broadway Publishing Company), by J. L. Woodbridge, are historical studies with religious subjects.

We are glad to note, also, a new edition of Prof. Richard G. Moulton's "Modern Reader's

Bible" (Macmillan). This excellent work has already been noticed in these pages.

A few years ago the term "Christocentric theology" was much in use. Perhaps one reason why the phrase is less familiar now is that what was once a designation of a particular school is now used to characterize the whole trend of modern theological thinking. Practically all theology nowadays is Christocentric. The word is no longer needed to distinguish a special phase of thought. The very titles of theological treatises indicate this tendency. "The Creed of Jesus," by Henry Sloane Coffin (Scribners); "The Christ That Is to Be," by the author of "Pro Christo et Ecclesia" (Macmillan); "Epochs in the Life of Jesus," by Dr. A. T. Robertson (Scribners) are among the books of the past autumn. The Rev. R. J. Campbell's "New Theology Sermons" (Macmillan) is another volume devoted very largely to an exposition of the power of Christ in the world as interpreted by modern scholarship.

Turning from the doctrinal to the purely historical aspects of Christ's career on earth, an exceedingly interesting contribution has been made by Rabbi Aaron P. Drucker, of Austin, Texas, in a brochure entitled "The Trial of Jesus, from Jewish Sources" (New York: Bloch Publishing Company). Jewish traditions, as indicated by Rabbi Drucker, while they differ from the New Testament narratives, do not really oppose or contradict those narratives, but rather confirm and corroborate them. The learned Rabbi stoutly maintains that Jesus was not tried by a Jewish court, that the charges brought against him were un-Jewish, and that the Jewish people were betrayed by the Romans.

#### CONTRIBUTIONS TO SCIENCE.

"The Conquest of Cancer" is the somewhat ambitious title of a work by Dr. C. W. Saleeby (New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company). This book is chiefly an account of the treatment of malignant growths by specific or cancerotoxic ferments. The author, of course, would not go so far as to maintain that the disease has been actually conquered, but holds that there is warrant for belief that the new mode of attack indicated and initiated by Dr. Beard "gives us the key to the enemy's position, and that so soon as this advantage is pressed home the conquest of cancer will be an accomplished fact."

Prof. William Herbert Hobbs, of the University of Michigan, has written a book on the subject of earthquakes (Appletons), which ought to suggest answers to many of the questions which have arisen since the California disaster of April, 1906. Professor Hobbs represents the field geologists, whose interests in the subject of earthquakes has only recently been aroused. Indeed, the study of the subject, as Professor Hobbs points out in his preface, has been largely left to mathematicians at the observatories, who compute the direction of earthquakes and fix the location of disturbed districts. But the geologists are now awake to the fact that earthquakes are but manifestations of the forces which are active within the earth's crust, and so constitute a most important province within their field of study.

## THE NOVELS OF THE SEASON.

**U**NDoubtedly the most important contribution to the season's romantic literature,—literature, not books,—is offered by the little group of four ladies, two American and two English, with the discussion of whose latest publications we may therefore appropriately begin:

"The Fruit of the Tree," (Scribner), by Edith Wharton.

"A Fountain Sealed". (Century), by Anne Douglas Sedgwick.

"The Shuttle" (Stokes), by Frances Hodgson Burnett.

"The Helpmate" (Holt), by May Sinclair.

Our arrangement is not intended as a classification by merit, but is merely to indicate the titles and authors, the first pair being the Americans. In general, it seems to us, the most artistic psychological analysis stands to the credit of the American couple, while as to the building of effective narration the English writers have reached the higher standard. But, altogether, these novels represent the best literary work that is being done by the women of the two countries to-day.

### FOUR LADY SATIRISTS.

Some readers might possibly not assent to our view of considering Mrs. Burnett as a satirist, because she is also much of a melodramatist. Shakespeare, however, was both, one should remember; and so was Byron. "The Shuttle," indeed, shows the least acute sensibility in character-drawing of the whole quartette. The villainous villain of a British aristocrat who marries an American girl for her money is villainously vile beyond all plausibility. An Englishman of his class and bringing up might strike his wife in a moment of ungoverned fury, but would not systematically waylay and open her letters. He would no more do this than a young American lady of Rosalie Vanderpoel's education and refinement would use bad grammar. Such and other defects, however, by no means preclude the total impression of "The Shuttle" from remaining a powerful one,—emotionally, decidedly so. And Mrs. Burnett's inclusive,



ANNE DOUGLAS SEDGWICK.

sweeping aspect of both English and American life is wonderfully broad. Such an enlightened paragraph as this, in "The Shuttle," well deserves remembrance:

"In the United States of America, which have not yet acquired the serene sense of conservative self-satisfaction and repose which centuries of age may bestow, the spirit of life itself is the aspiration for change. Ambition itself only means the insistence on change. Each day is to be better than yesterday, fuller of plans, of briskness, of initiative. Each to-day demands of to-morrow new men, new minds, new work. A to-day which has not launched new ships, explored new countries, constructed new buildings, added stories to old ones, may consider itself a failure, unworthy even of being consigned to the limbo of respectable yesterdays. Such a country lives by leaps and bounds!"

Mrs. Burnett long lived in America, and Miss Sedgwick spends much time in England, so that "A Fountain Sealed" likewise partakes of dual nationality, as it were. Leaving aside Miss Sedgwick's Britons, we find her representation of Imogen Upton the subtlest piece of satiric portraiture recently achieved on either side of the Atlantic. So fine is Miss Sedgwick's method that she begins by gaining one's sympathy and admiration for a girl subsequently revealed as a self-centered, phrase-making, pharasaical egoist.



FRANCES HODGSON BURNETT.

Eminently successful, too, must be declared her picture of that rhetorically and rapidly bombastic pseudo-philanthropist, Mr. Potts. If Mr. Potts lacks the succulence of Dickensian characters, he is also free from their incredible grotesquery. Miss Sinclair's Anne Majendie,—see "The Helpmate,"—shows less thoughtful conception and minute elaboration than Imogen Upton, but exhibits a satiric pungency sometimes bordering on farce. Mr. Majendie's helpmate, a devout woman, endued with all the intolerance of inexperience, appears as relentless as she is religious; she typifies the sort of good, sincere, pious Christian dame so enormously good that she can't forgive her fellow-Christians their sins. Miss Sinclair has few illusions left about life, and skins its hypocrisies to the bone. "The Helpmate" is a brilliant book, full of verve and wit.

"The Fruit of the Tree," again, embodies that sharp perception of human character which first brought Mrs. Wharton deserved recognition. But here, too, as with the other novels, the quality of satire does not take monopolistic place, for satire is not an object in itself, and all these lady authors have written their books with a more or less strong concurrent vein of pathos. Among the ladies Mrs. Burnett speaks with the most directly appealing pathos, while Mrs. Wharton's keener cleverness leaves you with your feelings fundamentally unshaken.

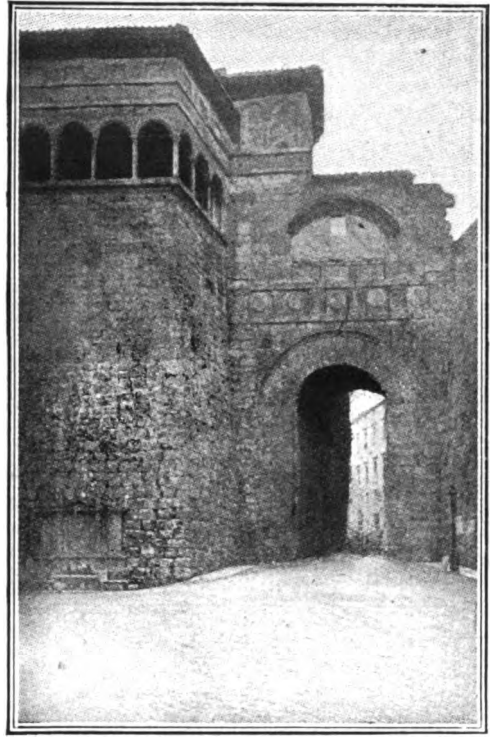


Cover design (reduced).

#### BYGONE DAYS.

Marion Crawford, whose "Mr. Isaacs" and "Saracinesca" are still bought and talked of,—as his publishers, the Macmillans, will testify,—though without weight as a psychologist or philosopher, still maintains his standard as a very gifted story-teller. His latest book, in fact, is considerably richer as to incident, and more dramatic as to suspense, than his recent novels have been. The scene of "Arethusa" is laid in fourteenth-century Constantinople, and the plot turns upon an attempt to dethrone the usurper Andronicus, with the object of restoring his father Johannes. Arethusa, the beautiful heroine, is given out to be a slave, but there are surprises in store for those who have actually regarded her as such.

Another historical novel, just published by the Harpers, takes one a hundred years further down the current of time and over a thousand miles westward on the map, to the charming region of old Poitou. Here readers of "Quentin Durward" will meet with their old friends King Louis XI. and his quaint familiar, Olivier

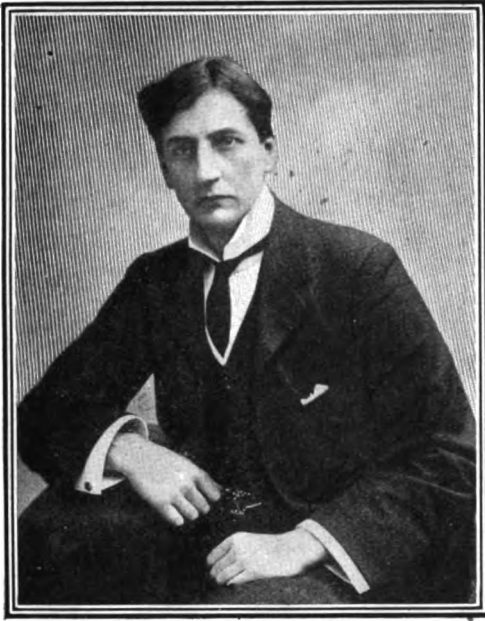


"THE ARCH OF AUGUSTUS."

Illustration (reduced) from "The Angels of Messer Ercole."

le Daim; and here does Master François Villon disport himself not only as wit but as swordsman, not only as lyricist but as lover, so that he meets and defeats his most formidable foe in single combat, and at the last wins the lady of his heart's desire. Mr. J. H. McCarthy lends the amenities of his fluent, agreeable style to this narration, which has come out as "Needles and Pins." The Renaissance period, too, has furnished Mr. Duffield with a romantic theme, though we are bound to say that "The Angels of Messer Ercole" (Stokes) interests chiefly through the admirable photogravures of Perugian scenes and of classic masterpieces by Raphael, Perugino, and others; from the pictorial point of view, this little volume merits positive praise, while the author's part as undoubtedly deserves the reproach of lacking distinction. "Stolen Treasure" (Harper) suggests, without exposition, Howard Pyle's lively buccaneering episodes, occurring in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, and illustrated by himself.

Beyond these tales of various date and clime English history provides three others. Agnes and Egerton Castle in "My Merry Rockhurst" (Macmillan) depict Charles II.'s corrupt court by means of affairs of gallantry and intrigue. But the Egerton couple must share with Maurice Hewlett, who issues "The Stopping Lady" (Dodd, Mead), the imputation of "preciosity," that is to say a style artificially elaborate, consciously elegant, and affectingly recondite,—the manner of the bluestocking. Otherwise, Mr.



A. E. W. MASON.

(Author of "The Broken Road.")

Hewlett's capacities serve to make his novel about a certain lady who stooped to one beneath her,—in the days of Cobbett's glory,—an entertaining one. Closer to our own day comes A. E. W. Mason, with "The Broken Road" (Scribner), slightly reminiscent of "Mr. Isaacs," in that Britain's political complications with Afghanistan are brought into play, the ruler of that wild country, Shere Ali, dominating in Mr. Mason's well-knit narrative.

#### OLD AND NEW SPAIN.

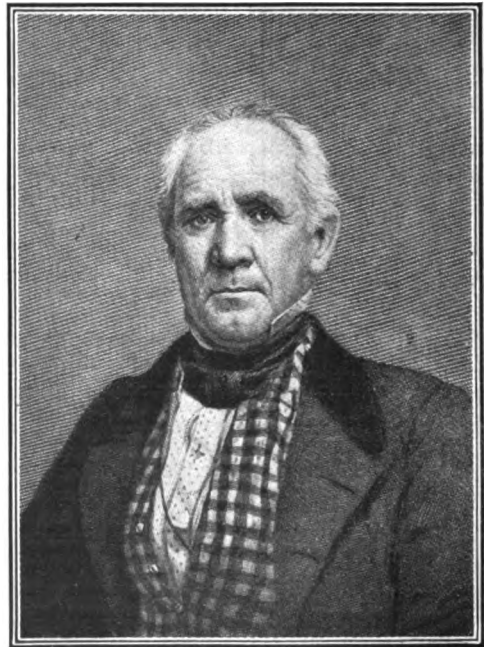
One of the steps in Spain's forefated descent from influence and power in the western hemisphere has just now been given graphic exhibition by a promising young scribe, Mr. Eugene Lyle, Jr., and it seems to us that our fittest comment upon his "Lone Star" (Doubleday, Page) would be to quote some lines at the end of the book, describing the horribly decisive battle of San Jacinto, in the Texan war of 1836:

"They were coming by leaps and bounds through the high grass, gripping their rifles, their ranks breaking, the whole long line becoming irregular as some outdistanced others, and over the center waved the flag of the Lone Star. The sun shone on the eager Texan faces, and reddened bare chests and arms. They sang and shouted as they came. Houston was galloping up and down in advance of the line. The line ducked to a volley of musketry from the barricade, and men flung rifles to their shoulders. Houston swung his arms wrathfully. I could hear his deep voice bellowing over the tumult, 'Damn you, hold your fire!' Whips were cracking, horses plunging, and there was the swift rumbling of wheels. Then, within eighty yards, our two cannon opened up, and bags of canister crashed through the barricade. . . . The affair was henceforth more a brawl than a battle,

a free hand-to-hand fight, the most glorious brawl in all the warfare of all the world. All semblance of alignment was lost at the first contact. Officers, orders, tactics, were useless. Each Texan was a captain, as Houston had promised. Better than that, he was a man in a personal fray. When his rifle and pistols were emptied, he used them as clubs until they broke. Then he unsheathed his bowie knife, and sprayed the brains of the nearest fleeing Mexican; then on to the next, with sweep after sweep of his bared arm. Over all the field every man of the 700 was working in the same way, until the high grass was wet as after a shower. They wrenched *escopetas* from Mexicans who still opposed them. They caught up loaded rifles stacked about the camp. Then they used their bowie knives again. Altogether it required just about fifteen minutes for the winning of Texas."

The capture of Peru, Mr. C. B. Hudson, another young author, more of a scholar and less of a partisan than Mr. Lyle, sets forth with considerable eloquence in his appropriately named "Crimson Conquest" (McClurg). Pizarro's personal rapacity, and the general spirit of wanton lust for riches, pervading the Spanish host, come out in fierce colors in relation to the topic of Atahualpa's ransom; as to his half-brother's, Huasca's, manner of death, the author opines that the fact of his being drowned in the river Andamarca seems proof to support the theory that he perished while attempting to escape from captivity.

Contemporaneous with the beginning of Spanish martial ascendancy in the New World was the height of the Inquisitorial authority at home, and in so far as romantic writings can offer any sure ground for comparison, Rider Haggard's "Margaret" (Longmans) reveals the



GENERAL SAM HOUSTON.

(See "The Lone Star," by Eugene Lyle, Jr.)

same sort of blind ferocity employed in the name of religion as the "Crimson Conquest" and "The Lone Star" show it the agent of patriotism. Mr. Haggard, chiefly successful at thrilling by speed and action, to the prejudice of the finer literary arts, again demonstrates his expertness as a chronicler of exciting events. Movement also, in the most literal sense, characterizes the Williamsons' new automobile story, whose hero is a Spanish nobleman. Though under sentence of exile, he yet follows an English girl all through the land of his birth, disguised as a chauffeur, eventually receiving King Alfonso XIII's spoken permission,—at a bull fight,—to wed the pleading, palpitating, pretty young person. Quite "up-to-date," this novel, "The Car of Destiny" (McClure)! A still



PIZARRO, CONQUEROR OF PERU.  
(See Mr. C. B. Hudson's "Crimson Conquest.")

faster pace is set by "The Scarlet Car" (Scribner), whose flashing course Mr. Richard Harding Davis however confines to the neighborhood of New York.

#### THE WILD WEST.

Much more American than Spanish in significance is Mr. Janvier's symposium of New-Mexican episodes, the hero-villain of which, half parson, half cardsharp, fleeces unwily strangers with the aid of a disreputable wench nicknamed the Sage Brush Hen. And we select this book by Mr. Janvier, "Santa Fé's Partner" (Harper) for first notice under our very inclusive heading, *The Wild West*, because of the first sentence in that same book:

"I've been around considerable in the Western country,—mostly some years back,—and I've seen quite a little, one way and another, of the folks living there, but I can't say I've often



"MARGARET APPEARED DESCENDING THE BROAD OAK STAIRS."

Frontispiece (reduced) from "Margaret."

come up with them nature's noblemen,—all the time at it doing stunts in natural nobility,—the story-books make out is the chief population of them parts."

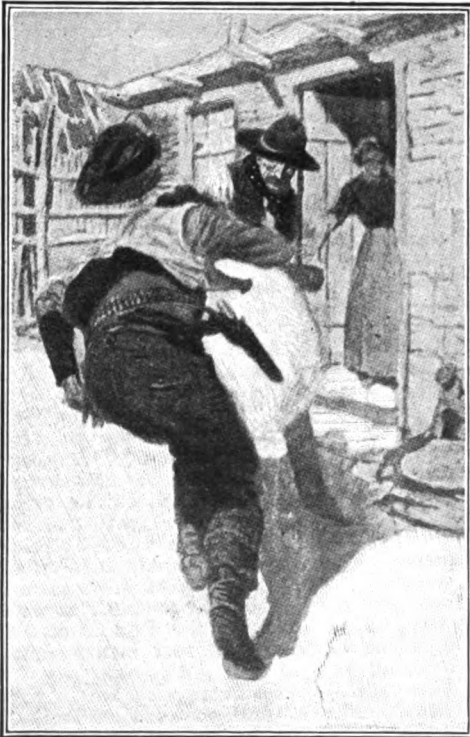
For the chief fault of those who write on Western life is not only to invent characters supernaturally noble, but to represent that life as far more romantic, exciting, picturesque, and lawless than it actually is or ever was. Bret Harte no doubt is largely responsible for the dissemination of such false ideas as may be met with in O. Henry's "Heart of the West," published with fine taste as to external dress by the McClure Company. The same publishing house must be congratulated upon Wyeth's splendid pictures accompanying the text of the book by Stewart Edward White, namely "Arizona Nights"; nor would it be fair to omit commendation of Russell's excellent marginal pen-and-ink drawings which bring so vividly before the mind's eye the intended impressions of B. M. Bower, whose "Lure of the Dim Trails" the Dillingham Company publishes in most attractive form.

One should by all means read the "Arizona Nights" and the "Lure of the Dim Trails" if one desires information about ranch life so far as concerns its workaday activities, like roping, branding, and rounding up cattle, or even some of its recreative sporting phases, like coyote hunting or card playing. Such matters in them-



selves, one finds treated upon not merely instructively but entertainingly by both authors; only one must set aside the deeds of violence,—all of a conventional type,—artificially interspersed with the object of producing high temperature and rapid pulse-beat in the library. Mr. Jack London, again, forces too much criminality upon those denizens of the Arctic regions who people his "Love of Life" (Macmillan); he cannot learn, it seems, to dissociate power from brutality, and, by the way, describes a certain execution in "Love of Life" with a good deal less verisimilitude than Mr. Janvier gives to a lynching scene in "Santa Fé's Partner." The mildly humorous tone of the book just named no doubt goes far nearer to the truth than the rollicking burlesque of that irresistible funmaker, O. Henry; no book of the season will make you laugh more than "Heart of the West," and none contains characters more improbable. Perhaps the truest stories written are the dullest,—who knows?

The Harper Brothers issue two Western novels in addition to Mr. Janvier's volume, "The Settler," by Herman Whitaker, and "Money Magic," by Hamlin Garland. Mr. Garland lacks both the intellectual and artistic equipment to write impressively; he does not, to begin with, appear to possess the vocabular resources to create illusion of the scenic mountain world, which he therefore ought to have eschewed altogether.



"CALLED HIM OUT AND SHOT HIM IN THE STOMACH."

Frontispiece (reduced) from "Arizona Nights."

#### OTHER ATMOSPHERIC TALES.

Passing from the Western to the Eastern States, from (supposed) turbulence to quietude, a typical New England village tale, entitled "The Old Peabody Pew" (Houghton, Mifflin),



Illustration (reduced) from "The Lure of the Dim Trails."

comes from the pen of Mrs. Wiggin, Anne Warner adding another success to her reputation as the biographer of Susan Clegg and her circle. In this new story, "Susan Clegg and a Man in the House" (Little, Brown), Susan takes a boarder, one Mr. Doxey,—not my doxy, nor your doxy; neither orthodoxy, nor heterodoxy,—but Elijah Doxey. Elijah, appearing on the scene with an old printing press, proceeds to the enlightenment of the village community by original departures in newspaper publication. A celebration of Independence Day forms one of the most diverting chapters of this humorous volume. A Southern romance is told, in his usual vein,—rather tepid,—by Mr. Eggleston; "Love is the Sum of it All" (Lothrop, Lee) concerns, as the name indicates, the tender passion, or, more specifically, three distinct cases of that agreeable ailment. The locality is Virginia, and the period Reconstruction.

Miss Myra Kelly's new East Side school stories, "Wards of Liberty" (McClure), have received the following epistolary encomium from the President of the United States, one of the greediest of readers:

"Mrs. Roosevelt and I and most of the children know your very amusing and very pathetic accounts of East Side school-children almost by heart, and I really think you must let me write and thank you for them. While I was Police



Commissioner I quite often went to the Houston Street public school and was immensely interested and impressed by what I saw there. I thought there were a good many Miss Baileys there, and the work they were doing among their scholars (who were so largely of Russian-Jewish parentage, like the children you write of) was very much like what your Miss Bailey has done."

Among this season's novels exhaling local European atmospheres we note Miss Dorothy Canfield's refreshing story descriptive of the fjords, "Gunhild," issuing from Henry Holt & Co.'s Twenty-third Street establishment, while from the Harper Brothers, downtown in Franklin Square, comes "Emerald and Ermine." This is a tale of Brittany, by the anonymous author of "The Martyrdom of an Empress," who also contributes a few pretty water-colors with her present offering. Gustav Frenssen takes us to the North Sea coast once more; "The Three Comrades" (Dana, Estes) again exhibits Pastor Frenssen's peculiarly spasmodic, throbbing style, expressive of highly intense feeling.

But as examples of notably successful atmospheric authorship, we would point to two novels quite recently published, one by Doubleday, Page & Co., the second by Charles Scribner's Sons, and the only way we hope to secure just appreciation of the merits of these richly atmospheric writings is by quoting from each. The following we take from Miss Una Silberrad's Dutch tale "The Good Comrade":

"At last they got clear of the taller trees, and struggling in thickets of young poplars, and other sinewy things. The sand was firmer, but honeycombed with rabbit holes, and tangled with brambles, and the direction was still upwards, though the growth was so thick, and the ground so bad, that it was often necessary to go a long way round. But in time they were through this, too, and really out on the top. Here there was nothing but the Dunes, wide, curving land, that stretched away and away, a tableland of little hollows and hills, like some sea whose waves have been consolidated; near at hand its colors were warm, if not vivid, but in the far distance it grew paler as the vegetation grew less and less, till, far away, almost beyond sight, it failed to grey helm grass, and then altogether ceased, leaving the sand bare. Behind lay the trees through which they had come, sloping downwards in banks of cool shadows to the map-like land and the distant town below; away on right

and left were other groups of trees, on sides of hills and in rounded hollows, looking small enough from here, but in reality woods of some size. Here there was nothing; but, above, a great blue sky, which seemed very close; and, under foot, low-growing Dune roses and wild thyme which filled the warm, still air with its

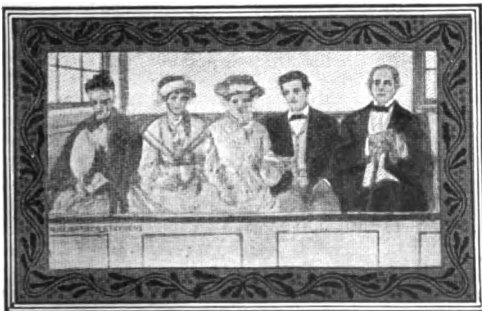


DOROTHY CANFIELD.

matchless scent; nothing but these, and space, and sunshine, and silence."

From "The Weavers,"—in the second place,—Sir Gilbert Parker's engrossing romance about present day Egypt under British administration, we select this eloquently pictorial passage:

"The bright, unclouded sun looked down on a smiling land, and in Cairo streets the din of the hammers, the voices of the boys driving heavily laden donkeys, the call of the camel-drivers leading their caravans into the great squares, the clang of the brasses of the sherbet-sellers, the song of the vender of sweetmeats, the drone of the merchant praising his wares, went on amid scenes of wealth and luxury, and the city glowed with color and streamed with light. Dark faces grinned over the steaming pot at the door of the cafés, idlers on the benches smoked hashesh; female street dancers bared their faces shamelessly to the men, and indolent musicians beat on their tiny drums, and sang national airs; and the reciter gave his singsong tale from a bench above his fellows. Here, a devout Muslim, indifferent to the presence of strangers, turned his face to the East, touched his forehead to the ground, and said his prayers. There, hung to a tree by a deserted mosque near by the body of one who war with them all an



Cover design (reduced) from "The Old Peabody Pew."



Cover design (reduced) from "Domestic Adventurers."

hour before, and who had paid the penalty for some real or imaginary crime, while his fellows blesed Allah that the storm had passed them by."

Oceania supplies a collection, by Louis Becke, of Australian bush life stories, which the Lippincotts bring out,—*"The Settlers of Karossa Creek"*; and G. B. Lancaster revisits his special place, the New Zealand sheep country, in *"The Tracks We Tread"* (Doubleday, Page).

#### DOMESTIC PROBLEMS.

"I find it more difficult every day to keep a girl," laments a poor lady in Miss Mary Cutting's new story book, "on account of Mr. Stryker [the lady's husband]; there's always so much trouble about his meals. He has to have his breakfast at half past six, and some nights he doesn't get home for his dinner until nearly nine o'clock, and then, after it's kept hot in the oven for him for a couple of hours, he often hardly eats a thing. I tell him men have so little consideration,—they never think of how much care they make for you."

It will probably surprise no one to learn that the title of Miss Cutting's volume is *"The Suburban Whirl"* (McClure), nor that the servant question animates,—that's the word,—sundry pages of the three books to which we call attention as novelistic treatises on Domestic Problems. The other two are Mrs. Daskam Bacon's *"Domestic Adventures"* and Mr. Bigelow Paine's *"From Van-Dweller to Commuter,"* respectively brought out by the Scribner and the Harper house. Mr. Paine describes the vicissitudes of a family who wrestled long and hard with boarding-house ma'ams (and hash), truculent janitors of freezing flats, and other tyrants of metropolitan existence,—again, that's the word,—and who at last found peace and happiness in the suburbs, where they grew their own vegetables and the children had a jolly, healthy time tumbling about in the grass. In the course of Mrs. Daskam Bacon's tale a fire occurs, which leads to a declaration of love and the unexpected bliss of an unhoping spinster. A vein of placid humor and gentle sentiment runs through these three volumes, which discourse on highly practical issues.

#### MYSTERY AND ADVENTURE.

Mr. William Dean Howells, the Dean of American Letters, as he is sometimes jocularly (and justly) called, has written a few stories dealing with abnormal psychic phenomena, such

as temporary loss of memory, thought transference, and spiritualistic visions. These, collected in a volume by the Harper Brothers, and issued under the title of *"Between the Dark and the Daylight,"* are too unimportant to affect Mr. Howells' reputation, but, like everything he writes, they please through the author's mature serenity and his delightful literary style. Unluckily for Mr. G. S. Viereck, this very young author's first work of fiction, *"The House of the Vampire"* (Moffat, Yard) must be mentioned under the same heading as Mr. Howells' book. It is immature, sketchy, and hysterical; and it smacks slightly of Oscar Wilde's *"Picture of Dorian Gray."* But the central character is cleverly imagined,—a writer who has the power to abstract men's unspoken ideas from their brains, taking credit for them as his own.

Another romance, Miss Rives' *"Satan Sanderson,"* conspicuous for very poor qualities, has to do with the marriage of a blind girl to a criminal. One of the chief episodes of the story is a game of cards for money, played on the communion table of a church, whose rector himself suggests the game and participates in it! The arrival of the rector's bishop upon this monstrosity gives Miss Rives occasion for a ridiculous linguistic display well fitting such an invention.

Mr. A. B. Wenzell, the well-known illustrator, contributes several color plates to Miss Rives' text, printed by the Bobbs-Merrill Company, who likewise give out Octave Thanet's new novel, *"The Lion's Share,"* dealing with the strange kidnapping of a boy to prevent his divulgence of a secret. Adventure and mystery combined agitate the pages of Mr. J. B. Ames' *"Treasure of the Canyon"* (Holt) and Maurice Leblanc's French detective stories, *"The Exploits of Arsène Lupin"* (Harpers). The Scribners issue two tomes about naval doings,—*"The Crested Seas,"* by J. B. Connolly, and *"Major Vigoureux,"* by Quiller Couch; Joseph Conrad has to his credit *"The Secret Agent"* (Harpers).



Frontispiece (reduced) from *"From Van-Dweller to Commuter."*

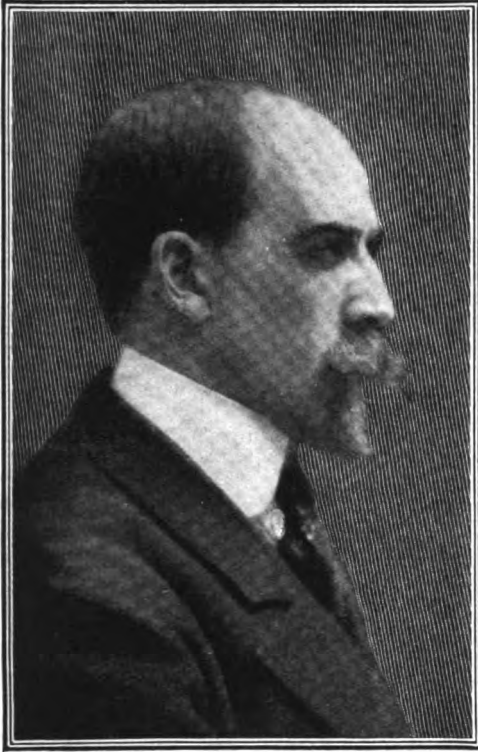
Mr. Conrad's story of anarchist machinations in London must compel renewed applause of this admirable writer's large knowledge of life and character, philosophic intellectuality, eloquent, trenchant verbal expression, active dramatic visualization. We say nothing of his faults, which, though sufficiently notable in the new book, cannot mar its pleasurable perusal for those who want excitement without having to

that they were a tribe of smug, sleek, self-seeking Pharisees; furthermore, he has never concerned himself particularly about the welfare of the most lowly and humble among his Christian brethren. But when he does come to this realization, John Gaunt speaks out, consequently incurring the wrath of his fat flock, and finally going out into the highways and byways, —according to his Master's bidding,—and establishing a great, unselfish League of Universal Service, a new social force, that "League of Universal Service, whose emblem is the cross, whose motto is the union of all who love in the service of all who suffer."

Now, we do not assert Dr. Dawson's novel to shine forth as a literary masterpiece; far from this, we could point out bad flaws in treatment, technique, taste. But we do affirm that here before us lies a book inspiring and uplifting through its clean, direct sincerity, integrity, virility. Whether the reader be Christian, agnostic, or pagan, matters little. It is sufficient to be aware that there once lived on earth a Jew of sublimely noble character, called Christ, and that this man died for his convictions; every one who has the soul to venerate such a man cannot but admire John Gaunt, who tried to follow that immortal exemplar.

#### STORIES OF VARIED MOTIVE.

Of literature, essentially mirth-provoking, the present season offers less than the usual half-



A. B. WENZELL.

get it at the cost of surrendering high literary and artistic demands.

#### A CONVINCING RELIGIOUS NOVEL.

The Fleming H. Revell Company, of New York, having for many years made the publication of religious novels somewhat of a special effort, to-day produces one which must be regarded as somewhat of a general hit. For the appeal of Dr. W. J. Dawson's "Prophet in Babylon" is by no means limited to the religious sentiment alone; his book will awaken a response in every heart open to humanitarian impulses, and the burning fervor of John Gaunt,—the central character,—to live and spread the truth as it stands supremely revealed to him, will inflame every spirit susceptible to admiration of manly honesty.

John Gaunt, the rector of a prosperous New York congregation, awakens to the fact that he has involuntarily retained their favor through never preaching to them such things as might discomfort their unctuous repose. He has never told them what Christ would have told them,—

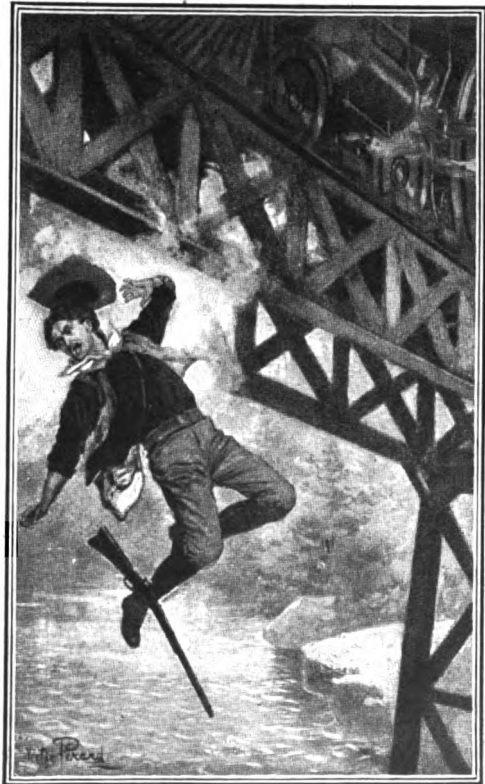


Illustration (reduced) from "The Treasure of the Canyon."

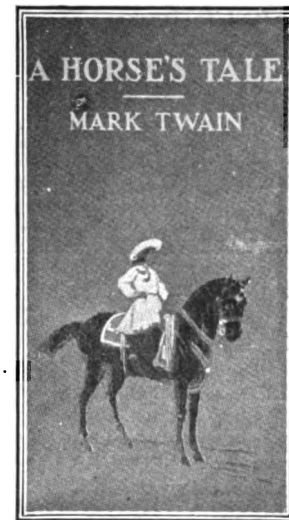
year. We have the satisfaction, however, of recording a new little story by the world's greatest comic genius, in which humor and pathos are effectively commingled: Mark Twain's account of an equine career, related autobiographically by the "noble steed" himself, and called simply "A Horse's Tale," comes from the Harper Brothers. Some true pathos and some arti-

politic. The hero is an earnest, aspiring young Polish Jew, who emigrates to New York, there encountering all manner of vicissitudes in his attempts to upraise his people. A vein of sincere religious feeling runs through this interesting book.

That very much abused situation, the love and marriage of a man and woman ideally mated in every way save that of age, is made the text of a strong, well knit novel by E. F. Benson, which Doubleday, Page & Co. bring out under the title, "Sheaves."

Agreeable love stories by Elizabeth Stuart Phelps and Mary Wilkins Freeman come from the Harper press under the titles of "Walled In,"—by a serious accident, namely,—and "The Fair Lavinia and Others," Anthony Hope, Gelett Burgess, and Bettina von Hutten also discoursing, in varied moods, on amatory topics; their stories appearing under the imprints of the McClure Company, the Bobbs-Merrill Company, and Dodd, Mead & Co., with the appellations of "Helena's Path," "The Heart Line," and "The Halo." Miss Zona Gale invents an old match-making couple,—see "The Loves of Pelleas and Etarre" (Macmillan),—and Justus Miles Forman, in "A Stumbling Block" (Harpers), describes the career of a young author who marries the wrong woman, with consequences injurious to his work. For "Three Weeks" (Duffield), Elinor Glyn chooses a most unusual theme, treated with extreme frankness of opin-

ion and in a vigorous, virile style of writing. She attempts to show how a young man's soul was developed and ennobled through an illicit passion indulged with a very remarkable woman. Miss Atherton's "Ancestors" (Harpers) tells chiefly of English social and political life, and Mrs. Wilson Woodrow's "New Missioner" (McClure) of Western America. "The Message" (Dana, Estes), by A. J. Dawson, treats of an imaginary invasion of holy

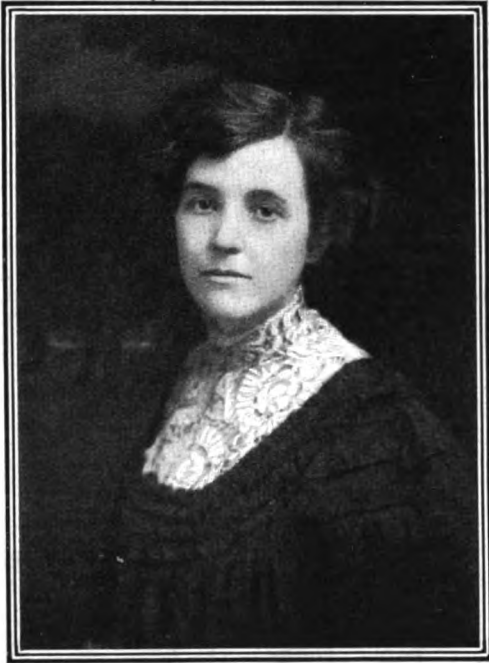


Cover design (reduced).

cial may be found in "Fräulein Schmidt and Mr. Anstruther," a volume of imaginary correspondence by the anonymous author of "Elizabeth and Her German Garden," bearing the Scribner imprint. No such complex person as the said Fräulein ever dwelt upon this earth; but, fortunately, besides her complexity (and her prolixity), she possessed a saving sense of humor, which renders the perusal of her numerous letters a fairly remunerative occupation. And since Fräulein Schmidt inhabited a small German provincial town, the seat of a university, she saw much to laugh at in the Philistines and pedants and pettifoggers there residing. Much to wonder at will be found in the Baroness Orczy's highly fanciful narration of events happening within "The Gates of Kamt" (Dodd, Mead), a city of ancient Egypt; and the Baroness seems to have quaffed at the inexhaustible fount of the "Arabian Nights,"—taking a sip, now and then, at Rider Haggard.

Professor Edward Steiner's novel, "The Mediator" (Revell), if without literary or artistic importance, owns certain features which lend it sociological value. For it cannot but arouse thought on the great national problem of assimilating aliens into the American body

England by the wicked Germans. Robert Hichens lowers one's respect for his talents through his story of the Algerian desert, "Barbary Sheep" (Harpers); the standing of Eden Phillpotts and Thomas Nelson Page remaining unchanged by the publication of two volumes containing short stories,—"The Folk Afield" (Putnam) and "Under the Crust" (Scribner).



ZONA GALE.

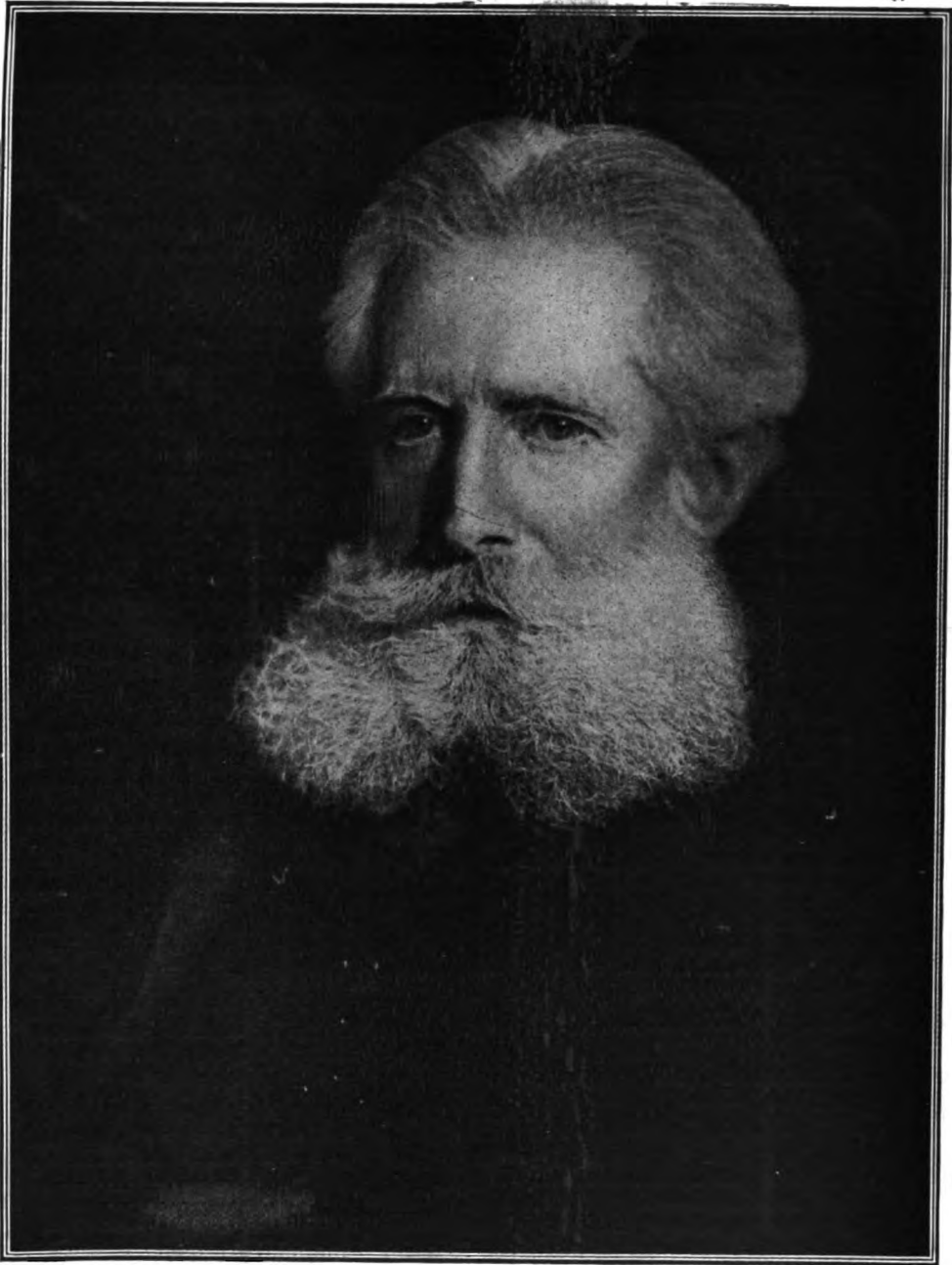
# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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### EDMUND CLARENCE STEDMAN, THE BANKER-POET.

(A unique figure in American commerce and letters was removed by the death, on January 18, of Edmund Clarence Stedman, in his seventy-fifth year. Although a New Englander by birth and education, Mr. Stedman passed almost all of his life in New York City. Among his many single poems which have brought him fame, "The Diamond Wedding," "How Old John Brown Took Harper's Ferry," and "Pan in Wall Street" will be particularly remembered. His Victorian and American anthologies are too well and popularly known to need characterization here. Mr. Stedman did some noteworthy daily newspaper work during the Civil War, but at its close became interested in the financing of the first Pacific railroad. For more than thirty years he was a successful, respected member of the New York Stock Exchange.)

# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

VOL. XXXVII.

NEW YORK, FEBRUARY, 1908.

No. 2

## THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*End  
of the  
Panic.*

The business conditions of the country have continued to hold first place as a topic of public discussion. Panics are usually short-lived; and the panic of November, 1907, was at an end by about the middle of January, 1908. Naturally, however, the panic produced a paralysis of industry; and paralysis is a disease from which recovery is only gradual and seldom rapid. A panic is due to psychological causes. The state of mind that produces it is one of extreme and all-prevailing fear. Speculative activities are also due to psychological causes, and the state of mind that attends buoyant speculation is one of great hope and confidence. Speculative conditions bring about a great number of unwarranted activities. They produce credulity. Almost every one is somewhat infected by the notion of large and quick gains, and the promoters of all kinds of ventures flourish mightily. Speculative conditions also cause men to apply themselves with great energy to legitimate enterprises, and the development of the country goes forward at a splendid rate. Thus the resources of productive capital are overtaxed and exhausted, the fabric of credit is unduly extended, and a vast number of people suddenly discover, simultaneously, that they cannot continue to borrow in unlimited sums. And then some of the enterprises which have depended solely for their success upon the continuance of speculative conditions are exposed as in a precarious plight, whereupon prudent men become a little anxious and begin to throw out hints of warning.

*How Panics  
Come  
and Go.*

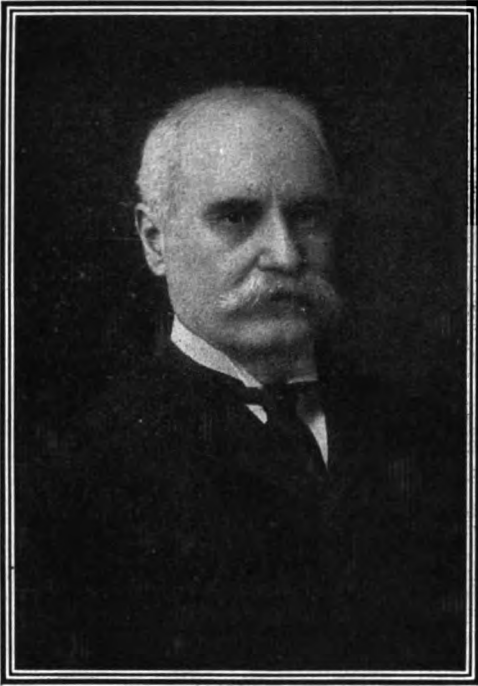
The reaction finds a bank or trust company, here and there, that has been too freely financing the wrong sort of undertakings. Some of the insiders learn the truth and whisper to their friends. The withdrawal of deposits be-

gins, and the rumors of adversity spread. Then comes the fright that brings about the "run" that the soundest of banks must always dread and that few can withstand. Thus speculation, which means excessive confidence and activity, runs its course and brings about panic, which means excessive fear and inaction. The effect of panic, in the first instance, is to create antagonism between banks and their customers. The normal course of business requires confidence and co-operation between the whole business community and the banks. At the outset of a panic, however, the banks seek to hoard currency to protect themselves against a run, and individuals and business houses seek to recover and keep currency to guard themselves against the insecurity of the banks. This situation brought about the so-called money famine that swept across the United States in the last months of 1907. All sorts of expedients were resorted to; and at last the money



MR. CARNEGIE IS VERY OPTIMISTIC.  
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).





SENATOR ALDRICH, OF RHODE ISLAND.

(Whose bill for emergency banknotes seems likely to become a law.)

famine is at an end. Currency is circulating freely again, and the New York banks, after January 15, reported that instead of a shortage of cash they were receiving more than they could make use of. The trouble was not due to the lack of a sufficient quantity of the paper and metallic means of exchange, but simply to the fact that there was a temporary checking of the usual freedom of circulation. The consequence was that about 100 cities in the United States found themselves using clearing-house certificates issued by their associated local banks; and throughout the country a great variety of temporary expedients and devices were employed as a substitute for legal money. The banks of New York imported a great deal of gold from abroad, while the Government at Washington did everything in its power to increase the supply of money and to help to restore confidence. One step taken by the Government was to deposit its treasury surplus in the banks in so far as possible. Another was to sell a new issue of Panama Canal bonds with a view to using the proceeds to help the money market. Still another, and a more decisive and unusual expedient, was to an-

nounce the issue of a short-time loan under powers conferred upon the Executive at the outbreak of the Spanish War. The maximum amount of this loan was not issued, and subsequent events indicated that the step need not have been taken. But the effect of the announcement was very valuable at the moment, because it gave the country the feeling that in one way or another the Government was strong enough to support successfully the effort of the banks and the business community to tide over the emergency and get money into circulation again.

*The  
Question of  
Remedies.*

Now that the crisis is passed, and that the banks are paying depositors freely and are loaning their assets in a normal way to their commercial patrons, the question of remedies has no further application to the immediate exigency, but has reference rather to the prevention of future trouble. Several kinds of remedies are proposed, and these differ a good deal in principle. For many years past the bankers of the country have demanded a law which would give an automatic elasticity to the volume of currency. Many practical men are of opinion that a measure of this kind is all that we can secure in the near future. Their ideas do not contemplate any fundamental change in our present banking system. The present arrangement for issuing banknotes on the basis of Government bonds deposited as security would remain unchanged unless in some matters of detail. In addition to this they ask for a plan under which the



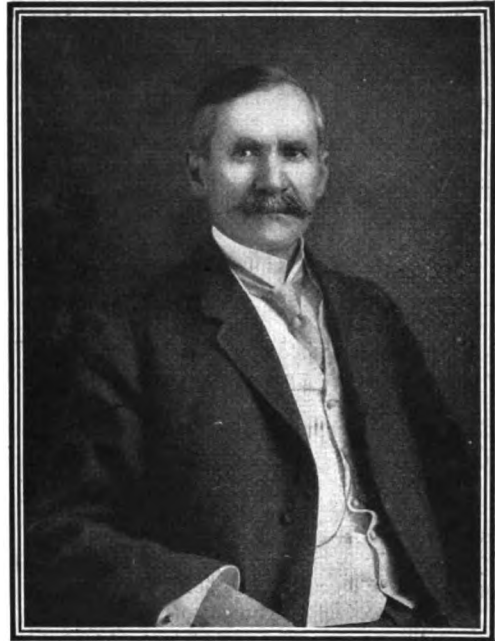
THE DELUGE.

From the *World* (New York).

banks could quickly issue temporary notes in times of emergency, under a heavy enough tax to compel their retirement as soon as the emergency should be at an end. There are others who believe that the great trouble lies in the independence and virtual isolation of thousands of banks, and that we need in this country a central bank of issue. There are still others who believe that the greatest need lies in the direction of measures that will protect the solvency of banks by increasing the security of depositors. They hold that if there were a Government guaranty of deposits the chief cause of currency panics would be forthwith removed. In times of panic, they remind us, depositors do not withdraw their money because they need it, but because they desire protection against ultimate loss. If deposits were guaranteed by the Government there would be no danger of ultimate loss, and the motive which gives severity to most bank runs would cease to exist.

*The  
Aldrich  
Bill.*

Of these three different lines of remedial action, the only one that has been thoroughly discussed in this country is that of a provision for elastic currency. A measure of this kind is likely to be enacted at Washington by the present Congress either this year or next year. A bill introduced by Senator Aldrich has been undergoing modification in the Finance Committee of the Senate. Chairman Fowler and his associates of the Banking Committee of the other house are also at work upon a currency measure. The Fowler proposals are more comprehensive and scientific. The Aldrich proposals, on the other hand, are along the line of analogies more familiar to the people of this country and therefore are more likely to be adopted. The Aldrich bill permits the issue of currency by the banks upon the deposit of State, county, municipal, and railroad bonds. The bill provides, of course, for the selection of safe bond issues as distinguished from the less desirable securities. A tax at the rate of 6 per cent. per annum would operate to retire the emergency notes when the business of the country no longer needed them. The principle of the bill is criticised, on the ground that it provides an artificial market for bonds. Banks throughout the country are not accustomed to carry considerable investments of this sort. Many leading bankers of the country do not like the plan of banknotes based upon a deposit of securities.



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SENATOR HANSBROUGH, OF NORTH DAKOTA.

(Who is the foremost champion in Congress in the plan of a central national bank of issue.)

*The  
Fowler  
Bill.*

The Fowler bill is a sweeping and comprehensive measure for the creation of a banknote currency secured by the guaranty of the Government. Under this plan the Government itself is secured by a fund to be contributed by the banks, equal to 5 per cent. of the volume of circulation. Mr. Fowler's measure would do away with the present banknote currency based upon the deposit of Government bonds, and would also retire the outstanding greenbacks. There is much else in this Fowler bill, which undertakes to provide a complete reform of the currency system of the country. The trouble is that the country does not seem willing to have its currency system reformed in a scientific way.

*The  
Central Bank  
Idea.*

Senator Hansbrough, of North Dakota, was prepared, when Congress assembled in December, with a bill providing for a great central bank of issue. He, too, had a system for a thoroughgoing reform of the national currency. But Mr. Hansbrough now admits that there is no possible chance at present to make headway with his project. He is willing to accept the Aldrich bill with certain



HON. CHARLES N. HASKELL,  
(Governor of Oklahoma.)

modifications. If the Fowler bill had been much more simple and had merely proposed to supply an emergency currency resting upon the general business and assets of the banks and protected by a Government guaranty and the deposit of an insurance fund at Washington, it would have stood a better chance of consideration at the present session. It is announced that President Roosevelt and the finance officers of the Administration will favor the Aldrich bill in a general way and that Speaker Cannon regards it as the only practical measure for the present session.

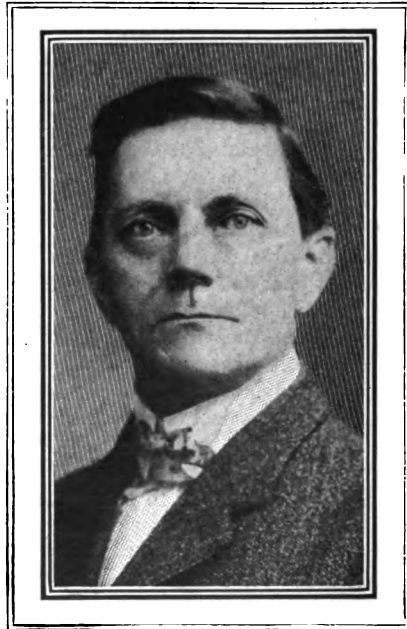
*Guaranteeing  
Deposits in  
Oklahoma.*

Mr. Bryan's support of the suggestion to guarantee the deposits in national banks has been widely advertised, but the plan is not meeting with much favor at Washington. It has, however, been adopted by the new State of Oklahoma, as respects the deposits in banks organized under the State laws. Depositors in national banks are also to be protected by

the State in case of their compliance with the provisions of the law. Governor Haskell signed the bill on December 17, and the new law becomes operative on February 15. A depositors' guaranty fund is to be created by a levy against each bank of 1 per cent. of its average deposits. The operation of the law is placed in the hands of a State banking board. A State bank commissioner and his assistants are to make an examination twice a year of the condition of each bank. It is worth while to note the fact that a section of this new law forbids any active managing officer of any State bank to borrow money, either directly or indirectly, from the institution with which he is connected. The law seems to have been carefully and ably drawn, and its working will be observed with much interest throughout the country.

*Kansas to  
Follow Her  
Neighbor.*

One of the effects of this action in Oklahoma was to produce an insistent demand for similar legislation in the adjoining State of Kansas. Governor Hoch and other State officials warmly favored the innovation, and the Legislature was called in special session, meeting on January 16. The general opinion prevailed that Kansas would not only undertake to guarantee bank deposits, but would legis-



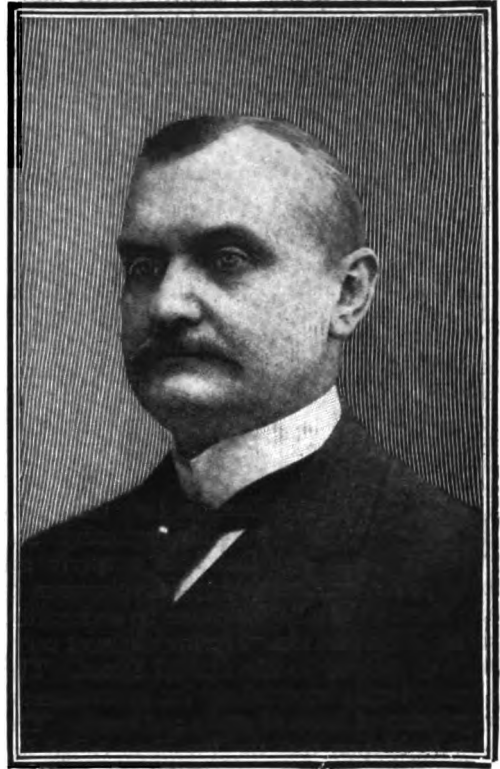
GOV. EDWARD W. HOCH, OF KANSAS.

(Who has called the Legislature in special session to guarantee bank deposits, pass a two-cent rate bill, and provide for primary elections.)

late so promptly that it could also give effect to its law in February, with Oklahoma. Conservative bankers are naturally afraid that the guarantee of deposits by the State will lead the more reckless or inexperienced managers of banks to exceed the bounds of prudence in their efforts to get deposits. It is quite possible that Texas and some other of the Southwestern States may follow the example of Oklahoma and Kansas in the near future. Abstractly, strong arguments can be presented on both sides of the question. Practical experience will show which side of the case is the better and stronger. Besides the bank-deposit question Governor Hoch has asked the Legislature to pass a 2-cent fare bill and to do several other things. Kansas evidently is not willing to be outdone in radical measures of any kind by neighboring States.

*The  
Business  
Outlook.*

The restoration of confidence in the banks, and the free circulation once more of the country's currency, have given a wholly different aspect to the economic conditions from that which was prevalent in November and December. The money stringency stopped the movement of wheat and corn and cotton from the farmers to the markets. It stopped the wheels of factories everywhere. It closed many mines, brought building operations to a standstill, and threw hundreds of thousands of men out of work. It crowded the steerages of east-bound steamers with scores of thousands of workmen who chose to return with their savings to their native lands until the demand for labor should call them back here again. But the country is fundamentally prosperous, and in most sections there is evident a gradual resumption of activity and a great deal of confidence as respects the future. Quite apart from the transient currency panic, there has set in a widespread process of what is called liquidation. Loans have been called in and credits are undergoing readjustment upon a hard-times basis. There will be a good many business failures yet to come; and for a year, perhaps two years, there will in many lines of business be a comparatively dull showing. It will be a period for the practice of thrift and the homely economic virtues, in order that resources, both private and public, may be used for the best possible results. There will be a very sharp reduction in luxurious expenditure and a corresponding increase in the amount of new capital that can be devoted to business undertakings.



Photograph by Davis & Sanford, N. Y.

MR. THOMAS F. RYAN.

(Whose recent reorganization of the Seaboard Air Line has resulted in a receivership for another so-called "Ryan" corporation.)

*Rail-  
road  
Finances.*

The most serious difficulty that looms up in the near future concerns the railroads. It is impossible to see where they are going to obtain money enough to go on with their necessary improvements. The era of combination-forming in railroads has been accompanied by reckless financiering and over-capitalization. Where the traffic demands of the country have increased 100 per cent, the railroad facilities have not increased more than 25 per cent. In some mysterious way the private fortunes of the men who have managed to get themselves at the head of great railroad enterprises have become enormous, while the railroad companies are not in a fortunate plight. When the investing public would no longer buy fresh bond issues, the railroads sold short-time notes at high rates of interest in order to provide themselves with equipment or to make necessary improvements. As those obligations begin to mature, the roads are in much perplexity as to the way to tide along. A difficulty of this kind has thrown

the Chicago Great Western system into a temporary receivership, and the Seaboard Air Line system has also gone into the hands of the courts. There were rumors last month that the Southern Railroad system might have to seek a receivership and undergo reorganization, although this was denied in well-informed quarters. Several other roads are undoubtedly shaky in their financial position, and if the present shrinkage in earnings should be long protracted they would not be able to meet their maturing obligations. It is not at all creditable to American railroad management that after a long period of unexampled prosperity the companies should disclose themselves as so near the bankruptcy line, at the first approach of a business recession.

*Need for  
Public  
Oversight.*

If capitalization had been kept small from the beginning, and earnings had been properly applied to the maintenance and development of the lines, we should have seen no such piling up of obligations as now hampers almost every mile of railway in the United States. The situation calls imperatively for governmental regulation of issues of stocks and bonds. The new legislation that the President called for in his message is greatly to be desired from all standpoints. Railroads now especially need supervision for the protection of the holders of their stocks and bonds. The Interstate Commerce Commission makes a very favorable report upon the working of the amended rate law for the period of fifteen months during which it has been in operation. The point of view of the Administration and of the Interstate Commerce Commissioners is by no means hostile to railroad prosperity. Amendments to existing laws as asked for by the Administration would enhance the value of railroad investments. The railroads should be allowed, for example, to make reasonable agreements, particularly as regards the fixing and maintaining of rates. On the other hand, they should be prevented from speculative investment in the stocks of other companies, and should be held strictly to their duties as common carriers.

*The  
Anthracite  
Coal Roads.*

The report of the Interstate Commerce Commission deals at length with the subject of the relation of railroads to the traffic in coal and other commodities. The group of allied anthracite coal roads of Pennsylvania is facing a perplexing problem. Under the recent Hepburn

act, common carriers, after May 1, must not transport from one State to another any commodities in which they have a commercial interest. The anthracite roads are engaged in the business of mining, transporting, and selling coal, and their associated monopoly of the anthracite business is the chief factor



HON. WILLIAM P. HEPBURN, OF IOWA.

(Chairman of the Interstate Commerce Committee of the House, whose name is connected with the law that baffles the coal roads of Pennsylvania.)

in their prosperity. No one as yet has explained how the Hepburn act is to be obeyed or enforced. It is hoped on behalf of the railroads that the act may be found unconstitutional. If the roads had not gone into the coal business, but had acted strictly as common carriers, the consumers of coal would have received their supplies at much less than the present prices. By close combination the roads fix the total amount to be mined, apportion the quantities among themselves, and absolutely control wholesale and retail prices. The market values of the stocks and bonds of these roads rest upon the basis of artificial profits in the coal business, due to monopoly. So strongly entrenched, however, are the anthracite roads in this position that it would probably take something more than the new Hepburn act to dislodge them. Too sudden

a restoration of normal conditions, indeed, would deal a heavy blow at many innocent investors in the inflated issues of stocks and bonds of railroads and coal companies. It is a question of these innocent investors as against the people who use coal in Philadelphia, New York, and the region of anthracite consumption.

*A Proposed  
Tariff  
Commission.*

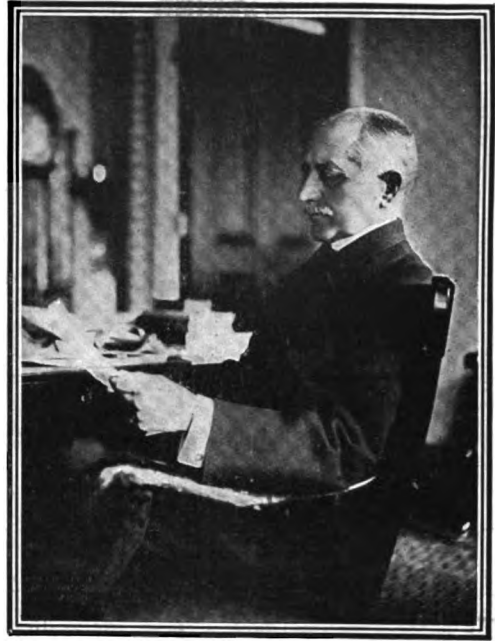
The tariff question has come before Congress in a new form. Senator Beveridge has introduced a bill for the establishment of a tariff commission as a bureau in the Department of Commerce and Labor. Mr. Beveridge recognizes the fact that Congress will revise the tariff in its own way when it takes the matter up, and that it will not relegate the subject to the kind of commission that has usually been proposed. The commission suggested in this bill is of an entirely different sort. The Government already has in its employ, a great many highly trained men capable of thorough statistical inquiry. The tariff revision that the country is beginning clearly to demand must be based upon economic and commercial facts. It must not be worked out by party politicians in conformity with traditional theories about free trade or protection. A commission of experts can supply Congress with statistical and informational data that ought now to be in process of collection as preliminary to the revision work that must be taken up within two years.

*Naval  
Questions.*

The movement of the fleet along the coast of Latin-America has been followed with friendly interest by the entire world. It has been at-



SO FAR SO GOOD.  
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



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ADMIRAL BROWNSON.

(Who recently resigned from the Bureau of Navigation.)

tended, moreover, by a great deal of discussion at home of naval questions and problems. The chief question has to do with the further policy of naval enlargement, and, as our readers well know, we are of opinion that the President's view on this issue can be safely adopted. All elements of American public opinion are of peaceful inclination, and there is no country against which we have any grudge or grievance. At the present stage in the world's history a strong and efficient American navy will be an instrument for the maintenance of world peace. There are technical details concerning the navy that the ordinary citizen does not expect to understand all about. For example, there has of late been drastic criticism of the architecture of our battleships. All that the average man knows is that our ships have sailed well and fought well when subjected to tests. If there have been mistakes they must of course be rectified. There has also been much criticism concerning the technical organization of the naval bureaus at Washington. If a better organization can be brought about the attempt will doubtless be made. A great controversy within naval circles has turned upon the question whether a hospital ship should be commanded by a medical officer or by a naval officer of the



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CAPTAIN JOHN E. PILLSBURY.

(Who succeeded Admiral Brownson as chief of the Bureau of Navigation.)

line. The President became convinced that for many reasons,—among them being the international rules of war regulating hospital ships,—it was best to have such a vessel considered as a hospital and put in command of its chief surgeon, navigation being in charge of the sailing master. Admiral Brownson, who was acting as chief of the Bureau of Navigation, took the other view and resigned from his post rather than execute the President's orders. The press of the country almost unanimously supported the President in his contention. There was, on the other hand, a good deal of fault found with the President for the severity of his strictures

upon Admiral Brownson's resignation. There is some feeling at Washington and throughout the country that the bureaus manned by naval officers at Washington have been unduly powerful and arbitrary, and that a different organization more directly under the control of the Secretary of the Navy would have better results.

*The Seeking  
for  
Delegates.*

The question of Presidential candidates has not declined in interest. On the contrary, it has become very concrete throughout the country, because in almost every State preliminary work has been going on for the holding of conventions and the choosing of delegates. The Taft movement, after the Secretary's return from his trip to the Philippines, began to show fresh and decided evidences of strength. The Secretary made several important speeches, one of them in Boston and another in New York, which defined frankly, seriously, and with marked ability his views upon many public questions. The most interesting centers of political activity have been in Ohio and New York. In Ohio the State Republican Committee decided to choose delegates by primary elections. The method decided upon was opposed by the friends of Mr. Foraker, with the consequence of bringing about a very complicated situation. The friends of Mr. Taft were confident that they would sweep the State.



SECRETARY TAFT'S FIRST PLANK.

From the *Public Ledger* (Philadelphia).



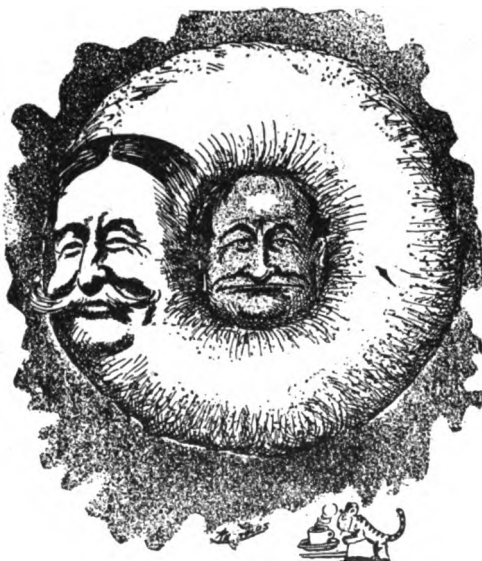


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SECRETARY TAFT MAKING HIS GREAT SPEECH ON THE RELATIONS OF LABOR AND CAPITAL IN COOPER UNION, NEW YORK, JANUARY 10.

(Mr. Charles Sprague Smith, who presided, is standing at the left of Secretary Taft.)

In New York the Hughes movement has been steadily growing, but it was not able last month to secure the adoption of Hughes resolutions in the county committees at the metropolitan end of the State. The members of the old Odell machine and the anti-Roosevelt elements in general were working for Hughes, not so much for any enthusiasm they feel toward the Governor as for their own reinstatement. The real Hughes sentiment in the State of New York, however, is a worthy and creditable one and does not owe much to the work of politicians. Mr. Hughes is making an extremely good Governor, and is a man who would rise to the height of any responsibilities that might be placed upon him. He has done nothing as yet to project himself into the limelight as a Presidential candidate, and whether or not the New York delegation carries his banner to Chicago he will have done nothing to regret. Meanwhile a definite clearing up of the Ohio situation will mean a great deal to Mr. Taft's candidacy. Mr. Arthur I. Vorys, of that State, is devoting all his attention to the Ohio situation, and it is understood that Mr.



TAFT VERSUS BRYAN.

"Twixt optimist and pessimist  
The difference is droll;  
The optimist sees the doughnut,  
The pessimist the hole."

From the *Ledger* (Tacoma.)



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MR. ARTHUR I. VORYS, OF OHIO.

(Who is in charge of Mr. Taft's political interests in his own State.)

Frank H. Hitchcock, now First Assistant Postmaster-General, will retire from his present office in order to take charge of the Taft canvass in the East and South. President Roosevelt is reported to have said that Mr. Taft would be nominated on the first ballot. By the first of April it will be possible to form a pretty accurate opinion as to the relative strength of candidates. On the Democratic side there continue to be sporadic efforts to find a way to break the Bryan ranks. The friends of Judge Gray, of Delaware, are steadily at work, and a boom has been started for Mr. Harmon, of Ohio, formerly a member of President Cleveland's cabinet. Governor Johnson, of Minnesota, has his hopeful friends, and Gov. Hoke Smith, of Georgia, has been of late quite frequently mentioned. But up to the present time there are no indications that Mr. Bryan will not have the unanimous support of the Denver convention. Certain conservative Democrats in New York have been trying to organize an anti-Bryan movement, but the weakness of all such efforts lies in their failure to present a strong candidate of their own. Mr. Taft finds against him another

candidate in his own State; a brilliant and powerful Governor in the State of New York; a much-respected Pennsylvania candidate in the person of Senator Knox; a revived movement for Vice-President Fairbanks; vitality in the candidacy of Speaker Cannon, and serious intentions behind the efforts of Senator La Follette's supporters. In the Democratic field, however, there is no one really in sight except Mr. Bryan.

*New York's  
Electric  
Tunnels.*

The year 1908 will be notable among other things for the completion of the first tunnel connecting New York City and Brooklyn, and even more notable for the opening of the first tunnel connecting New York City with New Jersey. The first tunnel to Brooklyn goes by way of the Battery, which is the extreme southern tip of Manhattan Island. Two other tunnels to Brooklyn will be opened in the near future, and a third Brooklyn bridge is progressing rapidly. Meanwhile, great improvements are at the point of completion for vastly increasing the number of surface cars and elevated trains that can cross the bridges. Improved transit facilities will relieve the congestion of Manhattan Island, and add many hundreds of thousands to the already populous borough of Brooklyn. The completion of the McAdoo tunnels under the Hudson River is to be signalized by opening them to the public this month. The terminal on the New York side is surmounted by an enormous office building belonging to the company. A subway under Sixth Avenue is also in process of construction as a part of the same system. At present the only means of coming to New York from the West and South is by ferry-boats from Jersey City and Hoboken.

*New  
York's  
Charter.*

The preliminary report of the Charter Revision Commission for New York City has attracted less attention, either within or without the metropolis, than was to have been expected, considering the magnitude of the interests involved and the importance of the commission's recommendations. The report is first of all a plea for a greater measure of municipal home rule. The State Legislature, meeting every winter at Albany, has always made a practice of saddling on the city government huge expenditures, concerning which the taxpayers, who foot the bills, have not one word to say. The commission holds that the city's financial affairs should be intrusted exclusively to local officials, elected at regular inter-



NEW YORK TO BROOKLYN: "Here's to our better acquaintance."

From the *Herald* (New York.)

vals. If the voters do not select trustworthy men for these offices they will have only themselves to blame. It is further recommended that the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, composed of the Mayor, Comptroller, president of the Board of Aldermen, and four members elected for the purpose, should be assisted by salaried experts. A new central department of street control is proposed, and there are other recommendations regarding the distribution of powers between city and borough officials.

*The  
Ahearn  
Case.*

The separate borough governments of the greater city have more practical importance than has commonly been supposed. The removal by Governor Hughes of Borough President John F. Ahearn of Manhattan Borough brought to public notice some of the powers intrusted to that official, whose area of administration has a population about equal to that of the whole city of Chicago. Formal charges of incompetence and inefficiency in the care of the streets had been preferred against President Ahearn in July last. Governor Hughes had conducted a full and careful investigation and had given Mr. Ahearn a hearing. On December 9 he ordered his removal. Despite the protest of Mayor McClellan, who took the ground that the removal was for the remainder of the term for

which Mr. Ahearn had been elected and that he could not be reinstated during that term, the New York Board of Aldermen proceeded to elect Mr. Ahearn himself to the office made vacant by the Governor's action. The effrontery of this transaction,—which would be startling anywhere but in Tammany-riden New York,—may at least serve to reveal the need of charter provisions to safeguard the city against its own elected officials who prove unworthy of the trust reposed in them

*Unofficial  
Civic  
Work.*

After all the most encouraging thing in the New York municipal situation at present is the healthful activity of unofficial civic organizations and individuals. The Ahearn charges were presented before the Governor by the City Club, the material on which they were based having been laboriously gathered by the Bureau of Municipal Research, an organization which co-operated helpfully with the Commissioners of Accounts in their investigations of borough finances. This same bureau has made for the use of the Charter Revision Commission a complete analysis of New York's municipal government. Charts were prepared showing the organization of each department as it actually exists,—not on paper merely, but in practice. The valuable aid rendered by the bureau to various city

departments in suggesting more effective statistical methods cannot fail to bear fruit in greater administrative efficiency and economy. Best of all, the very fact that such an organization is known to be actually at work will act as a powerful moral deterrent with Tammany place-holders of the Ahearn type. In this number of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* (page 195) we present an article by Secretary Allen defining the scope of the New York bureau and outlining by suggestion and illustration the possibilities of similar organizations in other cities. The bureau's work is along similar lines to those so successfully followed by the Keep Commission in the improvement of the federal service, which is described by Mr. Forbes-Lindsay in the article immediately preceding Mr. Allen's.

*Governor Hughes and the Race Tracks.* While Governor Hughes, of New York, is being talked about all over the country as a possible Presidential candidate, there is nothing in the conduct of his office to suggest any thought on his part of aspiring to any office beyond the Governorship of the Empire State. His annual message to the Legislature declared anew for the enactment of certain measures, notably ballot and primary reform, which had failed last year to win the favor of the politicians, and urged reforms in State policy which are likely to encounter the opposition of many powerful interests. The reform upon which Governor Hughes lays greatest stress is the abolition of race-track gambling, which has heretofore been tolerated in the State, notwithstanding the prohibition of betting in poolrooms. The county fairs have participated in the profits from this exemption and they have common interests with the out-and-out gamblers in securing its continuance. Nevertheless, the Governor's argument for a consistent and indiscriminating enforcement of the State's constitutional provision against gambling is based on the highest ethical considerations, and this fact must be recognized at Albany. The business community is interested in the Governor's recommendations that the trust companies be brought under the restrictions applied to other banking institutions and that the powers of the State Superintendent of Banks be increased.

*Coal-Mine Disasters.* Nearly 800 deaths from coal-mine explosions in this country during the single month of December last gave a startling and unexpected emphasis to the recommendation in President Roose-

velt's message for the creation of a national bureau of mines and to the preliminary report of the United States Geological Survey on the causes and prevention of such accidents. The greatest of these disasters, that at Monongah, W. Va., has been graphically described by Mr. Paul Kellogg in a magazine article which is reviewed in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month," on page 225 of this number. These explosions, whether of fire-damp or coal-dust, or both,



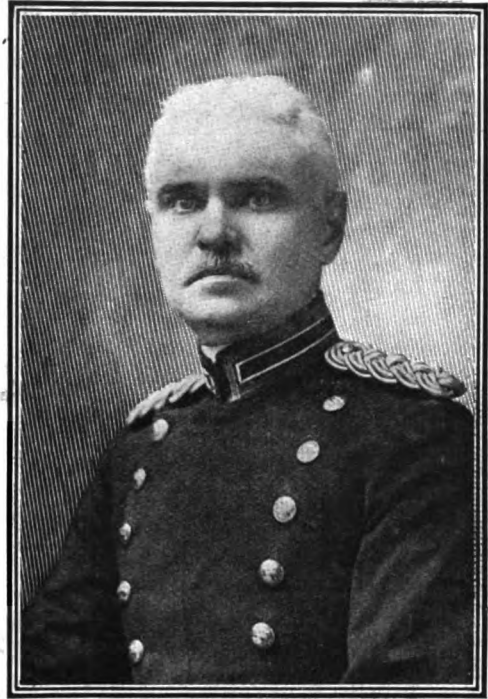
GOVERNOR HUGHES DEVELOPS AMBIDEXTERITY.  
From the *Evening Telegram* (New York).

were formerly of frequent occurrence in European coal mines, but protective legislation in Belgium, Great Britain, Prussia, and France has resulted in a marked decrease in the number of deaths per 1000 miners, while in the United States the number of killed for each 1000 employed has increased from 2.67 in 1895 to 3.40 in 1906. In the report of the Geological Survey it is stated that in no country are the natural conditions so favorable for the safe extraction of coal as in the United States. It is also shown that in those countries where the dangers of mining have been greatly minimized during the past few years the governments have been active in maintaining testing bureaus for the study of explosives, as well as in securing the strict enforcement of restrictive measures. There is encouragement for Americans in the fact that no European country has the services of abler experts on the subject of explosives than those who are now conducting investigations for our own Government, with a view to lessen-

ing the perils to which our miners are exposed. The work of Dr. Charles E. Munroe and Mr. Clarence Hall points to the establishment of a government bureau on the lines suggested by President Roosevelt. Meanwhile, the intelligent co-operation of mine owners like President Jones, of the Pittsburg-Buffalo Coal Company, who is doing much to arouse both operators and miners to the dangers of disastrous explosions, will surely bring about improved conditions. The possibilities of organized "first-aid-to-the-injured" work among miners are illustrated in an article by Mr. Arthur Reeve on page 201 of this REVIEW.

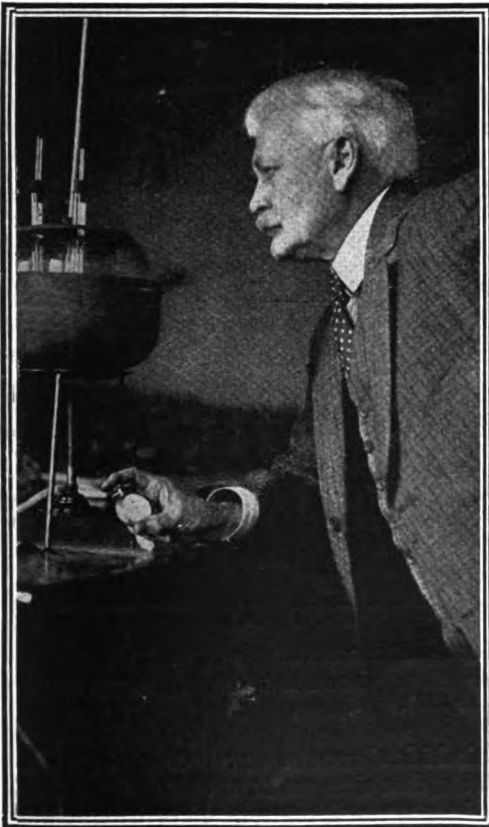
*Progress  
at  
Panama.*

Col. George W. Goethals, chief engineer and chairman of the Panama Canal Commission, stated last month to the Senate Committee on Inter-oceanic Canals that there were no insurmountable obstacles in the way of constructing the canal from the engineering view-



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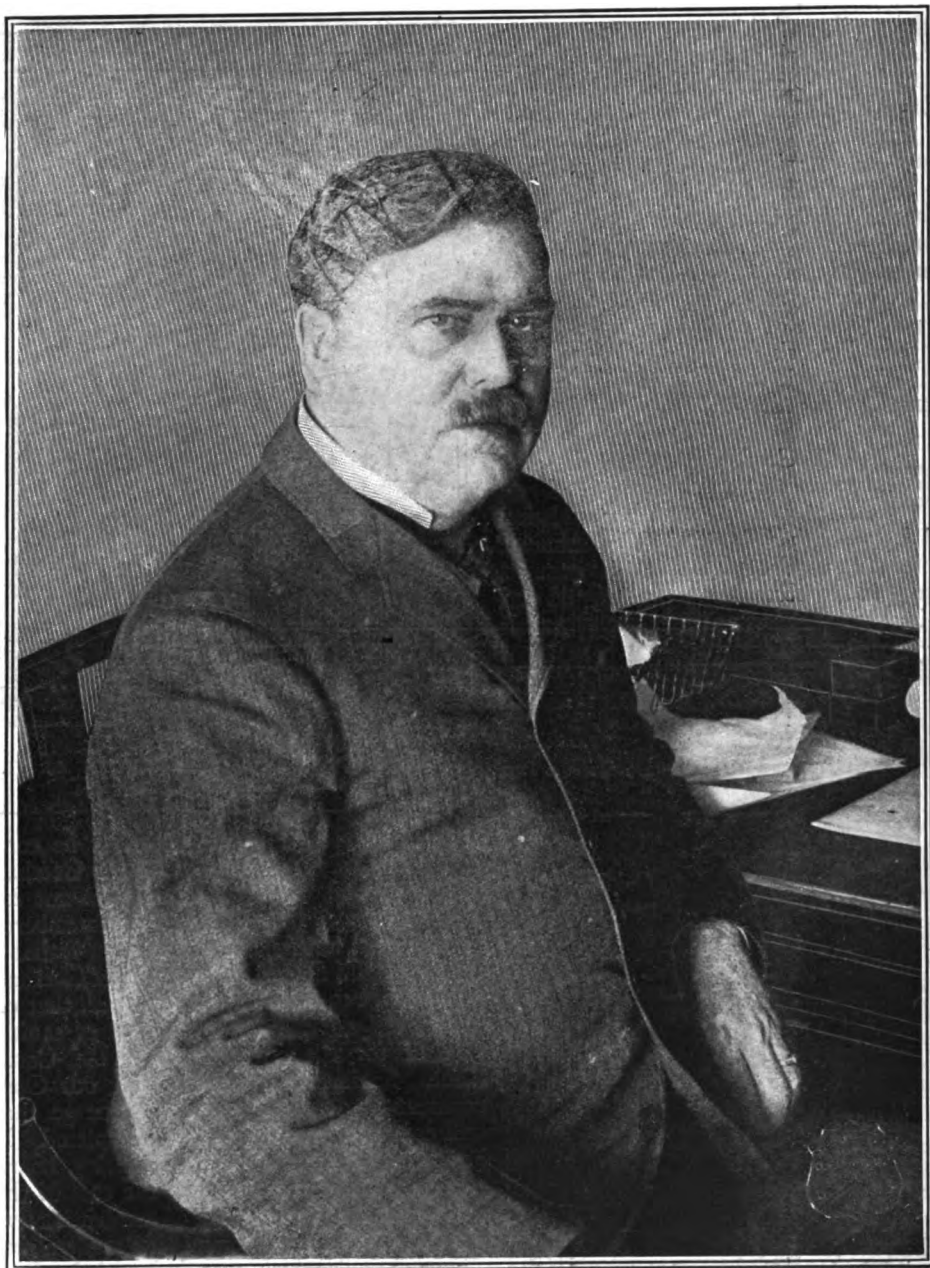
COL. GEORGE W. GOETHALS, CHAIRMAN OF THE PANAMA COMMISSION.



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PROF. CHARLES E. MUNROE TESTING DYNAMITE IN HIS INVESTIGATION OF MINE EXPLOSIONS.

point, and that it would certainly be completed by July 1, 1914. Colonel Goethals further stated that the cost would not exceed \$250,000,000. It will be remembered that the consulting board made an estimate far below this figure, but as Colonel Goethals pointed out to the Senate committee, that estimate did not allow for the cost of sanitation or for the government of the Canal Zone. Sanitation alone is costing our Government \$2,000,000 a year,—a charge that will continue until the work is completed. It has been found that the consulting board made too low an estimate on the cost of the locks and on the amount of excavation required. The Canal Commission made a recommendation, which was indorsed by Secretary Taft and finally approved by President Roosevelt, that the width of the canal locks be increased from 100 to 110 feet in order to meet requirements of the navy. Excavation in the Culebra Cut is now going forward at the rate of 1,000,000 cubic yards a month. In the last two months of 1907 all records were broken for excavation. Secretary Taft has expressed the opinion that the canal laborer is about 80 per cent. better paid than the laborer in like occupation in the United States.



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HON. CHARLES E. MAGOON, AMERICAN PROVISIONAL GOVERNOR OF CUBA.

(Who has just submitted a report indicating solid progress made in political and economic affairs in the island during the year 1907.)

*Cuba to Be Her Own Mistress Next February.* Within a few months an entire tropical island to our own country and people. During that time we have twice withdrawn our influence and control. For virtually all the ten years' period, however, it has been the American people, seeking through their Government at Washington, to whom the rest of



the world, as well as the Cubans themselves, have looked as responsible for the actual security of life and property and the future prosperity, political and economic, of the island. President Roosevelt has just announced, in a letter replying to Secretary of War Taft's communication transmitting the report of Provisional Governor Magoon for 1907, that, "by or before February 1, 1909, we shall have turned over the island to the President and Congress to be elected next December by the people of Cuba." After that date the fate of Cuba will be in her own hands. Governor Magoon's report sets forth the generally prosperous condition of the island, and recounts the history of "intervention" with particular reference to the developments of the past year. During this decade that has passed since 1898 what have been the real fruits of American influence and direction in Cuba? A rapid summary of some of the more important of these will demonstrate the sincerity, disinterestedness, and efficiency of American "intervention."

*Sanitation and  
Good Roads  
in Cuba.*

Cuba is moving forward politically, economically, and industrially. There is no doubt of that. Under American direction and the stimulus of American assistance the work of improvement has progressed solidly. The idea of a \$5,000,000 wagon road, conceived by General Wood, has been already applied, and the great road is steadily progressing toward completion. This thoroughfare will open up a great artery of wagon communication by macadamized road, good in any weather, from one end of the island to the other. While from a military point of view this is a most highly important work, assuring the Havana government a military base of operations within forty miles of any point of the island and always accessible by wagon train, its chief value will be to open up access to market for many thousands of square miles of fertile land at present of no agricultural value, because their products cannot be profitably carried to market. Of prime importance has been the nationalization of sanitation in Cuba. This has already resulted in actually stamping out the yellow-fever pest and in greatly reducing all the other "mosquito diseases," a condition once before achieved during American intervention, but allowed to lapse. Making sanitation a national matter has also provided the machinery, funds, and supervision necessary to render this improved condition permanent. Hereafter the health

of the Cuban people will be a matter of constant care on the part of the central government of the island.

*Regulating the  
Electoral  
Law.*

A very important result of our stay in Cuba has been the revision of the electoral law. In Cuba the electoral problem is a very grave one. Illiteracy and ignorance are very high, and the danger of a corrupt or vicious electorate correspondingly great. The educated Cuban is the equal of any enlightened individual on earth, but, unfortunately, he is in the small majority. Furthermore, of the educated classes of the island many persons are foreigners, either Spaniards who have not yet renounced their allegiance to Spain, or foreigners interested in the conduct of large business enterprises owned and controlled by foreign capital. It is a great problem to determine what function these people shall exercise in the government of Cuba. It is even a more serious one just how to limit the franchise to those really capable of understanding the responsibility of an elector. The poorer classes are just emerging from the conditions of the Middle Ages. Without books or newspapers in their homes, many of them unable to read at all, it is not difficult to see how large a proportion of this class is incapable of fulfilling or even understanding the duties and responsibilities that go with the ballot. These same people, however, fought for their freedom, enduring untold hardships, in years of struggle with Spain, and they must be reckoned with in any electoral law that may be adopted. A mixed commission, made up of Cubans and Americans, has been studying this problem for some time and has at last produced what is believed to be an acceptable solution of it. Some future changes may be necessary, but this plan will no doubt offer the best system that can at present be devised, and one which is a vast improvement on the former system.

*Safeguarding  
Personal  
Rights.*

During her entire history Cuba has suffered from the cruel exactions of an unjust criminal code, in most respects a survival of the most despotic of monarchical systems and utterly unsuited to republican forms of government. To counterfeit the great seal of Spain is still treason in Cuba, and the old laws restricting the rights of person are still so illiberal that a man may be adjudged guilty of a grave crime if he kills another in the defense of his house, family, or person. The present Cuban



law,—or the present-day Cuban interpretation of it,—was probably necessary in Spanish times to protect the “peninsular” against the “insular.” The common-law idea of self-defense, of personal rights, however, is more in keeping with our own ideals and with our own system, to which Cuba must necessarily approximate more and more as time goes on. Under American influence the Cuban criminal code is in process of revision, and it also, as well as the electoral system, will soon be brought into harmony with American democratic ideas. This code revision, both in its immediate effects and in its educational value, may be classed as one of the greatest works being effected by the present provisional government in Cuba.

*Drainage  
and  
Reclamation.*

Governor Magoon and his American and Cuban advisers have begun the study of a highly important work of drainage and reclamation, comparable with the reclamation of the arid lands in our own West, or with the drainage of the Pontine marshes in Italy. This enterprise is still in the stage of engineering study. The engineer who is studying it, however, is General Mario Menocal, an able engineer, and one of the most eminent and trusted of Cuba's public men. The administration moreover has allotted ample funds for the purpose. The direct object is to prevent the periodical inundation of a large area of potentially fertile land lying partly in Matanzas and partly

in Santa Clara province. Many thousands of acres of good land can be thus reclaimed and made highly productive, and the health of two entire provinces very greatly improved as a result of this work. Other reclamation work is being done at different points on the island, and a good deal of money spent in relieving flood-sufferers of the inundated section in Matanzas province.

*Noteworthy  
Municipal  
Improvements.*

Considerable noteworthy work of municipal health improvement has been accomplished as a result of the appropriation of a fund of \$80,000 made some years ago by the Palma government, and originally intended to relieve these Matanzas flood-sufferers. When the American provisional government came into control Governor Lecuona, who had charge of the money, asked that a United States army officer be detailed to inspect the accounts, make recommendations for further allotments of this money, and supervise the execution of such works as might be authorized. As a direct result of this there has been inaugurated, in various cities of Matanzas province, many highly important municipal improvements. Streets have been macadamized, drainage provided, water systems installed, whole cities cleaned, and the health conditions of some ten or twelve towns very greatly improved. From time to time, as the reports indicated further allotments of money, it was given, and necessary improvements authorized. Recently the results of this work have been inspected, and an allotment of \$3,000,000 set aside for similar works in all the larger towns in the island. The small work of the past year in one province has not only served to improve the conditions of life in the towns of that province, but the attention of the general government has been so drawn to the problems involved that work is now to be undertaken on a large scale, which will speedily result in extension of these benefits all over Cuba.

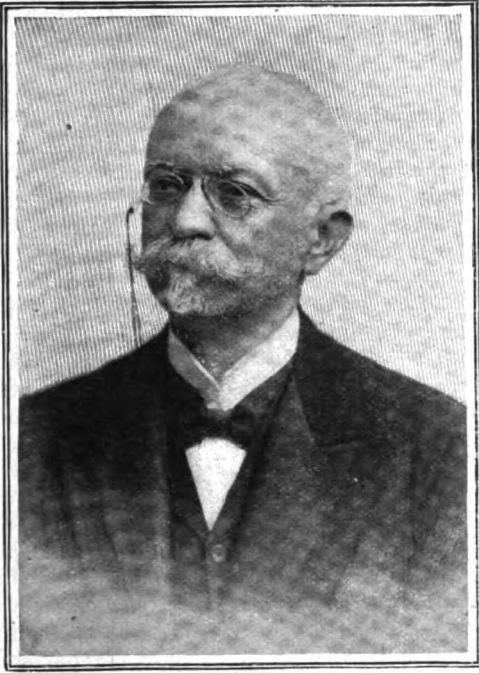


THE UNITED STATES OF CENTRAL AMERICA,—A GERMAN VIEW.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT: “Yes, yes, in union there is strength.”

From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).

*The Agreement  
in  
Central America* The recently concluded agreement between the Central American states upon the treaties of friendship and intercourse, which, it is generally believed, will prevent future revolutions and dictatorships in those countries, has been commented upon very favorably by the press of the civilized world,—not, however, without some side remarks in the continental European press upon the alleged interested motives of our own Government and people in assisting at the conference. The German



DR. AFFONSO PENNA, PRESIDENT OF BRAZIL.

(Who in the name of his government has extended a warm welcome to the American fleet.)

cartoon reproduced here illustrates this feeling in Europe. Noteworthy items of news in the dispatches from Central America and the Caribbean countries during the past few weeks have been the floating of the new \$5,000,000 loan in England by the Salvadorean Government, the virtual settlement of the serious cigarmakers' strike in Cuba, and the reported revolutionary outbreak against the Haitian Government by a force under Gen. Jean Juneau.

*The Fleet in  
South American  
Waters.*

The American naval force, under command of Rear-Admiral Evans, which sailed from Hampton Roads on December 16, completed the first stage of its long journey on schedule time, with safety and credit to our Government and our sailor-men. After halting at Trinidad on December 24, the fleet proceeded to Rio de Janeiro, arriving at the Brazilian capital on January 12. Unusual honors were paid to our ships and their officers by the Brazilian Government and the Brazilian people, and the day of their arrival was made an occasion of national festivity. President Penna took the occasion to gracefully announce a reduction of import duties on cer-

tain American products, in accordance with the Brazilian tariff law passed in June, 1906. Soon after this issue of *THE REVIEW OF REVIEWS* reaches its readers our fleet will be sailing northward on the west coast of South America, receiving and transmitting expressions of good will at the ports of Chile, Peru, Equador, and Colombia. It has been particularly gratifying to Americans to receive the evidence of friendly feeling on the part of the great sister Republic of Brazil, a friendly feeling which is heartily reciprocated. The warships of America on this cruise, to quote the words of President Roosevelt in his reply to the Brazilian President's friendly greeting, "exist for no other purpose than to protect peace against possible aggression, justice against possible oppression. As between the United States and Brazil these ships are not men-of-war, but messengers of friendship and good will."

*Foolish  
War Talk  
Subsiding.*

To Americans who are unused to the delicate play of rumor, suspicion, and suggestion that characterize the diplomacy of the Old World, it has been surprising to read the reports in European journals of standing and influence concerning the possibility of war between these United States and Japan. Even the most sensational articles in our own yellow press have not begun to compare with the startling announcements appearing in the journals of the Continent,—of France, of Germany, and of Russia particularly,—not merely speculating upon the possibility, or even probability, of a war, but assuming its certainty and arguing as to its outcome. The gratifying change in the tenor of these articles, particularly in the French press during early January, while Rear-Admiral Evans' fleet was receiving the friendly greetings of the Brazilian capital, was largely due to the personal influence of the French Ambassador, M. Jusserand, who vigorously and emphatically informed the Paris Foreign Office that such comments were creating false impressions in the United States. A milder tone has been noticeable in the Japanese press also, and our own daily newspapers have apparently come to a realizing sense of the foolishness and danger of publishing such articles as constantly appeared in their columns before the sailing of our fleet. The possibility that the ships may even visit Japanese ports and return by way of Suez is a perfectly natural one and should not be indicative of anything but friendliness to all the world.



BARON SHIBUSAWA, THE "J. PIERPONT MORGAN OF JAPAN."

(One of the influential financiers of the empire, who is leading the opposition to the financial policies of the Saionji Ministry.)

*Crisis in  
the Japanese  
Ministry*

The problems confronting Japan in these first years of her actual entrance into the family of the great powers are as much industrial and commercial as those of all the western nations. With the opening of the Diet (on December 28 last) the Tokio government faced a campaign of difficult and delicate character to carry through its general economic and financial policies, and present some sort of justification to the country for its attitude on the emigration and Manchurian questions. The drain put upon the limited resources of the Island Empire by the war with Russia, and the subsequent employment of capital on a vast scale for the development of Japanese schemes of commercial expansion on the Asiatic mainland and in her Pacific merchant marine, have taxed heavily the productive resources of the country. It was the presentation of the budget synopsis (on January 16) for the current and the next year that forced the resignation of two members of the cabinet and revealed the intensity of political feeling in the empire on the question of industrial and financial expansion. According to the budget, all available annual receipts for the next two years will fall below the imperative expenditures by 40,000,000 yen (approximately \$20,000,000). The deficiency, it was proposed by the Minister of Finance, should

be met by an increase in taxation, provision for which was to be submitted in a supplementary budget. The estimated cost of the war with Russia,—\$940,000,000,—about half of which is held abroad, makes up a large proportion of the entire national debt at present. In addition, there is the economic and commercial ambition of the Japanese people in developing Korea and Manchuria and administering Formosa.

*An  
Unsatisfactory  
Budget.*

The reception accorded to these budget proposals forced the resignation of Yoshiro Sakatani, Minister of Finance, and Isaburo Yamagata, Minister of Communications. Marquis Saionji, the Prime Minister, also tendered his resignation to the Emperor, who, however, refused to accept it. The portfolios of the other ministers were turned over provisionally to the Ministers of Home Affairs and Justice. The audience granted by the Emperor to ex-Premier Katsura immediately upon the resignation of the cabinet ministers is indicative of the trend of popular and governmental opinion in favor of a more moderate financial policy. Count Katsura, who was Premier during the war with Russia, has never been in favor of the large and ambitious economic projects of the present ministry. Many of the most eminent financiers and leading merchants of the country, including Viscount Shibusawa, have pointed out to the present ministry the dangerous magnitude of some of its financial enterprises, and it would appear that the solid strength of the Japanese masses is with them in their contention, particularly since these projects involve increased taxation and heavy expenditures for the army and navy. The per capita taxation in Japan (\$31.50) is already very high for the productive capacity of the Japanese people. Some of the friends of the government are apparently determined to force the party in power to appeal to the country. All well-informed students of Japanese politics agree that the present situation is due entirely to the financial problem. The immigration question is entirely apart. All the political groups in the empire believe that the question as it now exists with the United States and Canada can and will be settled amicably. There can be no doubt of the honest intention of the Tokio government to limit Japanese emigration to American and Canadian ports. The path of expansion for the empire lies eastward to Asia, not westward to America.

**Railroad  
Progress  
in China.**

Although administrative and political reform throughout China proceeds very slowly and with many interruptions, the consciousness of the Chinese commercial classes as to their economic rights and privileges is already full grown. This was made evident by the terms of the railway concession granted last month to an English and German company for the construction of a line, 700 miles long, from Tien Tsin to Ching Kiang. A line already runs from the latter point to Shanghai. By the terms of the agreement the loan advanced by the British and German capitalists is to be secured by imperial promise to pay, with a lien on the revenues of the provinces through which the line passes. The railroad itself is to be absolutely and forever free from any foreign influence or claim. Chinese administration is to have full control and operation of the service, examination of the books of the company being the only concession made to the creditors. There are now nearly 4000 miles of railway in operation in the Chinese Empire and more than 1600 miles under construction. It would seem that the deep-seated Chinese prejudice against the railway is in fair way to be removed. When this shall have happened and the important cities of the great Middle Kingdom shall be connected by railway lines the already existing system in Siberia will bring Chinese commercial products direct to Europe in scarcely a tenth of the time it formerly took. We recommend to our readers the articles on Chinese educational and legal reform which appear in this issue of the REVIEW (pages 213-218).

**The Chinese  
and the  
Foreigner.**

The progress of Japan's commercial absorption of Manchuria serves, as time goes by, to deepen the already deep-seated suspicion and animosity of the Chinese, who are bitter against the Japanese Government for the degree of Japanese ascendancy they perceive and for the further encroachments they suspect upon not only their sovereignty in the northern provinces, but their commercial prosperity in the heart of the empire itself. This anti-Japanese feeling in China is coming to be regarded as one of the most serious significant political signs of the times. Meanwhile, it is interesting to note that last month the Senate at Washington passed the joint resolution introduced by Senator Lodge embodying President Roosevelt's suggestion providing for the remission of more than half of the

Chinese debt to the United States growing out of the Boxer uprising. The Chinese bond, now fixed at \$24,000,000, is to be reduced to \$11,000,000. It is also of significance and more than passing interest to note that, at a recent government examination at Peking to test the ability of forty-two students who had been sent abroad for education, out of the only seven securing the doctor's degree five had been educated in America.

**Paul Milyukov,  
a Constructive  
Statesman.**

For Americans by far the most interesting development in the Russian situation during the past month was the visit to New York and Washington of Prof. Paul Milyukov, who, it will be remembered, was the leader of the Constitutional Democrats in the first and third Dumas. Professor Milyukov came to this country for the express purpose of addressing a meeting of the Civic Forum of New York. He afterward took a short trip to Washington, where he was informally received by prominent men of the Administration. He did not meet President Roosevelt, owing to the protest of the Russian Ambassador, Baron Rosen. Professor Milyukov is eminent as one of the few constructive Russian statesmen of the present period. His achievements as leader of the moderate group in the first and third Dumas, his broadminded, statesmanlike editing (with the famous Dr. Hessen) of the Liberal newspaper, the *Retch*, as well as the scholarly charm of his personality, and his excellent command of the spoken word in English, made his address (in New York on January 14) of peculiar interest and instructive value to all Americans who are



PERPETUAL MOTION.

The Americans kick the Japanese out of California, and the Japanese retaliate by kicking the Chinese out of Manchuria.

From *Shinkoron* (Tokio).



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PROF. PAUL MILYUKOV.

(The eminent Russian statesman and member of the Duma, who has been visiting the United States.)

interested in the progress of the modernization of Russia. The professor's address was a review of the entire history of the Russian revolutionary movement during the past twenty-six months, the period following the issue of the famous manifesto of October, 1905. The present situation, not only in the Duma, but in the country at large, he de-

scribed as one of "unstable equilibrium." On the whole, he was pessimistic as to the immediate future of his fatherland. The campaign for constitutional government in Russia, he declared, has resolved itself into a battle between classes, the end of which is not in sight. At present, in his opinion, "the court, and the nobility in particular, have become the leading forces in an openly avowed movement which is setting in for the restoration of autocracy."

*The Genesis  
of the Russian  
Revolution*

The radical success, which was put down with the bloody armed insurrection in Moscow more than a year ago, and the agrarian insurrection that followed, were the first stages in the revolution, Professor Milyukov asserts; the triumph of reaction is the third. The attitudes of the different political parties since the establishment of the first Duma he set forth in these words:

The revolutionary movement aimed at a commonwealth, while the reactionaries wanted to re-establish autocracy. The Constitutional Democratic party decided to fight for a parliamentary rule under a constitutional monarch. The revolutionists wished to have a charter worked out by a constitutional convention and sanctioned by a victorious revolution. The reactionaries did not want any charter at all, or at the worst a consultative representation granted by the Czar. Our party proposed a charter worked out by the first representative assembly, subject to the approval of the Czar.

*The Future  
of Russia  
at Stake.*

The Russian leader declared that his government has failed to keep its promises and has inaugurated and carried on a merciless warfare of repression. "The government did not grant any liberties," said he.

Only those liberties were and are permitted which the government was and is powerless to forbid; and such liberties are often used without any legal restraint, while a regular and law abiding practice of civil liberties is nearly always refused legal permission. Thus, under the new régime of national representation the executive power tried to remain what it had always been before, and it never thought of changing its former methods of administration. And as long as the present misrule lasts it is almost impossible for the legislative power to do its proper work.

The entire social condition of the future Russia is now at stake, he continued. "What are the forces that try to hold it in check?" he asked, and here is his answer:

The alliance of the two decaying political powers [the court and the nobility] for their own self-defence cannot obstruct the royal historical road the nation is following. The child-

ish explanation of the movement, as initiated and fostered by a foreign or anti-Russian intrigue, cannot do away with its deeper causes. And the foolish idea that the peasants of our communes can be changed at once into private proprietors can only cause new ferment in our villages, honeycombed with poverty and famine as they are. In short, wherever we turn or look we only meet with new trouble to come, nowhere with any hope for social conciliation or peace.

The party of which Professor Milyukov is the leader stands for ideas more nearly those of Americans as to popular government than any other in the Russian Empire. Should peaceful means fail, he believes that a bloody revolution is probable within two years. If full constitutionalism should be actually achieved in his time, he will undoubtedly come into his own as one of the most trusted leaders of the new era.

*The Finances of Prussia.* The German Imperial Chancellor, Count von Bülow, is also Minister-President of the Prussian Diet,—that is, Prime Minister of the kingdom. In this latter capacity he has lately been confronted by problems of even greater difficulty than those which face him as Chancellor of the empire. Not only is Prussia in need of funds to carry on the administration of her government; she has also before her a serious political problem growing out of the long-delayed, sadly needed reform in her franchise laws. In the discussion of the royal budget (on January 14) Baron von Rheinbaben, the Minister of State and Finance, announced that, in view of a deficit in the budget of more than \$100,000,000 a loan of at least \$75,000,000 would be necessary. Railroad development, large increases in the salaries of state officials, and the compulsory purchase of lands in Poland for settlement by German peasants are the chief needs for these new funds.

*The Prussian Suffrage Right.* The question of reform in Prussia's suffrage system has been agitated for more than a decade. As has been noted more than once in these pages, the Prussian voting right is based almost exclusively upon a property qualification. There are three classes of electors, apportioned according to taxation values in such a manner that, up to the present time, the laboring classes have not been able to elect a single representative to the Diet, although they have a number in the imperial Parliament. The demonstrations in Berlin, early last month, to obtain direct manhood suffrage were engi-

neered by the Socialists. After the rioters had been suppressed by the police, Prime Minister von Bülow announced in the Diet that while the government recognizes the need for electoral reform these popular demonstrations would not hasten such reform in the slightest



BARON VON RHEINBABEN, PRUSSIAN MINISTER OF STATE AND FINANCE.

(Whose budget has caused much heated discussion in the Diet.)

degree. He declared it as the opinion of the government that manhood suffrage would not be for the good of the Prussian state. Many progressive Germans, however, including the eminent political and economic writer, Dr. Theodor Barth, who has recently returned to Germany after studying our own political and economic methods, have publicly announced that they will push to the end the campaign for direct manhood suffrage in Prussia. It is interesting to note in passing that the final outcome of the Moltke-Harden scandal trials, the significance of which was pointed out in this magazine last month, has been the conviction of Harden to four months' imprisonment for having criminally libeled von Moltke. The latter, however, and the rest of the so-called "camarilla" appear to have been completely and permanently discredited.

*How France  
Is Holding  
Her Own.*

Military glory is no longer the ambition and life object of the French people, as it was for nearly two centuries. It is becoming increasingly evident that the progressive decrease in the army and navy establishments of the republic, both in money spent and term of service for soldier and sailor, as well as the many evidences of administrative corruption and apparent inefficiency in both branches of the service, are not indications of biological decay in the French people. The French soldier and sailor are to-day capable of rendering splendid accounts of themselves in warfare. This is the deliberate judgment of keen German and British critics who have seen the French forces fighting in Morocco. A rather sensational editorial appeared some weeks ago in that usually sedate Parisian journal, the *Temps*, entitled "The World Arms, France Disarms," in which was pointed out that for the year 1908 the republic devotes a smaller per cent. of her budget by half to maintaining and developing her fighting equipment than any other naval and military nation of the world.

*France's  
Financial  
Dominance.*

It is evident that in the international competition as a fighting nation France is losing her rank. This is in all probability due to the



THE BIRD OF SCANDAL IN THE MOLKE-HARDEN CASE.

ZEALOUS PRINCE BULOW: "Don't you worry about it, my dear; we'll soon clean it up again."

From *Nebelplatter* (Zurich).

Frenchman's growing dislike for war,—perhaps the result of Socialistic propaganda,—and his increasing wealth. That it is not a loss of actual position is believed not only by French economists, but by those of other European nations, who point in support of their view to the increasing wealth and economic prosperity of the French people and their gradual assumption of the banking supremacy of the world. The French are individually the richest of peoples. Statistics recently compiled by the ministry of finance of the republic show that more than one-half the Frenchmen who die leave property behind, and at least a quarter of all the population of France over seventy years of age have enough to live upon without appeal to charity. Cases of family poverty are extremely rare in France and instances of absolute want almost unknown. The famous statistician, Bertillon, recently demonstrated by figures that of every four Frenchmen of fifty years of age three own something of a character and sufficient value to be taxable by the government. If the tri-color no longer symbolizes a conquering military people, the franc has indeed become the symbol of the Frenchman's industry and the world-wide influence of his thrift.

*More State Aid  
to Commerce  
in France.*

Quite in line with the strengthening of the industrial and financial position of the French Republic by the evolution of economic forces is the determination of the Paris government, at the suggestion of M. Pichon, Minister of Foreign Affairs, to reorganize in the direction of greater practical efficiency the political and commercial machinery of the republic's foreign relations. According to a change announced to go into effect the first of the present month (a special decree authorizing this was issued by the Parliament April 29 last), all the diplomatic and commercial affairs of the Foreign Office will be concentrated in one department. A Bureau of Communications will be established to act as the distributing office for information and news, with particular reference to the home and foreign press. This department, it is announced, will be under the management of M. Herbertte, son of a former French Ambassador at Berlin, a man well fitted by native gifts and experience to conduct a dignified, vigorous, and effective journalistic campaign of world scope. The French diplomatic and consular services are also to be slightly reorganized, and it is hoped that the new director, M. Georges



Louis, will infuse new life and vigor into the already well organized but somewhat perfunctory commercial service of France resident abroad.

*British Politics.*

The British Liberals are realizing the distance between promise and fulfilment. The difficulty of carrying out to a successful issue the important projects discussed in the campaign before the last general election, and in the face of the opposition of the House of Lords and the general conservatism of the British people, has made the progress of the present administration much slower than its friends had hoped, or even its enemies expected. Each successive "by" election goes against them, and it seems doubtful whether an appeal to the country would sustain the party. In domestic politics the questions of the tariff, labor legislation, and the ever-present Irish Home Rule, have been engrossing the attention of Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman and his cabinet. The serious illness of the Premier, at his advanced age (he will be seventy-two this year) has drawn sharp the issue of the future leadership of the Liberals. Speculation as to who is to succeed Sir Henry centers around John Morley, author and Secretary of the Indian Office, who himself has lived the three score and ten years; Mr. Herbert Asquith, Chancellor of the Exchequer, and Mr. Lloyd-George, president of the Board of Trade. Mr. George is one of the youngest men in the cabinet, and his chances for future leadership have been greatly increased by his consummate diplomatic skill in bringing to a successful issue the negotiations with the labor leaders during the recent threatened railroad strike. Mr. Winston Churchill, Under-Secretary for the Colonies, is also openly ambitious for the premiership.

*The Condition of British Trade.*

British business and finance, in common with the commercial interests and operations of the rest of the civilized world, have been affected to an unusual degree by the period of financial depression which has been experienced throughout the entire world. Some months ago the Bank of England raised its rate of discount to 7 per cent., the highest rate in many years. Even this attempt to check the outward flow of gold, however, was apparently unsuccessful. As financial conditions have gradually bettered during the past few weeks the bank has gradually reduced its discount rate, until on January



GENERAL D'AMADE, THE NEW FRENCH COMMANDER IN MOROCCO.

(He is an example of the younger French fighting men who are opposed to the anti-militarist campaign of the Socialists.)

16 it was only 5 per cent., the discount in the open market falling to  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. The year just passed did not show an encouraging commercial record to Englishmen, although the foreign trade of the empire actually exceeded record figures. American and German business conditions affect the British steel and textile trades, and the closing of a number of factories has thrown out of employment many thousands of workmen.

Questions of domestic economic interest that are of particular concern to Englishmen are the old-age pension proposals of the Liberal government and the liquor legislation which the administration has promised to bring about. The provisions of the licensing bill, under consideration by the Liberal government, have not been made public, but are said to mark an advance in legislation of this kind. It is worth while noting the progress made during the year just passed throughout the entire world in the matter of legal restrictions upon the traffic in intoxicants. First, there was the imperial Chinese edict against opium: then the French Parliament made some thorough investigations into the effect of alcoholism upon the citizens of the republic, and is now considering radical legis-

*Liquor Legislation All Over the World.*

lation on this subject. The Government of Roumania has just passed a stringent regulation law, and severe legislation on the same subject has progressed through the Spanish Cortes. The advance made in prohibition legislation in the United States during the past two years has already been treated in a special article in these pages.

From the four corners of the Morocco, Abyssinia, and compass on the continent of the Congo. Africa comes the news of racial antagonism that is fast making the dark continent the probable seat of the world struggle of the future. In Morocco the tribesmen have resumed their attacks on Europeans, and France finds her task in quieting the country made very much more difficult by what now seems the certainty of a "Holy War" and the proclamation by the religious leaders of the deposition of the Sultan Abd-el-Aziz and the accession of his rival, Mulai Hafid, who announces that he will appeal to Turkey for aid against further European aggression. General Drude, who has been commanding the French forces, has been replaced by a younger and more aggressive man, General d'Amade, and it is reported that France and Spain have agreed perfectly upon a forward movement, with no dissent by Germany. The republic has now 7000 or 8000 European troops in Morocco. The Italians have had another disastrous encounter with the Abyssinians. Late in December, it is reported, a raid by a large force of Abyssinians upon Italian military posts in Somaliland resulted in the capture of the town of Lugh and some Italian officers. King Menelik, however, has disavowed the attack and apologized for it. The center of the continent is still the point of interest for the thousands of Americans and Europeans who believe that the Belgian King has abused his trust in the Congo. A formal statement issued by the Brussels government on January 10, upon the accession of the new Premier, M. Schollaert, denies that King Leopold has made any personal profit from the exploitation of the Congo, and replies to other charges made against the Belgian monarch.

In German East Africa, Herr Dernburg, the Colonial Minister, reports much progress has been made in the way of economic development. A good many optimistic and cheerful observations have also been made by British Colonial Under-Secretary Mr. Churchill



Photograph by Mishkin, N. Y.

MADAM LUISA TETRAZZINI.

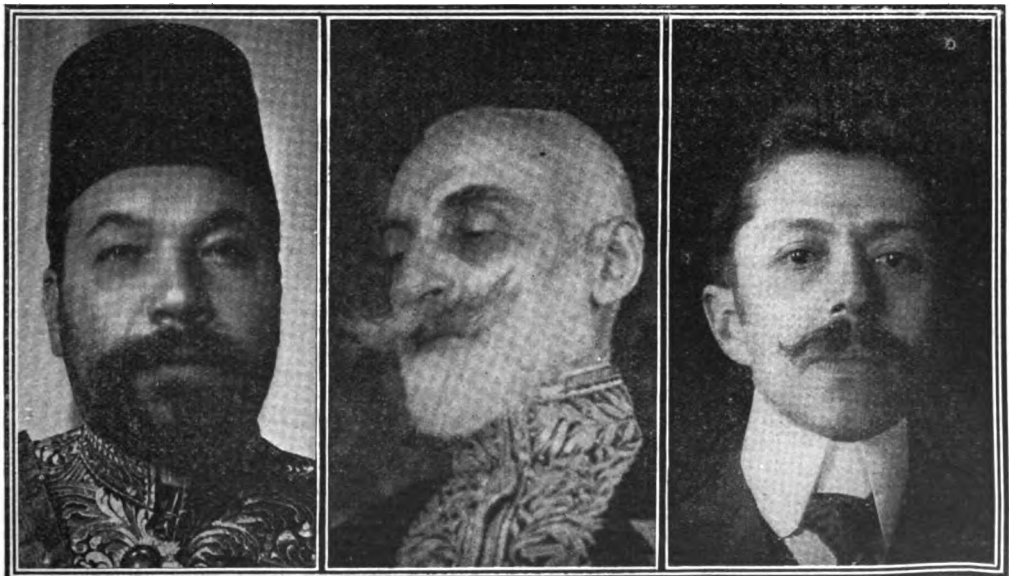
(The Italian soprano opera singer with the phenomenal voice.)

upon his return from his tour through the British colonies in South Africa. Britain, however, still has her troubles in the south of the continent. A revolt in Natal, under the leadership of the Zulu chief Dinizulu, has been brought to an end by the capture and trial of that chieftain, while an unsettled condition amounting to open revolt still exists in Swaziland. The Transvaal government, in the face of much excitement and opposition, is enforcing the provisions of the immigration restriction act requiring all Asiatics in that colony to register or be deported. This bears hard on the Hindus, who are themselves British subjects, as well as on the Chinese in the Transvaal. Between the German and the British possessions, in the Portuguese domain of Angola on the west coast of the continent also, there is a ferment over alleged atrocities against the natives by rapacious colonial officials. It should be noted also that a formal agreement between France and Liberia fixes the eastern boundary of the African republic, which had been in dispute for more than a quarter of a century.

*Mme. Tetrizzini's Triumph.* Not since the days of Nilsson, Gerster, and Patti has there been, in the operatic annals of New York, such a reception accorded to a dramatic singer as that given Madame Luisa Tetrizzini, the Italian soprano, upon her appearance at the Manhattan Opera House on January 15 as Violetta in the opera "Traviata." It was not the first time that Madame Tetrizzini had appeared on an American musical stage. She has sung in San Francisco and has been a favorite in Mexico and South America for a decade. The question was, would an audience in the American metropolis receive her as enthusiastically as she had been received by continental and English houses? There is no doubt of the greatness of Madame Tetrizzini's voice and the perfection of her acting. Indeed, the critics declare that it is in the combination of beautiful singing and the depth of dramatic feeling that the Italian singer's genius lies. Her voice is not the most perfect that has been heard in New York, but the color of her high notes and the intimate blending and mutual support of her musical and dramatic gifts have seldom if ever been equaled on any musical stage.

*Do Americans Really Love Good Music?* Apropos of the New York debut of this Italian singer and the first production in New York of Charpentier's "Louise," a musical masterpiece

which has been receiving the homage of continental and English audiences for nearly a decade, quite a host of self-deprecating American critics have been repeating, in our daily and weekly press, the old, reiterated charge that Americans are not a music-understanding or a music-loving people. One of the most successful opera singers of the present season, Miss Mary Garden, herself an American girl, who received her education and achieved her first triumphs abroad, and is now charming New York audiences, contributes to a recent number of *Everybody's Magazine* a passionate wail on the "debasing" of music in America. She says: "Of the great modern school of music the American public knows as yet scarcely anything, and it is to-day quite content and happy with the operas of its grandmothers." Replying to this charge, Mr. W. J. Henderson, the eminent critic and author of books on music, declares that while we have as yet produced but little, we have the fresh and omnivorous appetite of youth and "a catholicity of judgment unparalleled in the world. . . . We have no national prejudices, no racial affections." We have, however, "that openness of mind which is one of the most striking and invaluable characteristics of any attitude toward musical art." American music lovers who have heard what European vocal art has to offer will agree with Mr. Henderson's analysis.



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Mehmed Ali Bey, Turkey.

L. A. Coronulas, Greece.

Luis Toledo, Guatemala.

THREE NEW MINISTERS TO THE UNITED STATES.

# RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From December 21, 1907, to January 20, 1908.)

## PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

January 6.—Both branches reassemble after the holiday recess, but immediately adjourn on account of the death of Senator Mallory, of Florida.

January 7.—In the Senate, Mr. Aldrich (Rep., R. I.) introduces an emergency currency bill. . . . In the House, Mr. Bennet (Rep., N. Y.) introduces a bill appropriating \$550,000 for improvements at the Ellis Island immigrant receiving station; Mr. Gill (Dem., Md.) introduces a resolution asking for all official papers bearing on the recent naval controversy.

January 8.—The House considers a bill for revision and codification of the laws.

January 9.—The Senate passes a bill to protect harbor defenses and fortifications from malicious injury; Mr. Hale (Rep., Maine) introduces a naval personnel bill, the chief provision of which is that naval vessels shall be commanded only by officers of the line. . . . The House devotes the session to the drawing of rooms for members in the new House office building.

January 10.—The House resumes consideration of the bill for codification of the laws.

January 11.—The House passes the resolution offered by Mr. Gill (Dem., Md.) calling for correspondence in connection with the naval controversy; Mr. Bennet (Rep., N. Y.) introduces a bill making ex-Presidents members at large of the House.

January 15.—The Senate passes the joint resolution remitting to China about \$13,000,000 of the Boxer indemnity; the resolution of Mr. Culberson (Dem., Tex.) calling on Secretary Cortelyou for information as to Panama bond awards is adopted. . . . The House continues consideration of the bill for revision and codification of the criminal laws.

January 16.—The Senate passes a bill appropriating \$3,500,000 for a New York post-office building, and confirms the nomination of Regis L. Post as Governor of Porto Rico. . . . The House votes down all Democratic amendments to the Civil Code bill.

January 20.—The House passes the bill providing for a new immigrant station at Philadelphia.

## POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

December 24.—Rear-Admiral Brownson, U. S. N., resigns as chief of the Bureau of Navigation.

December 25.—Governor Broward, of Florida, appoints William James Bryan (Dem.) United States Senator to succeed S. R. Mallory, deceased. . . . The Commissioners of Accounts of New York City charge the members of the Board of Water Supply with misconduct and incompetency.

December 28.—President Roosevelt counter-

mands the order for federal troops to leave Goldfield on condition that Governor Sparks within five days issues a call for an extra session of the Nevada Legislature. . . . The Republican State Central Committee of Kansas indorses Secretary Taft for President, and calls a State convention for March 4 at Topeka.

December 30.—Secretary Taft speaks at Boston, upholding the position of the national Administration in relation to the recent financial stringency. . . . Governor Sparks, of Nevada, calls a special session of the State Legislature to meet on January 14.

January 1.—Judge Pritchard of the United States Court issues an injunction restraining the South Carolina Dispensary Board from disposing of funds. . . . The New York Legislature meets and organizes.

January 2.—President Roosevelt appoints Capt. John E. Pillsbury chief of the Bureau of Navigation to fill the vacancy caused by the resignation of Rear-Admiral Brownson. . . . The supporters of Secretary Taft carry their point in the meeting of the Ohio Republican State Committee, which votes to call primaries on February 11 and the State convention on March 3.

January 3.—Senator Foraker, of Ohio, refuses to be bound by the terms of the call issued by the Republican State Committee.

January 4.—Secretary of the Navy Metcalf issues orders formally assigning Surgeon Charles F. Stokes to command of the hospital ship *Relief*.

January 5.—Superintendent of Schools Chancellor, of the District of Columbia, is dismissed by the Board of Education for making alleged statements derogatory to officials.

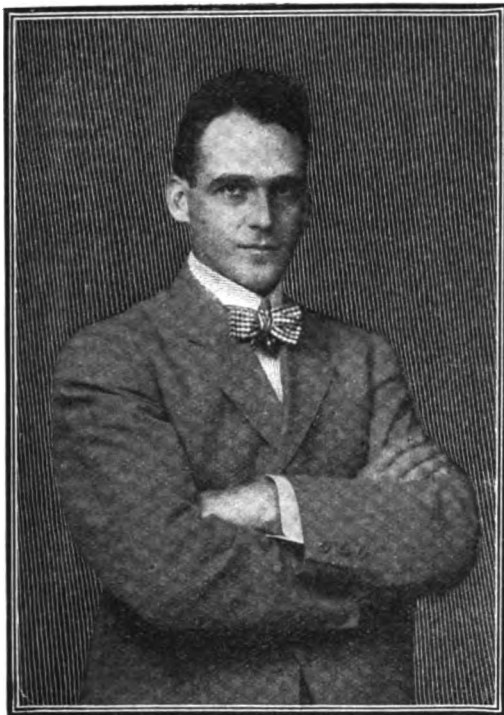
January 6.—United States Supreme Court declares the Employers' Liability law unconstitutional. . . . Admiral Brownson's letter of resignation as chief of the Bureau of Navigation is made public by President Roosevelt.

January 7.—James H. Higgins (Dem.) is inaugurated Governor of Rhode Island for the second time.

January 8.—The Republican State Committee of Oklahoma indorses Secretary Taft for President. . . . Attorney-General Bonaparte orders suits to be brought against a number of railroads charged with violating the Safety Appliance law.

January 9.—A decision of the District Court of Appeals at San Francisco wipes out the convictions of Schmitz and Ruef. . . . A letter is made public from Secretary Taft to the secretary of the Ohio Federation of Labor, giving Mr. Taft's views on the use and abuse of injunctions. . . . The progressive faction of the Republican party in Iowa gains control of the State Central Committee.

January 10.—Secretary Taft addresses the



HON. WILLIAM JAMES BRYAN.

(Appointed to fill the unexpired term of the late Senator Mallory, of Florida.)

People's Institute of New York City in Cooper Union on the relations of labor and capital.

January 15.—The Maryland Legislature elects John Walter Smith (Dem.) United States Senator for the full term of six years, beginning March 4, 1909, and Senator William Pinkney Whyte (Dem.) to fill the unexpired term of the late Senator Gorman.

January 16.—President Roosevelt approves the recommendation of the Isthmian Canal Commission that the width of the Panama Canal locks be increased to 110 feet....Senator Foraker, of Ohio, issues a reply to the same set of questions relating to the use and abuse of injunctions that was recently answered by Secretary Taft.

January 20.—The Pennsylvania Supreme Court declares the 2-cent railroad fare law unconstitutional....Corporation Counsel Pendleton, of New York City, advises Mayor McClellan that the Ashokan Dam charges should be dropped.

#### POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

December 21.—The French Chamber of Deputies, by a vote of 354 to 177, passes the bill providing for the devolution of church property to the state.

December 23.—The Shah of Persia accepts all the stipulations submitted by his cabinet and Parliament.

December 24.—An edict is issued in Peking,

China, warning the people to make no further demands, and authorizing the framing of a law for the regulation of political societies.

December 25.—A decree is issued by the Portuguese Government fixing the elections for the Chamber of Deputies for April 5, 1908....The Dutch cabinet resigns, owing to its defeat on the army estimates in the second chamber....The trial begins in St. Petersburg of the 169 signatories of the Viborg manifesto, members of the Liberal and Labor parties in the first Russian Duma.

December 26.—The Indian National Congress opens at Surat, but owing to the action of extremists is suspended.

December 28.—It is announced that Lord Curzon is a candidate for the vacancy created among the Irish representative peers by the death of Lord Kilmaine....The Bulgarian Government proclaims Panitza and Sandansky and their confederates to be brigands....The Shah of Persia takes oath before Parliament to support the Persian constitution....The Emperor of Japan opens the Parliament....The Russian Duma passes an appropriation of \$7,500,000 for the relief of twelve provinces suffering from famine....Bureaus of information regarding constitutional government in China are closed in Peking.

December 30.—Signor Severino Casana is appointed Italian Minister of War in place of General Vigano, resigned.

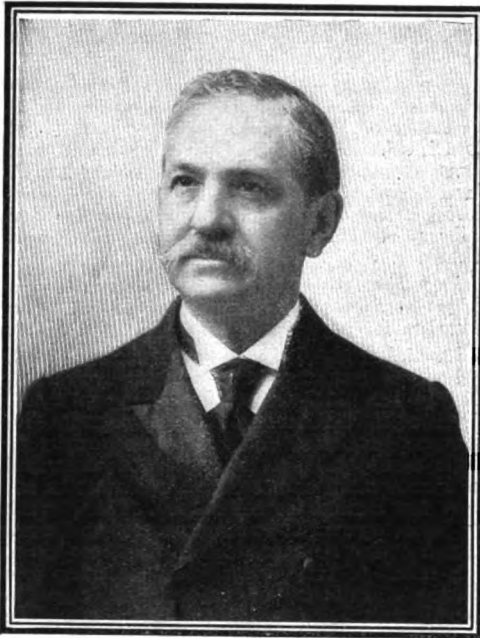
December 31.—One hundred and sixty-seven members of the first Russian Duma who signed the Viborg manifesto are sentenced to three months' imprisonment; two of the accused persons are acquitted.

January 1.—The government of Manitoba purchases the Bell telephone system in the province for \$3,300,000, payment to be made in forty-year 4 per cent. bonds....An uprising of the Mosquito Indians against President Zelaya is reported from Nicaragua.



Hon. Thomas F. Gore. Hon. Robert L. Owen.

UNITED STATES SENATORS FROM OKLAHOMA.



THE LATE CHARLES EMORY SMITH.  
(Postmaster-General in the McKinley Cabinet.)

January 2.—Nineteen Russians are arrested on a charge of conspiring to murder the Dowager Empress.... All the members of the Executive Committee of the Popular Socialist party in Russia are indicted on the charge of conspiracy to overthrow the government.

January 3.—It is announced that M. Briand will take the post of Minister of Justice in the French cabinet, retaining the portfolio of Public Worship.

January 4.—M. Doumergue, Minister of Commerce in the French cabinet, is transferred to the ministry of public instruction, and M. Cruppi becomes Minister of Commerce.... The Prussian Minister of Finance announces that bids will be asked for a loan of \$75,000,000.... King Gustav of Sweden orders the abolishment of the pompous ceremonies with which the Parliament has been opened.

January 9.—M. Schollaert, recently appointed Minister of the Interior of Belgium, accepts in addition the post of Premier.

January 11.—Mulai Hafid is proclaimed Sultan of Morocco, and a holy war is declared.

January 14.—Marquis Saionji, the Japanese Premier, tenders his resignation, which the Emperor refuses: the cabinet division over finances is settled by the elimination of the Minister of Finance and the Minister of Communication, their posts being taken by the ministers of Justice and of the Interior, respectively.... The German Minister of the Interior says that a bill will be introduced increasing the coinage of silver.

January 16.—The formal opening of the first Swedish Parliament under the reign of King

Gustav takes place at Stockholm.... A revolutionary movement against the Haitian Government is begun under the leadership of Jean Juneau, a former insurgent.

January 17.—William O'Brien and Timothy Healy decide to rejoin the Irish Nationalist party under the leadership of John Redmond.

January 18.—The British Liberals lose a seat in Parliament by the election of Capt. Morrison-Bell, Unionist, for the Asburton division of Devon.... President Castro of Venezuela annuls the contract between the government and the Venezuelan salt monopoly, an English corporation.

January 19.—The Progressive party of Japan adopts a platform attacking the cabinet for bad finance and weak diplomacy.

January 20.—The Haitian Government forces attack and recapture the town of St. Marc, the insurgents offering slight resistance.... Lord Curzon is elected a representative peer for Ireland.

#### INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

December 26.—The Governor of Trinidad entertains the officers of the American fleet of battleships at Port of Spain.

December 28.—The Emperor of Japan, in a speech opening Parliament, lays stress on the increasingly cordial relations with foreign powers.... Natives of India refusing to register themselves are ordered to leave the Transvaal within forty-eight hours; 5000 leave.

December 31.—The Japanese Government replies to the suggestions offered by the United States relative to the future restriction of emigration.

January 6.—The French Government authorizes the statement that it expects a peaceful settlement of the questions at issue between Japan and America and is the sincere friend of both countries.

January 8.—It is announced that Japan has made proposals to China for the settlement of the dispute over telegraph lines.

January 10.—The Belgian Government issues its reply to the Congo State commission.

January 11.—Baron Takahira is informed by the Japanese Government of his appointment as Ambassador to the United States.... Representatives of nationalities suffering from oppression by the Sultan decide at a secret congress in Paris to unite to establish a constitutional régime in Turkey.

January 12.—The American battleship fleet is warmly welcomed at Rio de Janeiro by the Brazilian Government and the municipal authorities.

January 13.—President Penna of Brazil reduces the tariff duties on a number of productions of the United States in view of the favor extended to Brazilian coffee by this Government and to mark the visit of the American fleet.

January 14.—The United States receives from Spain \$570,000 in full payment of the principal of indemnity claims resulting from depredations of Spanish privateers upon American commerce between the years 1819 and 1834.... The officers of the American fleet at Rio de Janeiro pay a

visit to President Penna....A mission from Mulai Hafid arrives at Paris to inform the French Government that the so-called holy war in Morocco is not directed against foreigners and that the treaties made with Abd-el-Aziz will be respected.

January 16.—The French troops under Gen. d'Amade defeat a large force of Moors near Settal, Morocco.

January 17.—The diplomatic corps at Port au Prince, Haiti, protest against the expressed intention of the Haitian Government to shell the towns of Gonaives and St. Marc....Japan's occupation and annexation to Corea of the Chen-Tao district cause alarm in St. Petersburg.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

December 21.—Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria receives a popular welcome in Vienna on his first public appearance since his severe illness.

December 23.—The funeral of Lord Kelvin takes place in Westminster Abbey (see page 171)....Seven hundred survivors of the Indian mutiny are reviewed by Lord Roberts in London....Thousands of strikers in the Chilean nitrate fields return to work....The United States Supreme Court denies a petition of Messrs. Greene and Gaynor for a review of their conviction and sentence....The Executive Committee of the Carnegie Hero Fund Commission votes \$35,000 for the sufferers from the Mononga., W. Va., mine disaster.

December 24.—It is officially announced in England that action against the Zulu chief Silwane is abandoned....Business again ceases in Teheran and armed bands assemble in the public squares.

December 25.—Christmas was observed in the American battleship fleet at Port of Spain.... The New England cotton spinners decide to reduce their production by 25 per cent.; they control 80 per cent. of the spindles in New England.

December 26.—Kurdish raiders surround Urumiah in Persian Armenia and complete anarchy prevails there....The Bureau of Insular Affairs at Washington buys for \$3000 one-thousandth of a dram of radium to be used for experiments in the Philippines....Admiral Dewey celebrates his seventieth birthday.

December 27.—Dr. Sven Hedin announces that he has discovered in Tibet the true sources of the rivers Brahma Putra and Indus.

December 30.—The coffin of T. C. Druce is opened in Highgate Cemetery, London, and is found to contain the remains of an elderly man....A new pass into Alexandria harbor, thirty-five feet deep and 600 feet wide, is opened by Prince Aziz Hassan....The Canadian Pacific Railroad directors decide to issue \$23,336,000 of new stock, to be offered to stockholders on a basis of 20 per cent. of their holdings....School boards of the cities of Porto Rico adopt resolutions looking to a large extension of the system of instruction.

January 1.—The new law prohibiting the sale of alcoholic beverages goes into effect in Georgia.

January 2.—Because of improved financial

conditions in the United States and Germany the Bank of England lowers its rate of discount from 7 to 6 per cent....Judge Pritchard, of the United States Circuit Court, appoints S. D. Warfield and R. L. Williams receivers for the Seaboard Air Line Railway.

January 3.—Night riders make raids in the tobacco districts of Kentucky (see page 168)....The cotton-mill owners of Manchester, England, threaten a lockout of 200,000 employees unless the strikers yield by January 18....Maximilien Harden is convicted in Germany of libeling Count Kuno von Moltke, and is sentenced to four months' imprisonment and to pay the costs of the present and former trials.

January 4.—George A. Pettibone is acquitted at Boise, Idaho, of complicity in the murder of ex-Gov. Steunenburg....The jury in the fourth trial of Caleb Powers, accused of murdering Governor Goebel of Kentucky, disagrees, ten voting for acquittal.

January 8.—Prominent coal operators meet in Washington to devise means for preventing disasters in mines (see page 225)....A. B. Stickney and Charles H. F. Smith are appointed receivers for the Chicago Great Western Railroad by Federal Judge Sanborn of St. Paul.

January 9.—The East River tunnel, extending the New York subway from Manhattan to Brooklyn borough, is opened for traffic.

January 10.—The North German Lloyd and the Hamburg American Steamship companies, it is announced at Bremen, have entered into a four-year agreement which will result in a unity of action against the British lines in the ocean rate war.

January 12.—Seventy thousand persons attempting demonstrations for general suffrage in Berlin are dispersed by large forces of police; many are sabered.

January 13.—Nearly 200 persons are killed in a theater fire at Boyertown, Pa....Henry Farman makes a successful flight in an airship heavier than air at Paris, and wins the Deutsch-Archdeacon prize of \$10,000....Coal-carrying railroads petition Attorney-General Bonaparte to postpone beyond May 1 the operation of the new law compelling them to dispose of their coal properties....The New York Clearing-House Association decides to admit to membership trust companies on condition that they keep a 25 per cent. cash reserve.

January 14.—Prof. Paul Milyukov discusses constitutional government for Russia at Carnegie Hall, New York City.

January 15.—An earthquake, followed by a tidal wave, causes much damage at Gonaives, Haiti.

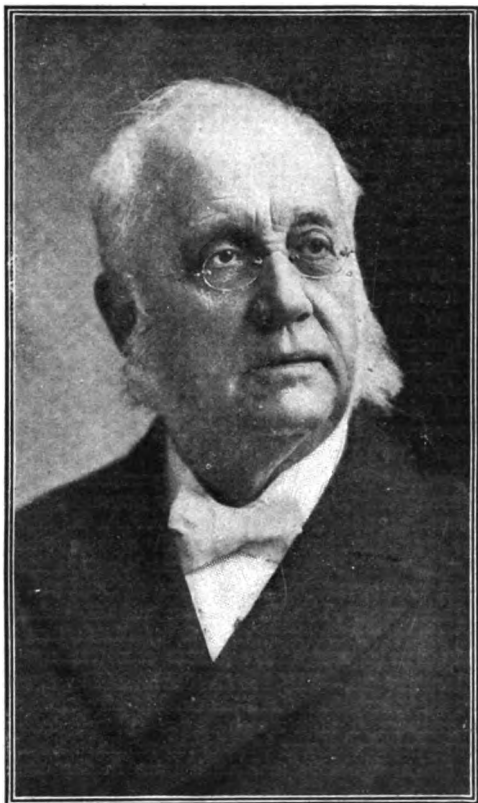
January 16.—The rate of discount of the Bank of England is reduced from 6 to 5 per cent.

January 17.—The American torpedo-boat squadron arrives at Rio de Janeiro from Pernambuco....The Sovereign Bank of Canada decides to go into liquidation.

January 18.—John R. Walsh is found guilty on nearly fifty counts of misapplying the funds of the Chicago National Bank.

January 19.—An anarchist plot to destroy a part of the American battleship fleet is discov-





THE LATE BISHOP E. G. ANDREWS, OF THE METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH.

ered at Rio de Janeiro....The Guatemalan Northern Railway, extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific, is formally opened at Guatemala City.

#### OBITUARY

December 21.—Musurus Pasha, Turkish ambassador in London, 66.

December 22.—Dr. Henry Patterson Loomis, professor of therapeutics and clinical medicine at Cornell University, 49.

December 23.—United States Senator Stephen R. Mallory, of Florida, 59....Pierre Jules Cesar Janssen, the French astronomer and physicist, 84....Prof. Oskar Lassar, the well-known German dermatologist, 59....Prof. Adalbert von Tobold, known as the father of German laryngology, 80....Herman N. Hyneman, a portrait painter of New York City, 49.

December 26.—Rear-Admiral Charles W. Abbot, U. S. N., retired, 78....Joseph Szmyt, editor of the *Wielkopolska* of Posen, Prussian Poland, 72....Jean Joseph Cornely, the French journalist and author, 62.

December 27.—John Chandler Bancroft Davis, formerly Minister to Germany and for many years official reporter of the United States Supreme Court, 85....Ex-Gov. Elihu Emory Jackson, of Maryland, 71....Carl Meisel, a distinguished Boston violinist, 79.

December 28.—Dr. Coleman Sellers, engineer and scientist, 81....William Marcus Thompson, editor of *Reynolds' Newspaper*, London, 51....Mrs. Letitia Tyler Semple, a former mistress of the White House, 86.

December 29.—Dr. Julian Dunajewski, one of the most eminent of Polish statesmen, 85.

December 30.—Chief Justice John D. Cassoday, of the Wisconsin Supreme Court, 77....Enos Houghton Tucker, one of the pioneer railroad men of New England, 93.

December 31.—Bishop Edward G. Andrews, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, 82....Jean Francois Edmond Guyot-Dessaigne, French Minister of Justice, 75....M. de Troos, Premier of Belgium....Charles Hermann-Leon, animal and genre painter, of Paris, 70....Prof. Thomas Day Seymour, of Yale University, 60....Judge John Watson Barr, a distinguished Kentucky jurist, 82....Brig.-Gen. Alfred Lindley Lee, a veteran of the Civil War, 74.

January 2.—Dr. Nicholas Senn, one of the most widely known surgeons in the United States, 63.

January 3.—Rev. Dr. Denis J. Stafford, rector of St. Patrick's Roman Catholic Church, of Washington, D. C., 47.

January 4.—Prof. Charles Augustus Young, one of the leading astronomers of the United States, 73.

January 6.—Ex-Congressman A. S. Berry, of Kentucky, 73.

January 7.—Bishop George Worthington, of the Protestant Episcopal Diocese of Nebraska, 67....Prince Stanislaus Poniatowski, head of the historic Polish house of that name....George L. Chase, president of the Hartford Fire Insurance Company, 80....Former State Senator Samuel Fessenden, of Connecticut, 60.

January 9.—Wilhelm Busch, the German caricaturist, 76....Abraham Goldfaden, the Yiddish poet and dramatist, 68.

January 10.—George F. Evans, vice-president and general manager of the Maine Central Railroad, 61.

January 11.—Dr. Frank Herbert Eaton, a well-known Canadian educationist, 57.

January 12.—Rabbi Bernhard Felsenphal, a distinguished Hebrew scholar and leader of "reformed Judaism," 86.

January 13.—Holger H. H. Drachmann, the Danish poet and author, 61.

January 14.—James Ryder Randall, writer of "Maryland, My Maryland," 69....William Livingston Alden, an American journalist, 70....Julius T. Melchers, the sculptor, 78.

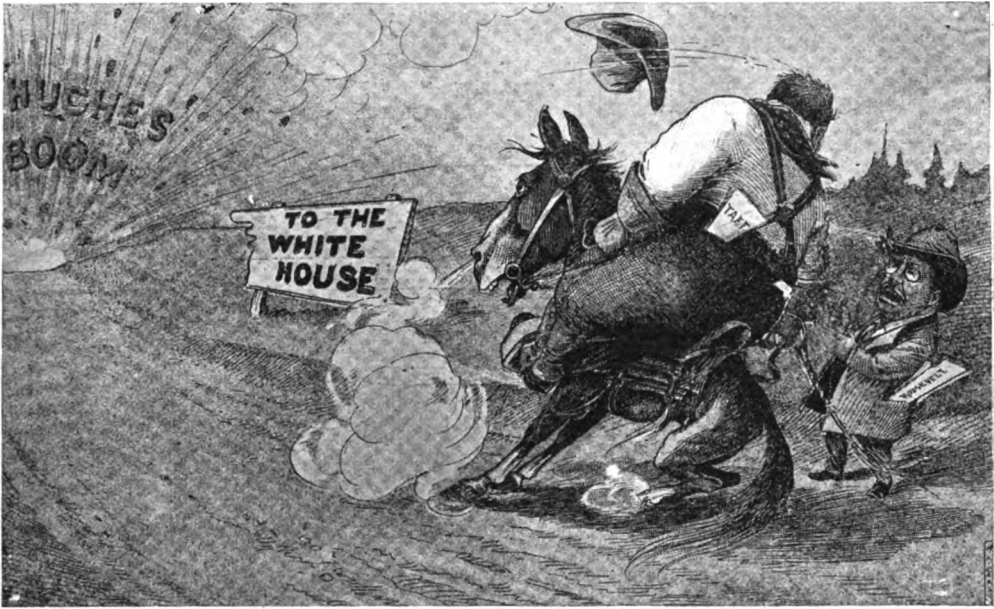
January 15.—Dr. William Rollins Shipman, dean of Tufts College, 72....Edward Henry Strobel, adviser to the King of Siam, 52.

January 16.—Mrs. Lydia K. Bradley, of Peoria, Ill., well known for her philanthropy, 92.

January 18.—Edmund Clarence Stedman, the banker-poet, 74....Ex-Gov. Charles H. Sawyer, of New Hampshire, 68.

January 19.—Charles Emory Smith, editor of the *Philadelphia Press*, formerly Postmaster-General and former Minister to Russia, 66.

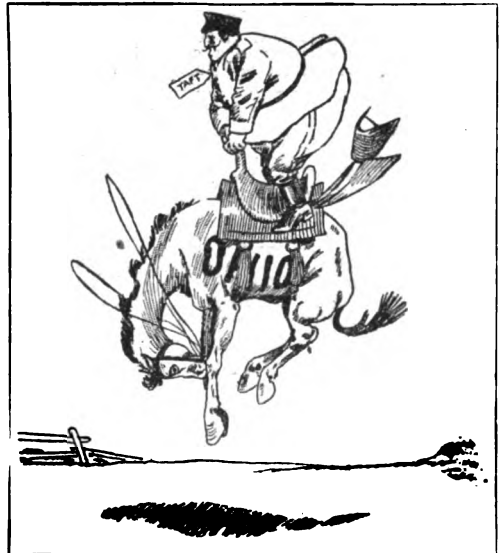
## CARTOONS OF THE MONTH, CHIEFLY POLITICAL.



SECRETARY TAFT (to the President): "What's that blamed racket ahead, Theodore?"  
Secretary Taft does not find the trip to the White House devoid of adventure and opposition.  
From the *Saturday Globe* (Utica).



THEY MUST GO UNDER THE YOKE OF THE ROOSEVELT  
POLICIES.  
From the *World* (New York).



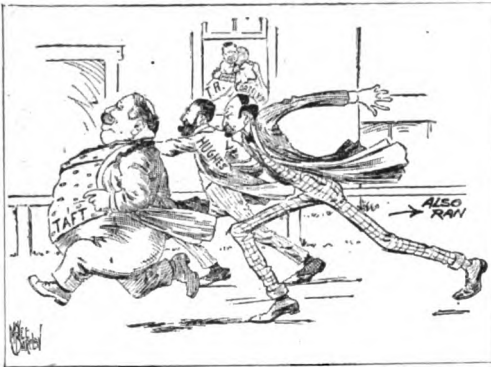
"WHOA, BILL!"  
There are times when these riding tests amount to  
positive cruelty!  
From the *Press* (New York).



HE'LL GET IT BACK SOON.  
From the *Globe* (New York).



THE LITTLE FELLOW KNOWS.  
From the *Spokane-Review* (Spokane).



HE'S HEFTY, BUT HE'S FAST.  
They thought he was a draft horse, but he seems to be winning in a canter!  
From the *News* (Baltimore).



THE MINNESOTA MOSES,—FINDING A NEW MOSES IN THE BULRUSHES.

AUNT DEMOCRACY: "A real new Moses! Won't it be a relief if I can only lose the old one!"

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



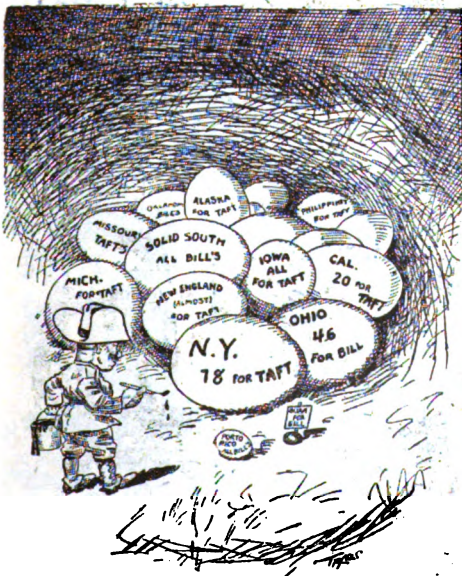
WHO'S GOT THE BAGGAGE CHECK?  
From the *Commercial Tribune* (Cincinnati).



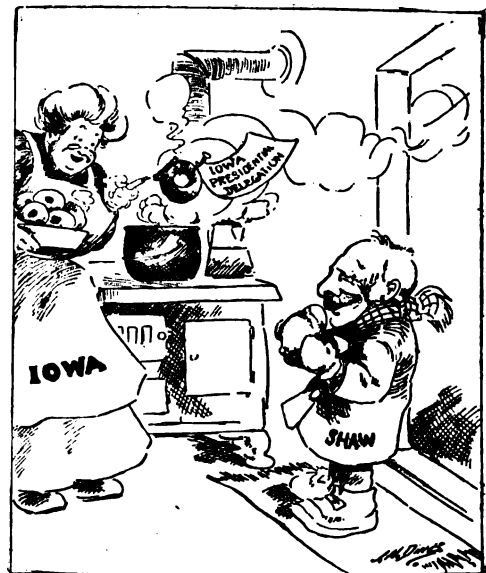
WHY NOT SWEAR OFF, MR. BRYAN?  
From the *World* (New York).



THE FAVORITE SONS' GLEE CLUB.  
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



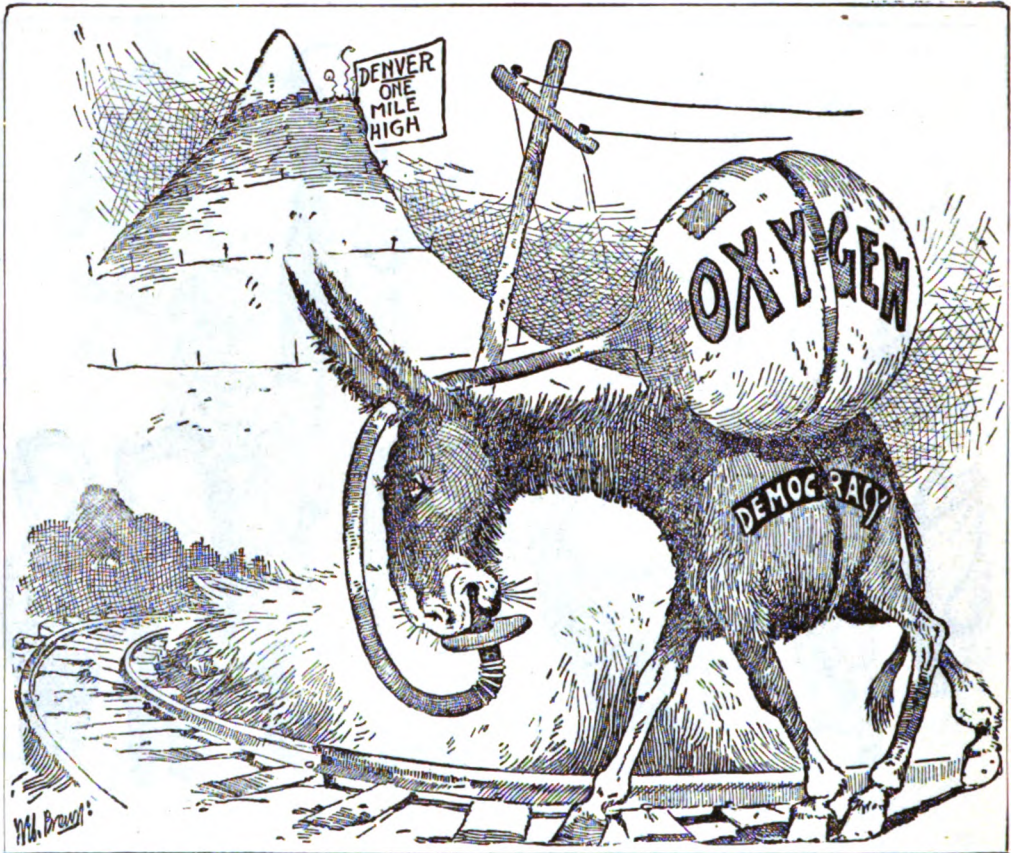
COUNTING 'EM BEFORE THEY'RE HATCHED!  
From the *Press* (New York).



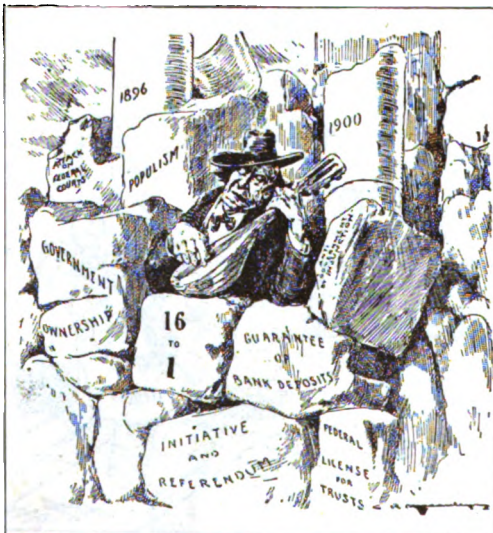
"WELL, SAKES ALIVE, LESLIE, WHERE DID YOU COME FROM?"

From the *Register and Leader* (Des Moines).





PREPARING FOR THE THIN MOUNTAIN AIR.  
From the *Post* (Denver).



"And around the dear ruins each wish of my heart  
Shall twine itself verdantly still."  
—Moore.

From the *World* (New York).

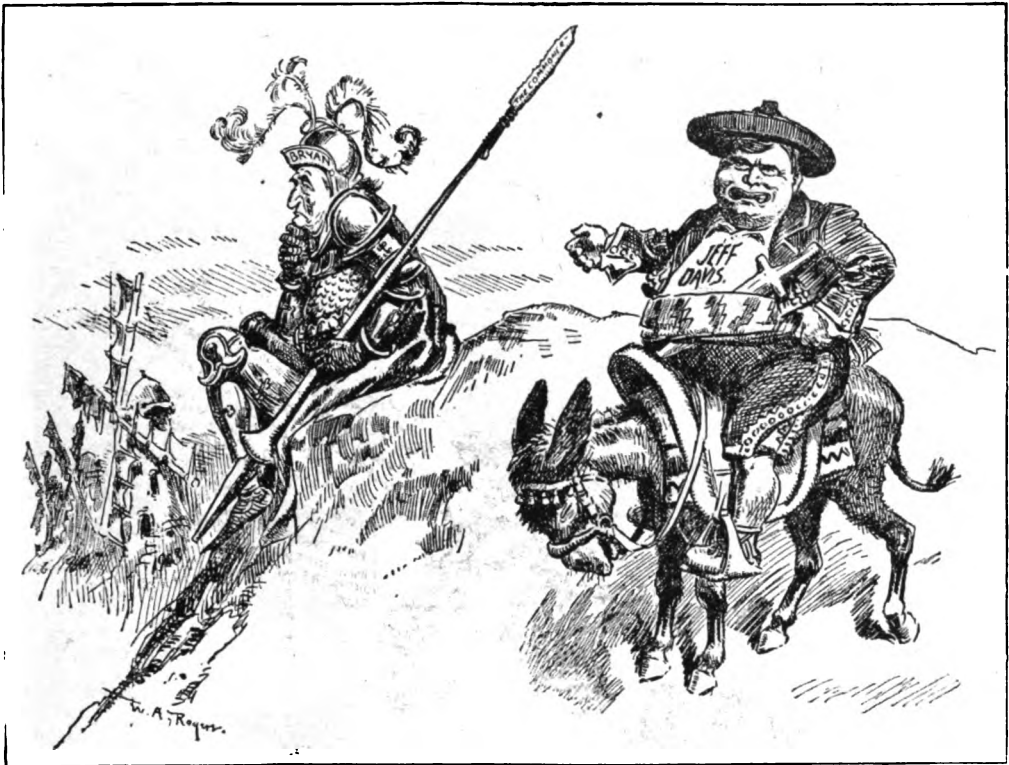


1896-1900

1907

BRYAN, THEN AND NOW.

From the *Public Ledger* (Philadelphia).



"THE BELTED KNIGHT,"—AND HIS SANCHO PANZA.  
From the *Herald* (New York).



AT LAST THE GATES SWING OUTWARD.  
From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane).



THE STEPMOTHER.  
From the *North American* (Philadelphia).



MR. TILLMAN SHOWING THE NEW ARKANSAS SENATOR A FEW TRICKS.

From the *Inter-Ocean* (Chicago).

J. J. HILL, PROSPERITY ARTIST.

A year ago the Great Northern magnate gave Prosperity a black eye. Now he is painting it white.

From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane).

GEORGIA'S NEW IRRIGATION SYSTEM.

From the *Constitution* (Atlanta).

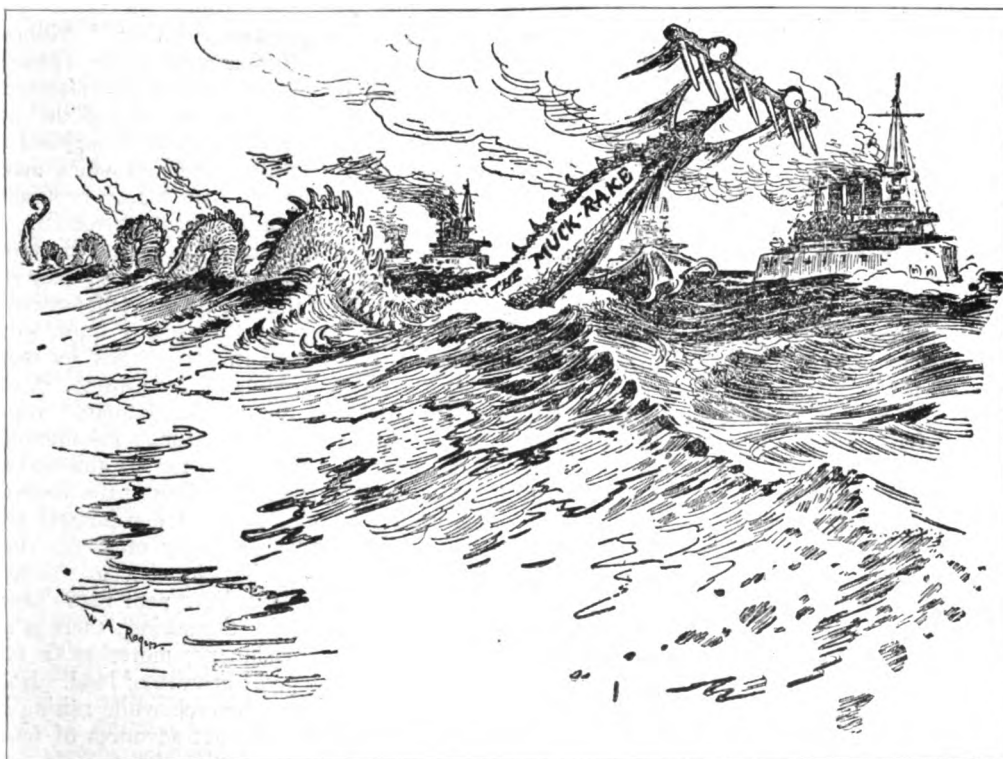




"PLEASE BUY MY FLOWERS."  
From the *Pioneer-Press* (St. Paul).



TO KEEP THE CROPS MOVING.  
Congress proposes to put a new policeman on the  
corner of Trade Avenue and Commercial Street.  
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



FOLLOWING THE FLAG.  
From the *Herald* (New York).

# THE TOBACCO WAR IN KENTUCKY.

BY MARTHA McCULLOCH-WILLIAMS.

AN ordinary screen-door, set in the wall of a white frame Kentucky farm-house, is the last thing from which one would expect a curdly thrill in this year of peace. Save in one particular this door was nowise unlike a million others, in other homesteads,—it swung true on its hinges and had wire of a fine mesh. But amid the meshes, and on the frame, there were the marks of forty-seven bullets. The bullets had been fired upon an August night of 1907, when only the screen door protected the family sleeping inside. The bullets came quartering,—five hundred of them it may be, maybe even a thousand. Some bored round holes through window-panes, others penetrated weatherboarding, laths, and plaster, and sped on to bury themselves in the opposite wall. Still others zipped along the roof, chipping shingles in their flight. They were revolver bullets, or those from Winchester rifles. So many were there, and fired at such close range, it is almost a miracle that any soul within reach of them escaped alive.

Five people were within reach of them,—Stephen Moseley, a farmer of Trigg County, Ky., his wife, and his three sons. Mr. Moseley was wounded in three places; his wife came near losing an eye through having fragments of screen-wire driven into it. The lads saved themselves by dropping from their beds to the floor, at their mother's order, and rolling as far out of range as was possible. The telephone wire had been cut before the attack. There were possibly 100 men in the attacking party. After the shooting they called Moseley out, whipped him hard, warned him not to seek legal redress, then rode away, whooping and yelling.

Moseley's case is set forth thus particularly because it is a typical one, and because I saw it. There are possibly a dozen parallels to it in the length and breadth of the Black Patch, the export tobacco district of western Kentucky and northwestern Tennessee. Nature and civilization have alike been kind to the Patch. The soil is, for the most part, a rich reddish clay-loam, with limestone underlay, level in some parts, in other parts rolling, in still other parts approaching to hilly. Fair water is plenty, the climate equable, and the inhabitants mainly Americans of old Revolu-

tionary Virginia and Carolina stock. The first settlers brought in three things that remain to this day,—namely, tobacco seed, tobacco knowledge, and a stiff-necked love of liberty so far-reaching that it includes liberty to make other folk see things its own way.

Among such a people Moseley's case could not happen without a cause and an occasion. The cause was the tobacco fight, the occasion a suspicion of disloyalty on his part toward the Planters' Protective Association, the organization of tobacco growers that is waging the fight. That is to say, upon the surface; personal grudges may have lain deeper down. Moseley had been laggard in joining the embattled farmers. The association was formed in 1904, yet he did not go into it until 1907.

The association was born of imperious necessity. Tobacco prices had fallen, fallen until they were much below the cost of production. The growers cried out "Monopoly," alleging collusion betwixt the Tobacco Trust and the Regie, their main customers. The Regie,—pronounced ree-jee,—is the machinery through which tobacco is supplied to the several foreign governments which make of its importation and sale highly profitable monopolies. Collusion was unnecessary,—the trust and the Regie had simply to agree on rates and territory, to fix beyond peradventure the price of the Patch's main money crop.

Tobacco requires throughout hard hand labor, and plenty of it. It is ready for market the fall and winter after growth. Current rates for tobacco in January, 1904, meant, according to Kentucky calculations, less than 30 cents a day for an able-bodied man's work in raising it. Out of the 30 cents he must feed, clothe, and lodge himself and his family. Not an alluring prospect,—forbidding, indeed, rather, in view of the fact that tobacco is essentially a poor man's crop. Seed may be had for the asking; there is no need of costly machinery; moreover, a fair crop requires no great breadth of land. Half the growers live on the crop while raising it,—that is to say, they get advances of food, clothing, and a very little money, commonly from the land-owner, whose sole security is the crop, and who is financed by a warehouseman or factor, who in turn borrows from the banks.

There is thus the pressure of debt to sell the crop. With half of it thus forced to market it seemed hopeless to undertake pooling and holding any considerable part of it. But some way the thing was done,—mainly through the efforts of a rich yet public-spirited planter, F. G. Ewing, of Glen Raven, Robertson County, Tenn. He managed to get through village banks enough money to tide the association over its experimental first season. But he could not get the mass, hardly even the majority, of tobacco growers in line. That remained for the night rider.

Beyond question the night rider has been the most efficient association missionary,—a virulent one, it is true, yet he has brought the people in. To make him real and credible there must be something more of detail. While the tobacco planters were getting together, their adversaries were not supine; on the contrary, very wide awake, affecting to laugh the association to scorn, yet all the while watching it narrowly, and countering its moves,—often indeed with a checkmate. Tobacco prices went up,—way up for the hill billys. Hill billy is the cant name for those who stay out of the association, selling their crops as they please. The more hill billys there were, the less the association could bother those it was fighting. The association is in essence a selling trust, opposed to the buying monopolies. It takes in hand the tobacco pledged to it, fixes the price, and holds until something gives way, somewhere. Its trump card is the fact that the trust and the Regie *must* have tobacco,—tobacco suiting foreign requirements, which they cannot get outside the Patch.

Absolute control of this tobacco supply spells victory for the organization. The hill billy is what stands in the way of this absolute control. Both combatants understand that. The trust and the Regie encourage him to stand fast with high and higher prices for crops in hand and to come. The night rider discourages him in ways better befitting Russia than free America. Scraping plant-beds, thus destroying all chance of a crop, is one of them, almost the mildest; burning sacked wheat, newly threshed, or haystacks, or barns, another. Blowing up threshing machines whose owners dare thresh for hill billys is still another. Add whippings, threats, scrawled coffins and cross-bones, the pulling up of young tobacco, the killing of pasturing stock, yet still the tale of outrages is incomplete. These things, no less than the shooting up of farmsteads, are directed at

individuals. The night-riding mass, when fairly and fully in stride, goes out to shoot up and burn out a town.

Nearly all towns in the Patch are reckoned trust strongholds, by reason of holding warehouses and handling houses, operated by the trust and the Regie. Therefore the towns have slept under guard, now for three years past. Notwithstanding, in five of them the night riders have done their will. The beginning was at Trenton, a village of Todd County, Ky. In December, 1905, a big tobacco factory was burned there by masked and mounted men heavily armed. Less than a month after a tobacco house was dynamited at Elkton, the capital of Todd County. Those who did the blowing up held up a train and searched it for tobacco buyers, but found none. Rewards were offered, and there was perfunctory looking into things, but to this day nobody has been punished or even openly accused.

More burnings, scattered, sporadic, of barns and isolated tobacco-houses came to pass within that season. It was not, however, until Thanksgiving night, 1906, that the night riders did anything really spectacular. Around midnight, 300 strong, they swooped upon Princeton, the capital of Caldwell County, Ky., set guards over the police, fire department, telegraph, and telephone offices, stationed men at street-crossings to turn back inquisitive citizens, then set fire to two factories, watched them burn to coals, and only then rode away, yelling and shooting at the stars as they went. One of the burned establishments, belonging to the Imperial Tobacco Company, the British arm of the trust, had six acres of floor space, thick walls of brick, a full complement of steam machinery for "ordering" tobacco, and was accounted the biggest and best equipped stemmery in the world. The loss from this night's work was in the neighborhood of \$100,000. Those inflicting it had, however, in their own phrase, and to their own minds, "toted fair." They had warned the insurance companies three months back to cancel policies, hoping, it must be said for them, thus to frighten the men in charge into joining the association. Men of parts, family, and standing, persons of weight and substance in the community, within sight of the gaping ruins, justified the lawless action upon plea of necessity.

The same force of night riders aimed to burn Hopkinsville, the county seat of Christian County, a very little later, but were foiled by a vigilant mayor, who fears not

man nor night rider, and were forced to wait a full year. In between, the night riders amused themselves with such things as were done to Moseley, also many others in that line. But on Friday, December 7, 1907, they burned out and shot up Hopkinsville, firing three factories, shooting out windows by streetfuls, wounded one man, whipped another dangerously, and got out of town scot-free, though in the hastily organized pursuit two of them were so badly wounded it is said they have since died. The night was absolutely still; otherwise the town would have gone up in fire and smoke. The fire-house was heavily guarded, and no effort to save property permitted. The actual loss was over \$100,000,—potentially, it is beyond estimate. Yet even after the State troops came, with the Governor offering huge rewards, nobody felt safe. The citizens enrolled to protect the town, and watched side by side with the soldiers. Both the town papers, as well as the press at large, spoke up manfully for law and order; the civil machinery was set actively in motion; but still people speak with bated breath of the outrage. Russellville, in Logan County, was burned out three weeks later. There the fire spread from tobacco-houses to several of the business blocks. The resulting loss was heavy. Altogether the damage from night riding must run well above \$1,000,000. This without counting in the White Burley regions, which have an organization and troubles of their own.

Paducah, on the edge of the Patch, lives in fear of attack. So does Clarksville, Tenn., upon the Cumberland River, the oldest and best known among tobacco-market towns west of the Alleghanies. Tennessee's tobacco counties, which adjoin Kentucky, have indeed had their full share of night riding. Governor Patterson has standing rewards out; aggregating \$4000, for the arrest and conviction of night-rider criminals, but it is unlikely they will be claimed. Men arrested for the crimes which caused the issuance of his proclamation,—the burning of a cross-roads store and the pulling up of young tobacco,—have been triumphantly acquitted. In various courts there are a few other indictments, most of them hanging fire. So far, the net result of prosecutions is two men, one white, one black, serving sentences of a year for scraping plant-beds. Both, it is said, have confessed that they were set on by agents of the trust.

Things here set forth cannot have come to pass without affecting profoundly the life of

the whole people. It is a most piteous effect. The bitterness of Civil War times, when the Patch was debatable land, and sharply divided in sentiment, is as nothing to the present strife. Witness the case of churches rent in twain,—association members refusing to commune with those outside the pale. There is discord even in the schools,—children of each sort reviling the faith of the other. There is also a practical business boycott. Stockmen, especially cattle dealers, must join the association if they hope to do business. Merchants are warned to be friendly to the cause,—so are doctors, lawyers, even ministers. There has been wild talk of requiring all these to refuse their ministrations to hill billys. It has come to no more than talk,—a fact creditable to human nature.

Against all this let it be clearly set forth that the association has accomplished certain results. By raising the price of tobacco from less than \$4 per 100 pounds to a fraction more than \$9 it has brought the plain people up out of the miry pit, the slough of debt and despond, and set their feet in the way of prosperity. The towns show it faintly,—in the country he who runs may read. New-painted houses, fields in good heart and tilth, miles on miles of new wire fences, rubber-tired traps drawn by spanking teams, most of all the good roads pushing out fanwise to reach the remotest regions, and the netted telephone wires, over which if they choose the back-country folk can hear the big world breathe, all tell the same story. Bank deposits have quadrupled, the money circulation well-nigh doubled. Mortgages have shrunk beyond the convenience of investors, and land-values so increased that the countryside is in danger of growing purse-proud.

These things the association pleads in excuse of the black deeds alleged against it. Whether or no they are worth their cost is easily debatable. But there can be no question that the night rider does not hold himself either a ruffian or a felon, however much he may act their parts,—the rather a crusader, fighting against long odds a battle in which victory spells the common good. Unpleasant as a fact, it is as a symptom that he is dangerous. He could not endure for a week if he had not so great a moiety of his people behind him. He lacks wholly official countenance,—again and again the association has disclaimed him. He is not in himself the root of trouble,—only the sign-radical of something much deeper, whose ultimate result is alike beyond foresight or prophecy.

# AMERICA'S INTEREST IN THE WORK OF LORD KELVIN.

BY J. F. SPRINGER.

OF all periods of the world's history the nineteenth century stands out as marking the most stupendous advance in science. It is probable, indeed, that the sum total of this progress for the single century is greater than that for all preceding time. During this epoch of tremendous scientific activity many remarkable figures have arisen. But of these none has been more notable than that of the Scotch-Irishman known first as Professor Thomson, then as Sir William Thomson, and lastly as Lord Kelvin. Possessed of a mental mechanism of the first order, which was run at high speed for over a half-century, it is not to be wondered at that he has linked his name with some of the most important scientific advances of all history.

Science has recorded the establishment of no greater principles than those relative to the correlation of energy and the conservation of energy. These fundamental propositions are not to be regarded as inferior to the law of universal gravitation and the principle of the indestructibility of matter. Intimately associated with these two primary principles is the conception of heat as a form of energy. To these may be added a law which may be regarded as somewhat of a corollary of these,—the law of the dissipation of energy. All these reach into the very fiber of science. Nor is it yet evident what will be the ultimate extent of their influence. And with every one of them is closely bound up the name of Lord Kelvin.

All of this is of course a matter of interest to serious Americans. At the same time their interest should find accentuation in the genial and generous personality which was not slow to recognize and commend the struggles and efforts of American genius. Thus, upon his return home after visiting the United States, in 1876, Lord Kelvin voiced in a presidential address to the Mathematical and Physical Section of the British Association the following sentiments:

I came home, indeed, vividly impressed with much that I had seen both in the great exhibition of Philadelphia and out of it, showing the truest scientific spirit and devotion, the originality, the inventiveness, the patient, persevering thoroughness of work, the appreciativeness, the

generous open-mindedness and sympathy, from which the great things of science come. . . .

I wish I could speak to you of the veteran Henry, generous rival of Faraday in electromagnetic discovery; of Peirce, the founder of high mathematics in America; of Bache, and the splendid heritage he has left to America and to the world in the United States Coast Survey; of the great school of astronomers which followed,—Gould, Newton, Newcomb, Watson, Young, Alvan Clark, Rutherford, Draper, (father and son). . . .

These are warm and enthusiastic words, and deserve on the part of Americans a hearty appreciation of the spirit which gave them utterance.

## HIS PART IN LAYING THE ATLANTIC CABLE.

Of especial American interest is the intimate connection sustained by Lord Kelvin to one of the greatest efforts of the national spirit of enterprise. The energy and unconquerable perseverance of Cyrus W. Field were of course indispensable factors in the success of the Atlantic telegraph cable. But these would probably have been of no avail if it had not been for the genius of the young professor from Glasgow. As Lord Kelvin was associated with the practical side of this project from the beginning to the completion, a brief résumé will perhaps be of interest.

The cable was to connect Ireland and Newfoundland. Assistance was asked and received both from the British Government and from that of the United States. The fact, however, that the cable was to terminate on this side of the Atlantic in British territory increased the difficulty in securing assistance from Congress. However, both governments participated in the undertaking, and on August 5, 1857, all financial and other preliminaries had been settled, and the actual operation of laying the cable begun. Each government assigned a warship to the duty,—the British ship being the *Agamemnon*, and the American the *Niagara*. Professor Thomson was on board the *Agamemnon* as electric expert. What was known at that time of the behavior and management of electric currents was small indeed. In fact, scientific advance in electricity had not really proceeded far enough to justify an engineering project of this magnitude. How-

ever, the difficulties were unrealized as well as the solutions of the problems they would create immediately upon their emergence from the unknown. With the blissfulness of ignorance, then, everybody went ahead. And we justify them because they succeeded. But this 1857 effort did not succeed. In the following year two other attempts were made. The latter was successful. The cable was actually laid and a few messages exchanged. Everybody went wild with enthusiasm, which was destined, however, to be short-lived.

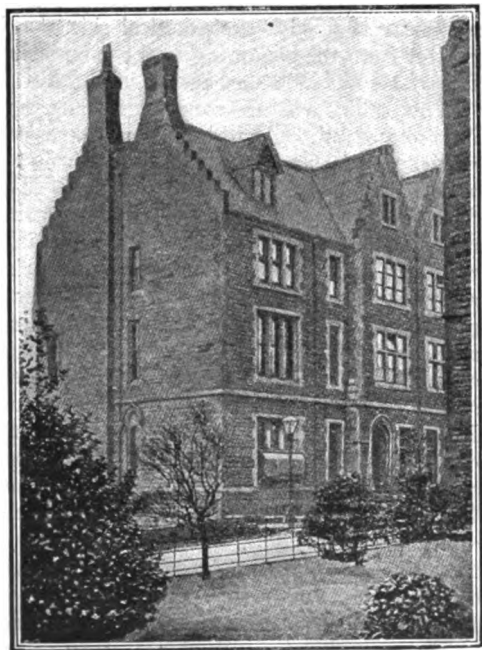
All the messages had been transmitted by means of Professor Thomson's new mirror galvanometer, an instrument of the most refined delicacy. This invention, however, was not the first step taken by Professor Thomson in endeavoring to solve the problem of transmission. The difficulty lay in the fact that the current received enormous resistance,—due, in part, to an induced counter-current,—increasing, as Thomson showed, with the square of the length. This could not be met by simply increasing the power of the current, as that would result in the ruin of the insulation. At first Thomson sought to improve the quality of the copper. The delicate mirror galvanometer was, however, found to be the way out. It consists essentially of a very small magnet attached to a very small mirror and suspended by means of a silk thread or fiber within a coil of fine

copper wire. A beam of light thrown upon this mirror will upon its reflection upon a screen exhibit the slightest oscillations of the magnet. By means of a code arrangement, messages could be signaled by the movement of the spot of light on the screen. But even this excessively sensitive means of communication now failed, and the 1858 cable became a piece of junk at the bottom of the Atlantic.

For just what reason failure came is unknown. A tremendous revulsion in popular feeling resulted. It was suggested that the whole proceeding was a "fake," and that no messages had really been transmitted. But real messages had indeed been sent,—as, for instance, an order from London that a certain regiment in Canada should not depart for India, the mutiny being ended. Cyrus Field and William Thomson had faith,—as well as others. So, in 1865, another, but fruitless, attempt was made, followed, however, by a complete success in 1866. In recognition of his splendid services Professor Thomson was knighted in 1866 upon his return to the other side of the Atlantic. In succeeding years Sir William Thomson was connected with other cable enterprises as electrical engineer. In 1867 the obvious defect of the mirror galvanometer, in that it preserved no record of the messages, was overcome by him in his celebrated siphon recorder. The essential features of this are a light coil of wire which is suspended between the poles of a strong magnet, and a fine glass siphon connected with the magnet and discharging a thread of ink on a moving strip of paper. This is an exceedingly delicate instrument, pretty much all friction being eliminated.

#### INVENTIONS OF SOUNDING APPARATUS.

It can be readily seen from his work in connection with submarine cables that Lord Kelvin was not merely a scientist dealing with the abstract, but a man of great practicality. If further proof of this were needed, it could be furnished by his invention of an improved mariner's compass, which was so practical as to supersede the others in the market, and by his devices for deep-sea sounding. In making deep-water soundings it was a great nuisance to be under the necessity of bringing the ship to a full stop in order to ascertain the depth. By his method soundings may be taken of very considerable depths without causing the vessel to come to a stop. He used piano-wire



LORD KELVIN'S HOUSE, IN GLASGOW.

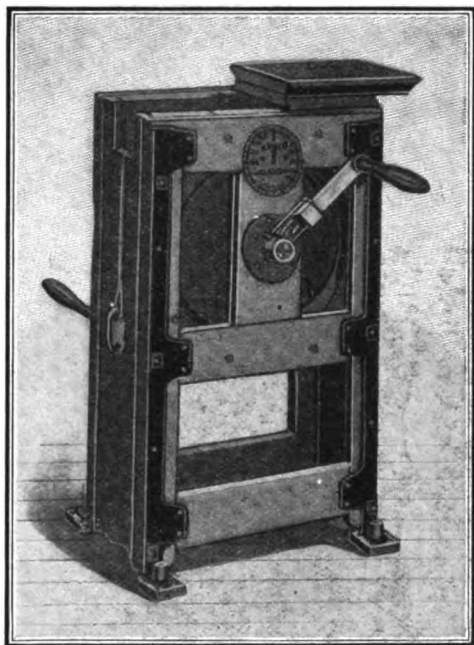




LORD KELVIN, FROM A LATE PHOTOGRAPH.

instead of the ordinary sounding-line. This weighed less and presented very little resistance to the water. By the ordinary method it was the work of six men to bring the lead from merely fifty or sixty fathoms with the ship under way, whereas with the piano-wire arrangement a cabin-boy could bring up a thirty-four pound sinker from a depth of 150 fathoms. This wire weighed in water about twelve pounds per 1000





LORD KELVIN'S SOUNDING MACHINE.

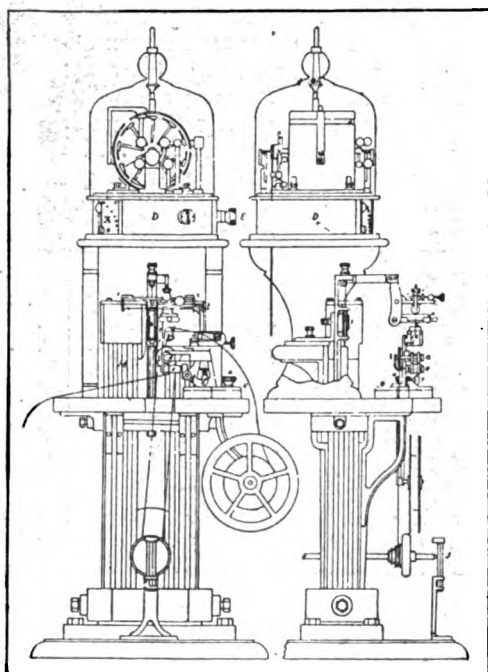
fathoms. By using a brake with the paying-out mechanism and compensating at regular intervals for the increased weight of wire in the sea, the whole could be so managed that the brake exerted constantly about ten pounds more friction than the pull due to the wire in the water, but exclusive of the thirty-four pound sinker. This ten pounds would therefore be exerted against the thirty-four. At the instant that the sinker touched bottom this thirty-four-pound pull would suddenly be discontinued. The effect of the sudden manifestation of the ten-pound unbalanced friction of the brake would give instant notice that the bottom was reached. Thomson also invented an automatic depth recorder. In this device advantage was taken of the fact that the pressure exerted by water varies with the depth, so that a means of recording the pressure at the bottom is in effect a means of recording the depth.

#### LORD KELVIN AND NIAGARA.

Lord Kelvin's connection with the project for the utilization of Niagara Falls undertaken by the Cataract Construction Company, about 1890, may be mentioned at this point as an instance of his relation to the practical side of American life. This company, finding that the books were not keeping pace with the rapid advances in knowl-

edge concerning the development and transmission of power, deemed it expedient to establish in London an International Niagara Commission, with Lord Kelvin at its head, to pass upon, and award prizes for, power-utilization plans submitted in competition.

With regard to the general proposition which contemplates the utilization of the Falls, Lord Kelvin took up a very advanced position. He was willing to exchange the magnificent spectacle of an immense body of water making a tremendous drop to the gorge below for the picture of the rocks covered with verdure and the 4,000,000 horsepower utilized in promoting the material welfare of mankind. The present power plants use but a small fraction of the entire power, and affect the Falls to an almost, if not quite, inappreciable extent from an æsthetic point of view. But Lord Kelvin did not hesitate to look on to the time when the whole should be swallowed up in the utilitarian purpose. He saw in this something greater and grander than the sight of a beautiful and mighty sheet of water making its wonderful plunge. And in this the future may justify him as one standing on



THE ORIGINAL SIPHON RECORDER, AS INVENTED BY LORD KELVIN, IN 1867.

(This device records as well as receives cable messages.)



Prof. E. Mascart.      Prof. W. C. Unwin.      Dr. Coleman Sellers.  
 Lord Kelvin.      Col. Th. Turrettini.  
 THE INTERNATIONAL NIAGARA FALLS COMMISSION (1895).

a higher point and enjoying a wider horizon.

#### AN ACTIVE ACADEMIC CAREER.

The life of Lord Kelvin was full of activity from beginning to end. Born in 1824 and dying in 1907, he spent practically the whole of this long life from his youth onward in serious scientific pursuits. Ireland was the land of his birth, but Scotland early became his home, when his father, in 1832, removed to Glasgow to become professor of mathematics at the university. In 1834 young William was a regular matriculated student. During the four years, 1841-1845, he studied at St. Peter's College, Cambridge, becoming second wrangler and Smith prizeman upon graduation. It is not quite clear why he did not obtain the first wranglership, as one of the examiners is understood to have thought that no comparison existed between the two successful contestants, and this judgment would seem to have been justified by time. While at Cambridge he became the first editor of the *Cambridge*

*and Dublin Mathematical Journal*. In 1846 he took the chair of natural philosophy at his *alma mater* in Glasgow. In this position he continued for fifty-three years, never having occupied any other professorial chair. In the case of a man of his attainments and celebrity this may be regarded as indicative of his devotion to his own university. The professor of natural philosophy in those days did not have available the splendid equipments that are so common to-day. In fact, there existed, apparently, nowhere in the world a physical laboratory for students. But Thomson established one in an old wine-cellar. Enthusiasm, intelligence, industry, —all were his in marked degrees.

He was twice married,—first to Miss Crum, in 1852, who died eighteen years later. In 1874 he married Miss Blandy, who survives him.

In 1866, as already noted, he was knighted. In 1892 he was made the first Baron Kelvin of Netherhall, Largs. His coat-of-arms indicates descent from a Scottish family. He was elected president of the

Royal Society of London in 1891, and continued in this office until 1896. In this latter year occurred the jubilee of his professorship. Honors were showered upon him from every direction. That he was not exalted in his own self-esteem may be gathered from the following words uttered by him upon this occasion: "One word, one word characterizes the most strenuous of the efforts for the advancement of science that I have made perseveringly during fifty-five years,—that word is FAILURE! I know no more of electric and magnetic force, or of the relation between ether, electricity, and ponderable matter, or of chemical affinity, than I knew and tried to teach my students of natural philosophy fifty years ago, in my first session as professor. Something of sadness must come of failure; but in the pursuit of science, inborn necessity to make the effort brings with it much of the *certaminis gaudia*, and saves the naturalist from being wholly miserable, perhaps even allows him to be fairly happy in his daily work."

His name is associated with Professor Tait in dynamics; with Mayer and Helmholtz in the dynamical theory of gases; with Joule, Clausius, and Rankine in the development of the theory of heat; and with Faraday, Maxwell, and Hertz in the theory of electricity. It is perhaps not wise to attempt to state his rank with the last degree of precision. It seems pretty clear, however, that no name in the science of the nineteenth century will stand higher in point of high achievement.

His writings include books, papers and addresses before learned societies, and contributions to scientific periodicals. Thus, he was joint author with Professor Tait in two volumes of mathematical physics,—a "Treatise on Natural Philosophy." There are three volumes of his "Popular Lectures and Addresses." A number of articles found republication in collected form (1872) under the title "Papers on Electrostatics and Magnetism."

He was scarcely a controversialist. Yet in the '60's he became engaged in a great controversy over certain doctrines held by many geologists and biologists. He demanded of the uniformitarian school of geologists in an address before the Geological Society of Glasgow (1868) that they

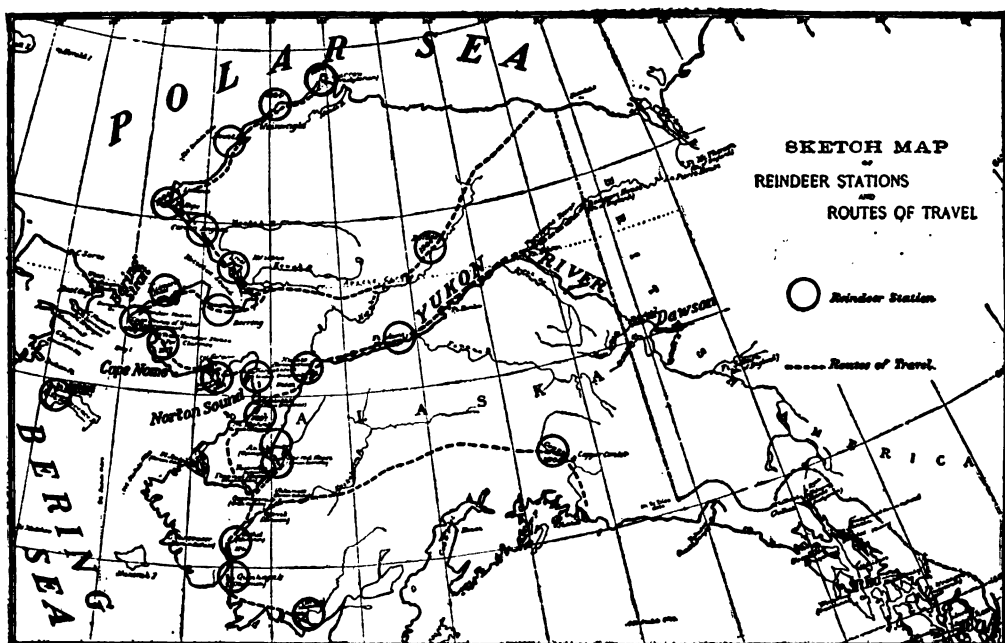
reform their conceptions of the length of time the earth has been adapted to support life. This demand affected the biologists as well,—especially those who held the Darwinian hypothesis of the origin of species by natural selection. Professor Huxley attempted a reply, but the arguments of Thomson that, within a not unlimited time, the earth has been too hot to support life, and the sun has not afforded it illumination, were apparently unanswerable.

The organization of the Johns Hopkins University in the '70's attracted much attention in Europe among men of educational prominence. This was no doubt due to the fact that it was the first great effort in this country to make adequate provision for post-graduate instruction. In fact, Professor Sylvester, one of the greatest of the mathematicians of the last century, came over to Baltimore to accept the chair of mathematics. Professor Cayley, another of the world's great mathematicians, came over to lecture. So also did Lord Kelvin. This was in 1884, when he was still Sir William Thomson. These lectures, twenty in number, constitute an application of molecular dynamics to the wave theory of light. They were delivered, not to an ordinary post-graduate class, but to a body of physicists, many being themselves teachers.

Lord Kelvin affirmed in most unequivocal terms at University College in 1903, not merely a personal religious belief in creative intelligence, but his conviction that science itself compels the admission of a creative and directive power in addition to physical, dynamical, and electrical forces.

Lord Kelvin's life affords an almost unparalleled example of the possibility of the combination of abstract ability of the highest order with severe practicality. This should commend itself to the American spirit which certainly has but little patience with the theorizing attitude that is unable or unwilling to put itself to the test of the concrete. Americans will do well, then, to take to heart the American practicalness of one who could be at once a theoretical mathematical physicist and a field engineer.

Lord Kelvin died on December 17 last, and was buried on December 23 in Westminster Abbey.



ALASKA'S SYSTEM OF REINDEER STATIONS.  
(Circles indicate the stations, and broken lines routes of travel.)

## THE AWAKENING OF THE ALASKAN.

BY WILLIAM ATHERTON DU PUY.

THREE thousand native children of Alaska, shut in by eternal snows, saddened by the darkness of nights months long, narrowed by the isolation of centuries, but withal abounding in sturdy, tenacious resourcefulness developed by the hardships the race has faced, are this winter being given the benefit of modern public schools such as are maintained in other portions of the United States.

Seventy American teachers are scattered here and there through Alaska's vast expanses, dotting the sweep of the Arctic beyond Bering Straits, weeks' journeys up the Yukon and its tributaries even in the brief open season, or 1000 miles from the mainland where the Aleutian Islands lead out toward Asia. Each of these teachers is the center of a new civilization; for the Eskimo or his kindred native seizes hungrily upon the germ of learning and receives its dispenser with open arms.

These schools are maintained under the Alaskan division of the United States Bureau of Education, with headquarters in Washington, D. C. They are distinctly separate from the public schools in Alaska that are

maintained for white children, these latter being in direct charge of the local authorities, while the burden of the former is borne exclusively by the national Government and controlled from the capital. The education of the native began twenty years ago, but the segregation of the schools and their placing on a basis by themselves took place but two years ago.

Since that segregation the tendency of Congress has been to show the greatest liberality toward the native Alaskans. The appropriation last year was \$200,000, or double that of the previous year. This additional money has placed the service on an operating basis that has made it possible to establish schools in all the principal villages and carry civilization to the mass of the people.

The position occupied by this handful of white teachers in this great waste country and the influence upon the simple people is one without a parallel in the history of the world. At the same time, the sacrifices that they voluntarily make and the dangers they go through are such as can only be explained by attributing them to missionary zeal or pos-



THE "THETIS" OFTEN RUNS HER NOSE INTO AN ICE FLOE IN THE ARCTIC.

sibly to the first love of the Anglo-Saxon which is here realized in the battle against the elements.

The maintenance of the native schools that lie along the North Pacific Ocean can hardly be styled a part of the real battle that is being waged to uplift the Alaskan, for here there are Americans in practically all the settlements, and the climate offers few of the monstrous discouragements it does in the interior or on the Arctic. The schools on the Aleutian Islands, which separate the Bering Sea from the North Pacific, are far out in the frozen waters, upon bare rocks removed from the line of communication with the outside world, inhabited only by the Aleuts, a hybrid Mongolian race. The most fertile field is that which extends north and south from Cape Prince of Wales, which point approaches most nearly to Asia. These people are Eskimos and are settled in villages of considerable size to the south as far as Bristol Bay and to the north 500 miles to Point Barrow, the northernmost tip of land owned by the United States. Leaving the coast, the great interior is populated, and can be reached in midsummer by following the rivers, and at other times only by toilsome trips with dog-sleds.

In the region bordering the Bering Sea and the Arctic Ocean the temperature averages some forty degrees below zero in the winter time, while in the valley of the Yukon and its tributaries it falls as low as

seventy-eight degrees below. To these temperatures is added the darkness of the Arctic winter and the endless expanse of ice and snow. The isolation is absolute. Each summer the Government revenue cutter *Thetis* makes its Arctic cruise as far as Point Barrow, carries the Government mail, and extends courtesies to the school service whenever occasion allows. The trip is in no respect certain, as may be shown by the experience of last summer when the *Thetis* broke her rudder in the ice 100 miles short of her destination, and was forced to turn back.

A teacher for the Point Barrow school was on board bound for his post. He had been but recently married, and his bride accompanied him on this unusual honeymoon. With her broken rudder the revenue cutter prepared to put into a remote landing at Icy Point and there disembark the teacher and his effects, leaving him the chance of getting to his post by dog team. By a mere chance, however, a supply schooner was encountered going north and the teacher and his bride were transferred to this craft for the remainder of the trip. When the mails come out next spring it will be known whether or not they reached their destination in safety.

In addition to the uncertain annual visit of the *Thetis*, two mails annually are started to the settlements along the Arctic Coast north of Kotzebue Sound. These carry only letters, and the time of reaching their destination is uncertain. To the interior points there is the dog-team communication and the boat up the river in the summer. The island schools are entirely isolated except during the summer season.

Yet the teachers of many of these Alaskan schools are young women who have been carefully reared among refining influences. An additional goodly number are graduates of the best colleges in the country and men who could demonstrate their ability in any surroundings. All are carefully selected from hundreds of applicants, and none are chosen, except in cases of unusual emergencies, who have not had previous experience in teaching. There are always large numbers of applications on file at the Bureau of Education for these difficult posts, and the highest grade of material is selected. The result is a body of teachers of most unusual abilities and character; for the work would not appeal to a person of commonplace temperament and ambition.



WITH A FEW MONTHS' TRAINING THE PUPILS AT WORK DO NOT SEEM UNSOPHISTICATED.

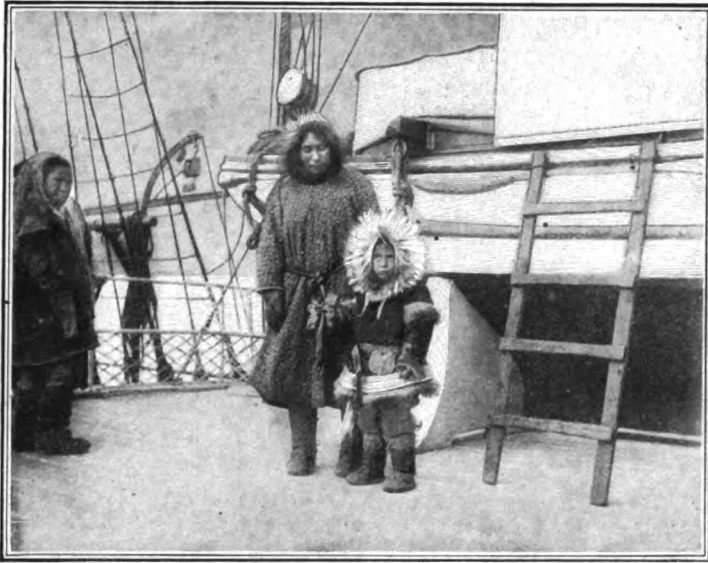
It is upon these seventy individuals that the mental, moral, and social future of a race of people inhabiting a whole corner of the world is to be patterned. The reward of the teachers for all the sacrifices made and dangers encountered, particularly in the remote districts, rests in the fact that the influence over the given following is absolute and unlimited. In them is vested an undisputed power for good.

When a public school is founded in a native village it immediately becomes the center of the life of that village. Not only are the children taught the rudiments of an education, but their elders are taught the principles of civilized living. The whole population is given examples as to its relations to society through the daily life of the teacher and through entertainments and social gatherings especially arranged to carry home the desired lesson. In no civilization and under no condition of life were there ever more favorable conditions for the dissemination of learning than among these northern natives; for they are forced into inaction for the greater part of the year by the long, dark winter, have abundant time upon their hands, and any breaking of the monotony is welcomed as a godsend.

When the first school was opened at Cape Prince of Wales the seating room was limited. The Eskimos crowded in until the building was packed to suffocation. The teacher was enthusiastic over making the most of his opportunity, and so arranged to work extra time and to have a morning and afternoon session for different pupils. Both sessions were so enthusiastically attended that careful watch had to be maintained while the lines filed in through the snow trenches to prevent the pupils who had attended in the morning from getting in for the afternoon period. It was thought that this enthusiasm would die out when the novelty wore off, but such has not been found to be the case, and the attendance is continuously good throughout the schools.

In the native villages it is but natural that the teacher of the school should organize Sunday-schools, to which the whole community comes. In this way he reaches the older people and readily becomes the wise man of the community, replacing the medicine man as the general counselor. There is nothing of antagonism shown toward the introduction of the new education, and strong affections are quickly developed for the teachers by the natives.





IN THE HEIGHT OF FASHION 10,000 MILES FROM BROADWAY.

An example of this affection was shown one summer when the revenue cutter touched at Wainright in the Arctic. There had been a plan on foot to transfer the teacher at that place to another school, but with the coming of the revenue cutter the information was brought that he was to remain. The scene of joy that the announcement called forth was so hearty that the teacher escaped exhausted from the hugging administered by the whole population.

A stronger demonstration of affection for the white teacher even when brought in conflict with the native was given in connection

the whole village turned out, ran the murderers down, and publicly executed them, calling upon the teacher's widow to witness the vengeance.

Officials of the Bureau of Education at Washington who have been most among the Alaskans and know them best are most enthusiastic over the possibilities in these northern races. They hold them to be far superior to the American Indian in intellect and character, and capable of a higher and more ready civilization.

There are a number of distinct races in Alaska,—contrary to the current acceptance

with the single tragedy in the history of the school service, it resulting in the death of H. R. Thornton, teacher at Cape Prince of Wales in 1893. An undesirable young Eskimo had been expelled from the school, and, enlisting a friend in his cause, returned to the residence of the teacher at midnight, called him to the door, and shot him through with a whaling gun, the weapon used in the whaling boats for shooting the harpoon into the monster fish. Immediately upon learning of the tragedy



THE UNITED STATES PUBLIC SCHOOL BUILDING, PLANTED IN A REMOTE NATIVE VILLAGE OF ALASKA.





UPPER CLASSMEN IN THE MORE ADVANCED SCHOOLS OF ST. MICHAELS.

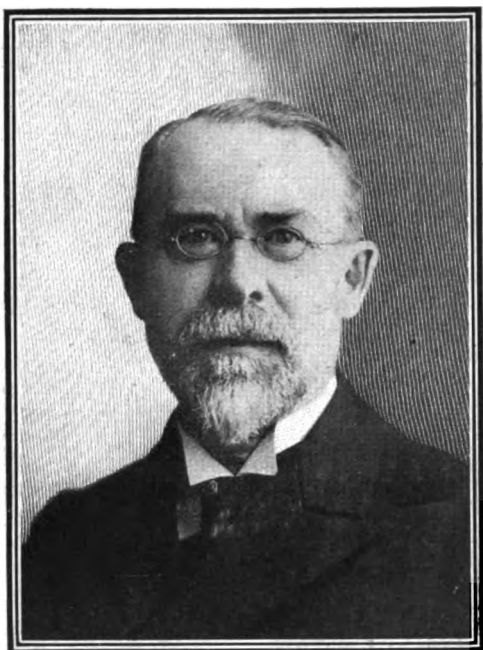
of the Eskimo as the sole representative of the peninsula. The Eskimos are, however, the strongest in number and give indications of superior traits to any of the others. They are self-reliant and hardy because of their long battle for existence in an unfavorable land. They are sharp and intelligent traders, as is shown by the bargains that they push in trading with the whalers who frequent the villages. They are showing themselves capable of readily taking an education, and their artistic natures are evidenced by the native carving of ivories.

The Aleuts, living on the Aleutian Islands over toward Asia, are of an entirely different class, and are the most unpromising of the Alaskan natives. At the time that the Colonies were fighting for independence from England the Russians were seizing these islands. For two centuries they kept control, and the history of this period is that of one repetition after another of horrible atrocities upon the natives. The result is a cowering, broken race that will need time to revive. The Athabascans are the residents of the valleys of the Yukon and its tributaries. They are more nearly related to the North American Indian than are any of the others, but have a touch of the Mongolian.

These are fewer in number than are any of the other tribes. The Tlingets, in south-eastern Alaska, have been longer in contact with the whites, dress as they do, and are packers, miners, and rough workmen. In all there are about 35,000 natives, children and adults, most of whom have felt to a greater or less extent the influence of the United States public schools.

With the additional funds in the hands of the Commissioner of Education during the past year the work of establishing schools has gone forward with greater strides than ever before. Of the sum appropriated, \$100,000 was to be used in the establishment of new schools. Ten new school buildings are being completed this winter, and the field is being more thoroughly investigated to find where others are most needed.

The building of these schools is often fraught with much difficulty, as may be shown by the example of Diamedes Island, upon which a lone teacher is this winter isolated in his attempt to put up a building. These islands are in the middle of Bering Straits, the larger on the Russian side of the boundary line and the smaller on the American side. This smaller island is a barren and precipitous rock, rising like a fortress



DR. SHELDON JACKSON.

(United States General Agent of Education in Alaska.)

from the icy waters and accessible at but one point of its shoreline. In the fall of 1907 a schooner was dispatched to this point with R. W. Thompson, who was to be the teacher, with lumber from Seattle from which to build a schoolhouse, and with sup-

plies for the winter. Upon arrival a portion of the supplies and cargo was unloaded and a small amount of lumber, when heavy gales forced the boat to put to sea. At last report she had not yet succeeded in returning to unload the balance of her cargo, but the ambitious teacher succeeded in getting out a letter saying that he had built a shack of the lumber in hand, was at home for the winter, and intended starting his school in the face of the adverse circumstances. This case is typical of many such attempts, it being the rule rather than the exception for the teacher to be placed alone in some village to work out his own problems.

Franklin Moses, representing the Bureau of Education, in the summer of 1906 penetrated 1000 miles inland, where he supervised the erection of school buildings at Stevens Camp, Rampart, and Kokrimes on the Yukon, and at Nenana on the Tanana River. These schools and many more in various sections are being pushed to completion as rapidly as the climate and difficulty of getting the material to the points of building will allow. All materials were selected in Seattle and shipped 3000 or 4000 miles to the points of use. Here are erected comfortable buildings such as form the centers of communities in "God's country," and here is planted the strong seed of civilization in the virgin soil with the intention and hope of a fruition as broad as the snow-stretches of the land's wildernesses.



THE WINTER MAILS GO BY DOG TRAIN, AND MAY OR MAY NOT ARRIVE TWICE IN A SEASON.

# GEORGE MEREDITH AT EIGHTY.

BY G. W. HARRIS.

"THE master of us all, George Meredith," said Mrs. Humphry Ward a year or two ago in a public address. Yet this was only one more tribute of the kind his fellow-writers have long delighted to bestow upon the man who to-day more than any other living author dominates the world of English letters. For more than forty years they have vied with one another, and against obstreperous decrying criticism, in singing his praises; Robert Browning, A. C. Swinburne, John Morley, Justin McCarthy, Robert Louis Stevenson, William Ernest Henley, J. M. Barrie, Henry James, Richard Le Gallienne,—a page of this magazine might be filled with the names of the poets, novelists, essayists of the latter half of the nineteenth century who have recognized and heralded Mr. George Meredith as a master craftsman in literature. So universal among his contemporaries was the high regard in which he was held that when Lord Tennyson died in 1892 Mr. Meredith was chosen without a dissenting voice to succeed him as president of the Society of English Authors.

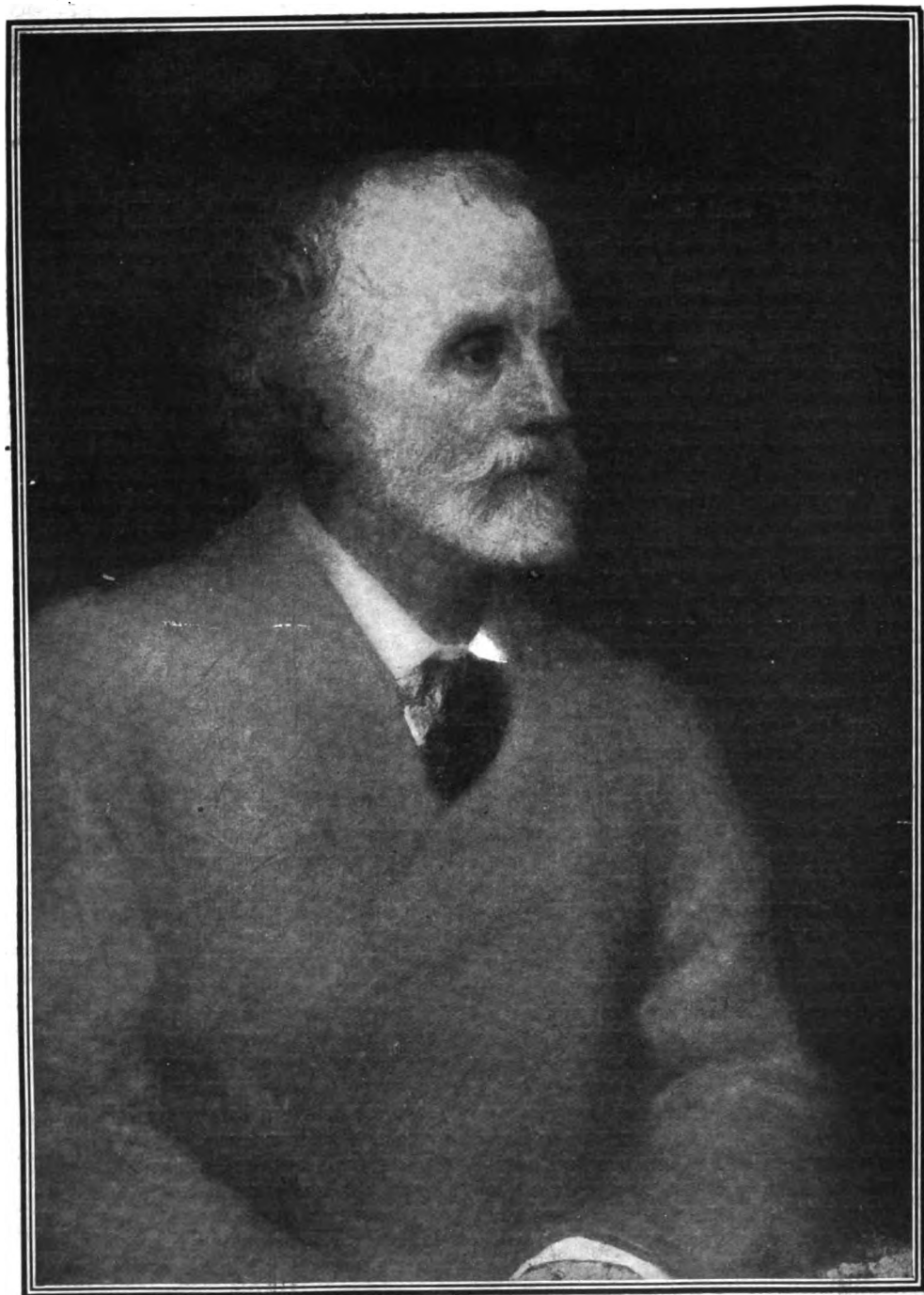
Popular appreciation of this writer has been a thing of much slower growth. Although his first novel, "The Ordeal of Richard Fernald," published in 1859, evoked enthusiasm in some quarters,—the *London Times* praising it at once,—and French and Italian translations of it were soon published, nearly twenty years passed before it reached its second English edition. And for many years his other books fared no better. Justin McCarthy, in his "History of Our Own Times," said: "Distinguished, peculiar, and lonely is the place in fiction held by Mr. George Meredith." In America his earlier writings were hardly known at all; not until his tenth novel, "Diana of the Crossways," in 1885 had opened the door to a larger audience, were they much read. But since that time, in this country as well as in England, Mr. Meredith's work has been steadily gaining in popular favor. Two years ago his American publishers found it profitable to put out a "pocket edition" of his complete writings,—the third American issue of his works. Several pirated editions of some of his novels, notably "Diana of the Crossways," have sold thousands of copies. That

the American public is reading him in ever-increasing numbers is attested by the librarians of the big public libraries, who tell one of having to replenish their stock of Mr. Meredith's books, or to add more copies, every five or six years.

## I.

George Meredith has published about twenty-five books, prose and verse, and has taken such a grip on the life of his time as few authors of any age have been able to do. Not to know this man's work is to confess one's self deaf to one of the most eloquent voices of modern literature,—and more, to deprive one's self of a great store of mental pleasure of a rare kind.

Available facts for a biography of the man are meager. He has never sought, or been willing to permit, personal publicity. "The best of me is in my books," he said to one inquirer. Though of Welsh and Irish blood, he was born in Hampshire, England, on February 12, 1828. Both his parents died when he was a small child, leaving him to be educated as a ward in chancery. Little has been told about those parents. Mrs. M. R. F. Gilman, who in 1888 prepared a volume of selections from Mr. Meredith called "The Pilgrim's Scrip," and who therein collected more data about his life than any other, says that "the blood of working ancestors flows in Meredith's veins, and perhaps this accounts for the sympathetic insight with which many of his homely characters are drawn." He received his early education in Germany, where he remained until he was fifteen years old. Then his guardian recalled him to England and set him to studying the law. This never appealed to his tastes, however, and as soon as he became his own master he abandoned it for journalism and literature. He soon found that he had chosen a difficult course. His life in London for many years, says Mrs. Gilman, was a hand-to-hand struggle with poverty in its harshest forms. He was hampered with a load of debts of others' making. For a whole year he lived on a diet of oatmeal. In 1866 he went to the Austro-Italian war as a correspondent for the *London Morning Post*. That experience gave him material for his novel "Vittoria." Most of his



From the Painting by George Frederick Watts.

GEORGE MEREDITH.

life since then has been passed in his cottage home at Box-Hill in Surrey, where he has lived and worked in "contented poverty." He has been twice married. His first wife was a daughter of Thomas Love Peacock, author of "Headlong Hall," "Melincourt," "Maid Marian," and other novels. They had one son. Mr. Meredith's second wife

died in 1886, leaving a son and a daughter.

Mr. Meredith's first book was a volume of poems, published in 1851 and dedicated to Thomas Love Peacock. It did not cause any great stir in the literary world, and he seems to have abandoned verse for a time thereafter, for it was eleven years before his second poetical offering to the world appeared. But he had been busy indeed in the field of fiction. In 1856 he published "The Shaving of Shagpat: An Arabian Entertainment," a strange Oriental extravaganza filled with an exuberant fancy, and the most successful of modern attempts at simulating the Eastern imagination. In 1857 appeared "Farina," a graceful little love tale of mediæval Cologne. The real beginning of Mr. Meredith's career as a novelist, however, was the publication of "The Ordeal of Richard Fernal: A History of a Father and Son," in 1859. Here was a book which showed that a new master had entered the field of English fiction. It disclosed a mature mind and a practiced hand. Its author had arrived. It was the most powerful and at the same time the most artistic English novel of its generation,—and there were some great novels written in that generation. To-day it is as fresh and as fascinating as when it first appeared. The reader who comes upon it for the first time now can hardly believe that "Richard Fernal" was published in the same year that brought from the presses Thackeray's "Virginians," and Dickens' "Tale of Two Cities," and George Eliot's "Adam Bede."

In 1861 Mr. Meredith published "Evan Harrington," his second novel, which is in every phase of it a remarkable contrast to "The Ordeal of Richard Fernal." The printing of "Modern Love and Other Poems" in 1862 signaled an author as original and remarkable as a poet as he had already shown himself to be as a novelist, and called forth encomiums from Browning and Swinburne, though the critics of that day abused him unconscionably. His third novel, "Emilia in England," appeared in 1864. He afterward changed its title to "Sandra Belloni" (from the name of its heroine: Emilia Alessandra Belloni). This was followed by "Rhoda Fleming" in 1865; "Vittoria" (a sequel to "Sandra Belloni") in 1867; "The Adventures of Harry Richmond" in 1871; "Beauchamp's Career" in 1876; "The Egoist" in 1879; "The Tragic Comedians" in 1880. A third volume of verse, "Poems and Lyrics of the Joy of Earth," came in

1883; the novel "Diana of the Crossways" in 1885; "Ballads and Poems of Tragic Life" in 1887; "A Reading of Earth," more poems, in 1888; "One of Our Conquerors" in 1890; "Lord Ormont and His Aminta" in 1894, and "The Amazing Marriage," last of the novels, in 1895.

In 1895 also were gathered into one volume three novelettes: "The Tale of Chloe," "The House on the Beach," and "The Case of General Ople and Lady Camper," which originally had appeared in the *New Quarterly Magazine* in 1877 and 1879, and had been published serially by the *New York Sun* in 1890. In 1897 was published in a thin little duodecimo "An Essay on Comedy and the Uses of the Comic Spirit," a lecture delivered at the London Institution twenty years before and first printed in the *New Quarterly Magazine* for April, 1877. "Odes in Contribution to the Song of French History" appeared in 1898, and "A Reading of Life, with Other Poems," in 1901.

## II.

In all this mass of work, prose and verse, George Meredith has always subordinated mere story-telling, for the story's or the telling's sake, to the study and depiction of the development of character. The soul-life is for him the only life. The task he set himself, and which he has wonderfully accomplished, was "to write with a sense of responsibility, to aim at presentation of character rather than at story-telling, to regard an accurate psychology as morally obligatory, to satirize folly, and to present exemplars of intelligent culture to appeal for approval to the intellect." Intellect he has regarded as the chief endowment of man; and he has worked and wrought steadily toward the development of man's understanding.

Yet he has had good stories and strong stories to tell. His novels, with few exceptions, are not only interesting, but fascinating. They compel the reader's attention and they hold it as in a giant's grasp. He can pen you the most delightfully, deliciously charming idyl of first love, and follow it with a tragedy as poignant as any of Shakespeare's own. He will take you on the wildest flight of fancy into undiscovered regions made alive by his teeming imagination and filled with tropically luxuriant growths of men and manners, of things animate and inanimate. He will paint you the life of his England in a bygone age or in the present year of grace.

He will spin you the most amazing and amusing yarn of adventure by land and sea, and through it all make you acquainted with characters that are true and real and convincing. His versatility is that of a master of life as well as of art.

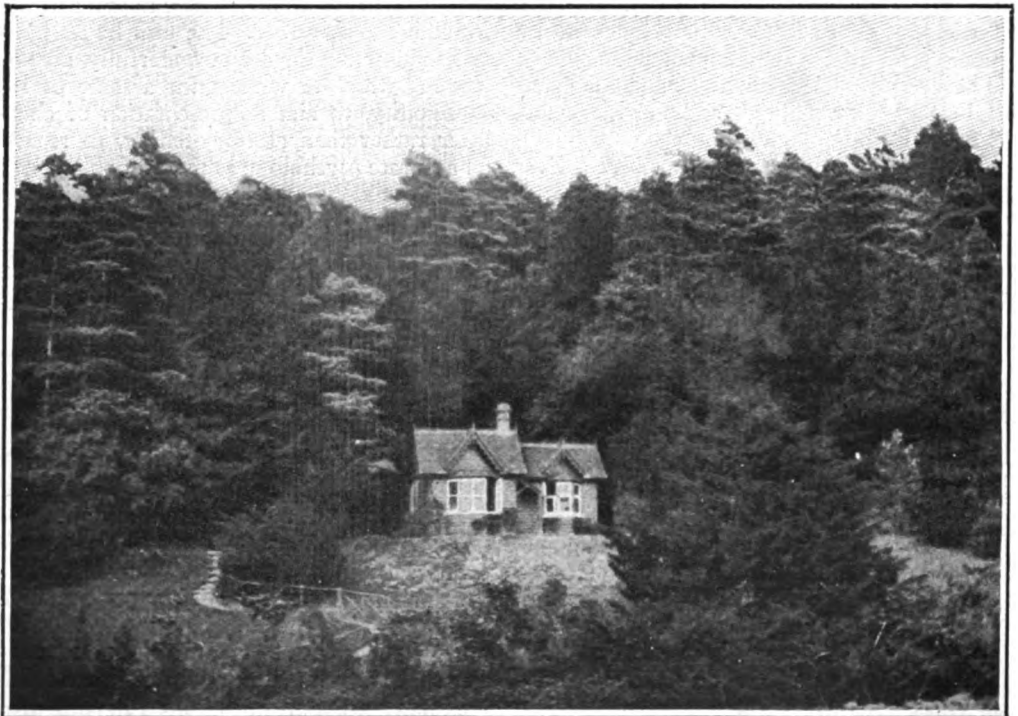
Of Death, of Life, those inwound notes are mine,

he sings. He has the great gift of tragedy; and as a creator of comedy he is worthy to rank with his own belauded masters of the Comic Spirit: Aristophanes, Shakespeare, Cervantes, Molière. One novel, "The Adventures of Harry Richmond," alone is sufficient to prove him dowered above his contemporaries with the art of narrative.

He has given to the world of readers more characters than any other novelist of his generation,—characters grave and gay, witty and stupid, learned and unlettered, wise and foolish, high and low, rich and poor, aristocratic and democratic, good and evil, beautiful and ugly, charming and disgusting, heroic and cowardly, noble and ignoble. Whether his story is tragic or comic or melodramatic, whether his plot is good, bad or indifferent, his people (that is the best of them, for he has had his failures of course)

live and move and have a being as real for the reader as any personages in history. "In the world of man's creation," said the late William Ernest Henley, "his people are citizens to match the noblest; they are of the aristocracy of the imagination, the peers in their own right of the society of romance." And because these characters are so real, because they are living, breathing, thinking human beings like ourselves, their conduct becomes of absorbing interest. The Meredith novels are pre-eminent for their dramatic qualities. One marvels that none of them has ever been adapted for the stage. What a delicious comedy "Evan Harrington" would make on the boards! What a fine moving play could be fashioned from "Diana of the Crossways!" There is not one in the long list of the novels that has not an abundance of stirring scenes and effective situations and scores of brilliant dialogues and witty conversations ready made to the adapter's hand. In this day of the dramatized novel it is curious indeed that such a mine of golden riches has remained so long unworked, if not undiscovered.

Mr. J. M. Barrie has called Mr. Meredith the greatest wit England has produced. Certainly he is the wittiest Englishman since



MR. MEREDITH'S SWISS CHALET, AT BOX HILL, WHERE HE DOES HIS WORK.

Shakespeare. And he is the greatest satirist of his time. He has humor, and his humor can be playful, or shrewd, or rollicking, or tender, or fantastic, or subtle, at will. But wit is the meat of him; satire is his daily bread. He is a demolisher of shams, a sworn foe to false pride, false creeds, false sentiment. The egoist, the dogmatist, the dilettante, he lashes mercilessly, not once, but time and time again.

He does this in a style that is a constant marvel of successful adaptation to the purpose in view. It is a wonderful thing that prose style of his, and a fearful. It has made his bitterest enemies and some of his staunchest friends. It is a pitfall and a despair to his imitators, a source of unbounded glee to his critics, a stumbling block to all lazy, languid, or lackwit readers. It has been not inaptly characterized by his own description of Carlyle's style:

A wind in the orchard style, that tumbled down here and there an appreciable fruit with uncouth bluster; sentences without commencement running to abrupt endings and smoke, like waves against a sea-wall, learned dictionary words giving a hand to street slang. All the pages in a breeze, the whole book producing a kind of electrical agitation in the mind and the joints.

It is all that and more. It is an aristocratic style with democratic sympathies. This style is above all things picturesque, vivid, imaginative. Mr. Meredith tears old phrases to tatters and casts his thought in new molds. His hatred of the commonplace is equaled only by his intolerance of shams. He thinks over his words, and he puts new life into English prose. He must have the largest vocabulary possessed by any living Englishmen; yet he does not hesitate to coin new words when he needs them for a new use or some subtle shade of meaning. He is an inveterate phrase hunter, but an eminently successful one. He is the foremost epigrammatist who ever wrote in English,—the only one, really, who has constantly cut and polished his gems with that lapidarian care emulated of the great literary craftsmen of France. And he has been singularly happy, for the most part, in escaping the snare that lurks for the maker of maxims,—the uttering of half-truths for whole ones. It is a true humility that saves him. His knowledge of the world's literature is as vast and as intimate as his understanding of human nature. Of Sir Austin Fernald, the great aphorist of his own creation, he said:

"Our new thoughts have thrilled dead bosoms," he wrote; by which avowal it may be seen that youth had manifestly gone from him, since he had ceased to be jealous of the ancients.

And again he makes Sir Austin say:

"A maker of Proverbs,—what is he but a narrow mind with the mouthpiece of a narrower? . . . Consider the sort of minds influenced by set sayings. A Proverb is the half-way house to an Idea, I conceive, and the majority rest there content: can the keeper of such a house be flattered by his company?"

Some of Mr. Meredith's epigrams are merely clever, brilliantly clever always, others are packed with the wisdom of the ages. As a small sample, however inadequate, of his quality, take these few gleaned at random from a half dozen of the novels:

Who rises from prayer a better man, his prayer is answered.

Which is the coward among us? *He who sneers at the failings of humanity.*

A mercurial temperament makes quicksilver of any amount of cash.

When love is hurt it is self-love that requires the opiate.

It is the soul which does things in life,—the rest is vapor.

An opinion formed by a woman is inflexible; the fact is not half so stubborn.

Cynicism is intellectual dandyism without the coxcomb's feathers.

To have the sense of the eternal in life is a short flight for the soul. To have had it is the soul's vitality.

Brains will beat Grim Death, *if we have enough of them.*

Otherwise than merely on his aphorisms Mr. Meredith has ever been a fastidious worker, filing and revising time and again, going over his volumes with emendatory pencil even after years of publication. His severest critics admit that, whatever his faults, he is a great artist, possessed of both power and charm, whose work is always artistic.

### III.

While his novels, partly because of the author's peculiarities of style, equally because he demands that the reader shall bring an open and an active mind to his reading ("Ideas," he says, "new-born and naked original ideas, are acceptable at no time to the humanity they visit to help to uplift it from the state of the beast") long remained as "caviare to the general," Mr. Meredith's poems have been for a still smaller audience. This fact is easily explained. In a materialistic age the lovers of poetry form an almost infinitesimal minority in the great republic



of readers. And more than this: while Mr. Meredith's verse has the rugged strength of his prose, and even oftentimes the wit, one is tempted to say that the bulk of it lacks something of the grace of that wonderful prose. For the most part he is the seer rather than the sensuous poet. He is a dramatic prophet. He has admitted the charge of a "pitch" in his comedies "considerably above our common human," justifying it by his tenet that "all right use of life and the one secret of life is to pave the ways for the firmer footing of those who succeed us." This is exemplified in his poems also. He is a philosophical poet: philosopher first, poet afterward. But, having said this, one must hasten to add that he is a poet,—he has inspiration and his inspiration is genuine. The Divine Fire is in his keeping.

From what has already been said it may be gathered that according to Mr. Meredith's idea the chief function of poetry is to teach, rather than to give pleasure. The poet's business is to see and reveal. Whether the revelation is pleasing or displeasing to his contemporaries need not much concern the poet. According as the revelation is true (faithful to the vision) and complete, will it be beautiful,—yea, though its fierce new beauty blind alien eyes. That much of Mr. Meredith's poetry does blind alien eyes there is no denying. Yet we must take his earnest for it that the revelation of his vision is as nearly complete as his powers could make it. Concerning his style in prose he once said: "Thought is tough, and dealing with thought produces toughness. Or when strong emotion is in tide against the active mind, there is perforce confusion." That remarkable sonnet, "The Promise in Disturbance," which stands as the proem to the volume of his collected poetry, contains a subtle characterization of his work in verse. He bids us, bewildered by the jangled music of the words,

But listen in the thought; so may there come  
Conception of a newly-added chord,  
Commanding space beyond where ear has home.  
In labor of the trouble at its fount,  
Leads Life to an intelligible Lord  
The rebel discords up the sacred mount.

Yet he can be as musical as the most melodious, and as simple, when so minded. Many of his lyrics are compacted of pure melody, hauntingly sweet; and among longer poems "Love in the Valley," "Melampus," "Seed-Time," and the masterly "Hymn to Color," to name no more, are filled with a music that

is not too new to be intelligible to any lover of good verse. Simply and delightfully musical are also those three little masterpieces of genre-painting, "Juggling Jerry," "The Old Chartist," and "Martin's Puzzle," in which Mr. Meredith has dealt with the humblest rural life as feelingly as any English poet.

This poet's best-loved themes, as he has indicated repeatedly by the titles of his poetry-books, are *Tragic Life* and the *Joy of Earth*—he delves into the primal emotions of the human heart; and he knows nature intimately and loves her deeply. "Modern Love," that splendid half-century of sixteen-lined sonnets, is the heart-breaking tragedy of a mismatched husband and wife,

" . . . two rapid falcons in a snare,  
Condemned to do the flitting of the bat,"

for whom, though each is solaced by another, there is no comfort.

The wrong is mixed. In tragic life, God wot,  
No villain need be. Passions spin the plot:  
We are betrayed by what is false within.

Like his own good physician Melampus,  
With love exceeding the simple love of the things  
That glide in grasses and rubble of woody wreck,

Mr. Meredith, loving them all, walks among nature's creatures "as a scholar who reads a book." He loves the open meadow, the enchanted woods, the glow of dawn, the "dark eye-lashed twilight," the sunlight, the moonlight, the winter stars, the "day of the cloud in fleets," and the rain,—the glad refresher of the grain." Nature's every mood is known to him. His "Lark Ascending" is as living (and as tuneful) a bird as any in English lyric, which "all little birds that are" fill "with their sweet jargoning":

He rises and begins to round,  
He drops the silver chain of sound,  
Of many links without a break,  
In chirrup, whistle, slur and shake,  
All interwoven and spreading wide,  
Like water-dimples down a tide  
Where ripple ripple overcurls,  
And eddy into eddy whirls.

The starting point of Mr. Meredith's nature creed is found in that incisive sonnet of independence, "My Theme":

I say but that this love of Earth reveals  
A soul beside our own to quicken, quell,  
Irradiate, and through ruinous floods uplift.

It culminates in the teaching of "Earth's Secret":

Not solitarily in fields we find  
 Earth's secret open, though one page is there;  
 Her plainest, such as children spell, and share  
 With bird and beast; raised letters for the blind.  
 Not where the troubled passions toss the mind,  
 In turbid cities, can the key be bare:  
 It hangs for those who hither thither fare,  
 Close interthreading nature with our kind.  
 They, hearing History speak, of what men were,  
 And have become, are wise. The gain is great  
 In vision and solidity; it lives.  
 Yet at a thought of life apart from her,  
 Solidity and vision lose their state,  
 For Earth, that gives the milk, the spirit gives.  
 This is the teaching that recurs again and  
 again throughout his later poems, as a fund-  
 amental theme returns in a great musical  
 composition. Thus, in the "Ode to the  
 Spirit of Earth in Autumn":

She can lead us, only she,  
 Unto God's footstool, whither she reaches.

Behold in yon stripped Autumn, shivering gray,  
 Earth knows no desolation,  
 She smells regeneration  
 In the moist breath of decay.

Autumn is the seed-time. "Death is the  
 word of a bovine day." In "Outer and  
 Inner" he sings:

I neighbor the invisible  
 So close that my consent  
 Is only asked for spirits masked  
 To leap from trees and flowers.  
 And this because with them I dwell  
 In thought, while calmly bent  
 To read the lines dear Earth designs  
 Shall speak her life on ours.

Accept, she says; it is not hard  
 In woods; but she in towns  
 Repeats, accept; and have we wept,  
 And have we quailed with fears,  
 Or shrunk with horrors, sure reward  
 We have whom knowledge crowns;  
 Who see in mould the rose unfold,  
 The soul through blood and tears.

#### IV.

Mr. Meredith's greatest achievement as a  
 literary artist is his successful handling of the  
 problems of sex, the treatment of love. There  
 is the mark of the master. Your ordinary  
 novelist when he comes to the presentment of  
 his lovers, their actions, bearing, words,  
 flounders about inextricably in a slough of  
 despond; he fails at the crucial test. Mr.  
 Meredith's marvelous insight enables him to  
 meet that test triumphantly. He knows the  
 hearts of his women as well as those of his  
 men. His love scenes are among the best  
 things he has given us; indeed, they are  
 among the best things in all literature.

To create characters that live, said Al-

phonse Daudet, that is the business of the  
 novelist, rather than to write fine prose. It  
 is Mr. Meredith's distinction to have done  
 both. The teaching of his novels is the same  
 as that of his poems: The life of the spirit  
 is the only life. Disregard death. "Train-  
 ing ourselves to live in the Universal, we  
 rise above the individual." And "the way  
 to spiritual life lies in the complete unfold-  
 ing of the creature, not in the nipping of his  
 passions. An outrage to nature helps to ex-  
 tinguish his light." His own life has been  
 the proof of the efficacy of his teaching. He  
 has been a great lover, not alone of nature  
 and of nature's God, but of his fellow men.  
 Contemptuous of traditional creeds and their  
 belittling tendencies, he has worked out his  
 own salvation; and he has shown that "it is  
 possible to rise above the temporal and per-  
 sonal, however dark and painful it may be,  
 and to live wholly, and even joyfully, in the  
 Universal and Eternal."

This philosophical novelist and poet has  
 been as great a preacher as Thomas Carlyle  
 or Matthew Arnold, but a saner mind than  
 either, with a wider sympathy and a greater  
 liberality. While the English language lasts  
 the best of his work will live. And it will  
 continue to be a powerful influence toward  
 directing the world's advance,—a force that  
 makes for righteousness. His work is not  
 without flaws; there are faults of construc-  
 tion, some mistakes that are apparent to any  
 critical tyro. In the bulk of his writing the  
 chief fault is excess,—an excess of persons,  
 things, scenes, emotions, thoughts hardly ger-  
 mane to the matter in hand, digressions,  
 words; "the superflux that proceeds from  
 intensely passionate feeling in conception."  
 And, to quote Mr. William Winter again,  
 "an affluence of fancy is more grateful than  
 the frigid sense of want."

Standing to-day with the snows of eighty  
 years upon him, yet with "head erect and  
 heart still young," and reaffirming his con-  
 viction gained from long and deep experi-  
 ence that "there is nothing which the body  
 suffers which the soul may not profit by,"  
 George Meredith, the Nestor of English  
 writers, may not unfittingly be characterized  
 by these lines from the poet of his intellectual  
 kinship:

He there with the brand flamboyant, broad o'er  
 night's forlorn abyss,  
 Crowned by prose and verse; and wielding, with  
 Wit's bauble, Learning's rod  
 Well? Why, he at least believed in Soul, was  
 very sure of God.

# NEW BUSINESS STANDARDS AT WASHINGTON— WORK OF THE KEEP COMMISSION.

BY C. H. FORBES-LINDSAY.

WHAT would be thought of a railroad company, a bank, or a publishing-house which should permit one of its departments to purchase ink, year after year, at the rate of \$3 per dozen quarts, while another department was supplied with precisely the same brand of writing-fluid at the uniform price of \$1.70 per dozen quarts, or of a large corporation in which the morning's mail regularly reached the desks of the persons for whom it was destined not earlier than noon of the following day? Yet these are but illustrations of practices and methods that until quite recently prevailed in government offices at Washington.

It was the "Keep Commission," officially known as the Committee on Departmental Methods, that brought to light not only a number of startling facts, such as the above mentioned, but revealed at the same time errors and irregularities in method which demanded immediate correction in the interest of efficient and economical government. Many of the indicated reforms have already been made, but others must await the sanction of Congress.

Abuses that grew out of the spoils system were found to be still in existence,—as in one division where sixty-five men were

employed copying letters in longhand into huge tomes that were never referred to. In one of the offices where the system of book-keeping recommended by the commission has been installed a single ledger is now made to serve the purpose for which 400 were formerly employed, and the one is no larger than any of those which it has replaced. In another bureau, to which some 700 offices report, the monthly record of *each* has been reduced from about 50,000 words to eight or ten lines, and this with improvement, rather than impairment, of the service. In many instances the committees found two,—and in some cases three and four,—clerks doing precisely the same work. And in not a few cases it was work that it has been advisable to dispense with altogether.

The needless duplication of "places" was

not the only evil uncovered by the commission. It was found that the Government had been clinging to absurdly antiquated business practices out of mere bureaucratic regard for precedent. In offices that have an immense quantity of accounts to make out billing machines had never been employed,—merely because such labor-saving devices lacked the sanction of precedent. Such anomalous prac-



HON. JAMES R. GARFIELD.

(Secretary of the Interior, and an active member of the Keep Commission from the beginning of its work in the departments at Washington.)

tices as that followed by the Government Printing Office in paying the representatives of dead employees for vacation leave which the deceased did not happen to take rest upon defective or ill-judged statutes which only Congress itself can repair.

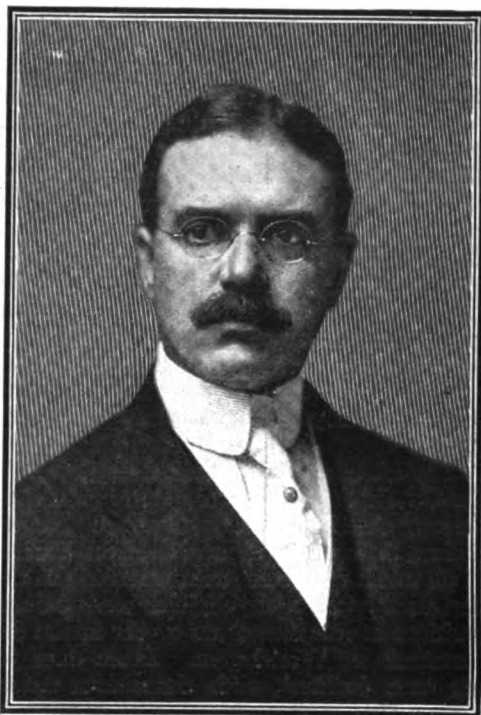
The investigation which has uncovered these conditions, thereby effecting a saving of millions of dollars annually to the taxpayers, has actually cost the Government about \$2000. All those employed in the work rendered their services without compensation and without taking time from their regular duties. This fact, in itself, is a striking illustration of the new spirit of devotedness that has entered our civil service and is fast pervading its ranks.

In constituting the Committee on Departmental Methods, somewhat more than two years ago, President Roosevelt chose five of the younger officials of the civil service, each one of whom already had a reputation for administrative ability and breadth of view. These men were named: Hon. Charles A. Keep, Assistant Secretary of the Treasury; Hon. Frank H. Hitchcock, First Assistant Postmaster-General; Hon. Lawrence O. Murray, Assistant Secretary of Commerce and Labor; Hon. James R. Garfield, at that time chief of the Bureau of Corporations, but since appointed Secretary of the Interior, and Hon. Gifford Pinchot, Chief of the Forest Service. Early last year Mr. Keep, who as chairman of the commission had given the body its name, resigned his Treasury position to accept a New York Public Service Commissionership.

The commission was directed by the President to ascertain where and in what respects our present Government methods fall short of the best business standards of to-day and to recommend measures of reform.

The commission carefully selected seventy employees of the Government, with varied experience, and formed them into sub-committees, which were used as probes to search the innermost recesses of the administrative machinery and discover the actual existing conditions. The committees made close inquiry into every condition and every phase of work connected with the service, and the resultant reports and recommendations exhaustively cover the ground, from sanitation of offices to making of Government contracts.

The remedial recommendations of the commission have almost all met with the approval of the President, and, where the authority of legislation is not necessary, they have been put



HON. CHARLES A. KEEP.

(From whom the "Committee on Departmental Methods" derived its popular designation.)

into effect with as little delay as possible, so that this reform movement has been in active operation for two years and has advanced a long way toward the contemplated consummation. When the desired action of Congress has been secured the executive branches of our Government will be by far the most efficient and economical of any in existence.

A brief review of a few of the subjects treated by the commission will afford an idea of the scope and direction of the inquiry and of the measure of improvement likely to result from it.

#### PERSONNEL AND SALARIES OF THE SERVICE.

The salaries now paid in the departmental service in Washington are based upon a classification of the clerks made by acts of Congress of 1853 and 1854, which graded the entire clerical force (except the departments of State and Justice) into four classes. To-day there are individual bureaus that have more employees than the entire departmental service had in 1853, and the responsibilities of their chiefs are incalculably greater than were those of the men who held similar posi-

tions fifty years ago. Nevertheless, there has never been any attempt to reclassify the positions, or to adjust the salaries with reference to these changed conditions, so that, at the present time, the most startling anomalies and inequities exist. Not only is there a great diversity of compensation for the same kind of work, but persons receiving the higher salaries are in many cases rendering the simplest routine service, while others in the lowest grades are performing duties of the most exacting character. Throughout the entire service the relation of the easier position, the more difficult position, and the responsible supervisory position has not for many years been adequately distinguished by the salary grades.

The lower grades of clerical employees in the Government service are better paid than the same class in private employment. Nevertheless, these positions have been the hardest of all to fill with competent persons. In the last fiscal year, 1462 eligibles were offered positions at less than \$900 a year in the departments at Washington. More than 30 per cent. declined, with the serious consequence that it was necessary to appoint in their stead individuals of distinctly inferior qualifications. The effect of this condition is far-reaching, since it is from the lower grades that the service is built up. It may be in-



HON. LAWRENCE O. MURRAY.

(Assistant Secretary of Commerce and Labor.)

ferred that the young man of parts, who is confident of his ability to rise in the world, cannot be tempted by the higher salary at the outset of his career, when it is accompanied by prospects of promotion decidedly limited as compared with those offered by commercial corporations.

On the other hand, the difficulty experienced in securing properly qualified clerks for positions paying from \$1000 to \$1500, and the great number of resignations from these grades, clearly indicate that the same character of service commands higher compensation in the business market. As to the supervisory, professional, and technical positions, they have long been recognized as very much underpaid in our departments.

These conditions have the effect of attracting to the Government service two distinct classes of men: First, those who have little ambition and no stomach for the struggle of the strong, and who find in a Washington clerkship a peaceful haven and a modest competence for life. Second, men actuated by public spirit, hope of political preferment, or desire to do big things, who are willing to sink monetary considerations for the sake of exceptional opportunities. Illustrations of this class are: Assistant Secretary of State Robert Bacon; Mr. Gifford Pinchot, of the Forest Service; Dr. Charles D. Walcott, of the Smithsonian Institution; Mr. Frederick Newell, of the Reclamation Service. In such



HON. FRANK H. HITCHCOCK.

(First Assistant Postmaster-General.)

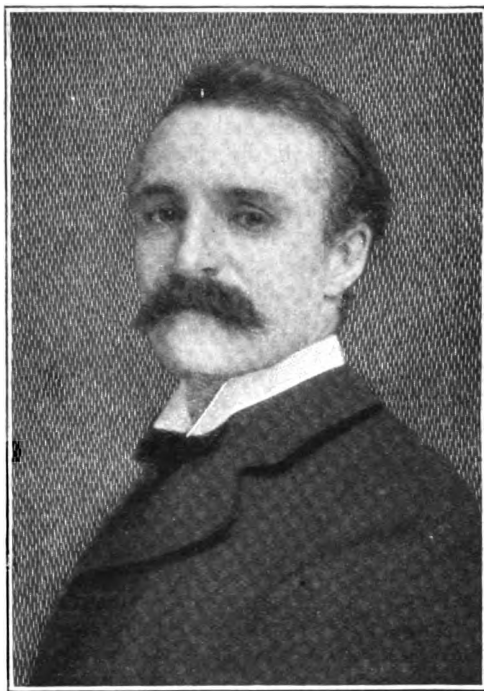
instances we find men of the highest administrative ability directing interests equivalent to the management of a great railroad, on salaries of \$4000 or \$5000 a year.

The recommendations of the commission, which will require Congressional approval, contemplate a complete reclassification of the service and a corresponding readjustment of salaries. The proposed system aims to attract a higher grade of recruits, by doing away with the \$50 and \$60 a month clerks and making the salary for the lowest grade \$900 a year. Frequent promotion is provided for, favoritism is guarded against, and the ultimate prospect is improved by a suggested long-service pension and life insurance. In the upper grades the salaries are placed sufficiently high to develop and retain the best executive and expert service.

The commission estimates that these increases in remuneration will entail no more than 10 per cent. addition to the appropriations for salaries, which would represent an amount trivial in comparison with the sum that will be saved as a result of the economies already effected by the investigation, and would be further justified by the higher class of entrants to the Government service and the enhanced standard of efficiency that will be maintained in every grade.

#### INTRODUCING UP-TO-DATE COMMERCIAL METHODS.

One of the most important features of latter-day commercial accounting is the analytical form of bookkeeping, which is styled "cost-keeping." Manufacturing establishments employ it to ascertain in detail the cost of articles produced; railroads use it in the analyses of their operating expenses, and insurance companies depend upon it for statistics of the general costs of management and agency operation. States and municipalities are adopting the system with marked effect, and it has proved to be of no less assistance in government work than in commercial business. It will make comparison possible between the operations of establishments doing the same class of manufacturing, such as mints, arsenals, and navy yards. It will enable the head of a department or bureau to determine where economies may be effected by introducing new arrangements in organization, or new methods in practice, to estimate more intelligently on the probable cost of future operations, to make contracts with closer calculation, to fix selling prices on products transferred to other branches of the



HON. GIFFORD PINCHOT.  
(Chief of the Forest Service.)

Government, or sold to foreign governments, or to private concerns.

Cost-keeping, heretofore practiced in only two or three recently-organized government bureaus, will in future be employed wherever benefit can be derived from it, and the resultant advantages in mere dollars and cents must amount to millions every year.

In the matter of accounting, the commission found even the Treasury deplorably behind the times. This was one of the first subjects investigated, and reforms have been in force long enough to show the most markedly beneficial effects. As examples: The Treasury, which formerly only balanced its books once a year, at the expenditure of a great deal of time and trouble, now has a double-entry system of bookkeeping in force which enables it to strike a true balance at the close of each day's work. The account of the disbursing officer at New York, which used to take six months to make out, is now completed in two weeks. In a certain branch of the Government, where large and numerous financial transactions are carried on, the officials, who were accustomed to take ninety days to render an account, are now ready to do so daily. If a disbursing officer makes his last payment, for instance, at ten o'clock in the morning, he



can give a complete account of his affairs at noon of the same day. The Auditor of the Treasury, who has been in the habit,—and necessarily so under the old system,—of settling disbursing officers' accounts largely on faith, now has all the checks and vouchers before him with which to verify them.

These improvements, be it understood, have not been achieved by any increase of the machinery. They are simply the results of better system, attained with less labor than was expended on the antiquated and cumbersome methods which have been abolished.

#### NEEDED REFORMS IN THE PURCHASE OF SUPPLIES.

It would naturally be supposed that in an institution purchasing supplies in such enormous quantities as does our Government the patent opportunities for economy and standardization would be embraced. Such has not, however, been the case. Each department,—and, in cases, a separate bureau or division,—advertises independently for what it needs, and contracts at a price without knowledge or regard for what the same goods are costing other branches of the Government or private corporations. A certain mucilage costs one department \$1.84 per dozen quarts and another \$3 per dozen quarts. The prices of the same make of pencils range from \$2.27 per gross to \$3.36 per gross. The cost of ice varies from 13 to 30 cents per 100 pounds, and no two departments contract for coal at the same figures. It should be borne in mind that articles of small unit value are consumed in quantities that represent hundreds of thousands of dollars, and the aggregate bills of the Government for such ordinary supplies run into the millions yearly.

No attempt whatever has been made to standardize supplies, so that 133 varieties of pencils, 28 kinds of ink, 263 different styles of pen-points, and all sorts of typewriter ribbon, are used in the various government offices. Hardly any check is placed upon waste or peculation. It would seem that every employee of the Government in Washington, from cabinet minister to colored messenger, uses twenty-three pencils each month, or, say, a total of 7,000,000 pencils a year, at a cost of \$150,000.

A bill to provide for the betterment of these conditions was introduced at the last session of Congress, but it was blocked in the Senate. However, in case the opposition to the measure continues in the present Congress, the Keep Commission has devised a



MR. OVERTON PRICE.  
(Secretary of the Keep Commission.)

plan which will make for a great improvement in the purchase of supplies. An inter-department committee is suggested which shall insure uniformity in prices and, with the co-operation of the Bureau of Standards, shall establish standards of quality and test goods furnished under contract.

#### RESULTS IN EFFICIENCY AND ECONOMY.

There are many phases of the commission's work, and highly important ones, which it is impossible to notice in the limits of this article. The changes effected and suggested seem to be in almost every case adequate and practicable. They must result in vast improvement of service and enormous economy of administration. These are more than ever important considerations in this day, when modern civilization demands of Government an ever increasing service and the exercise of entirely new functions.

Of course, it is impossible to make a precise statement of the amount of saving in money, or of the degree of improvement in service that may be expected to result from the labors of the Keep Commission, but a few concrete illustrations will afford the basis for a general idea on both points. Careful inquiry among chiefs of bureaus and divisions elicited the assurance that in a great



majority of cases they anticipate at least doubled efficiency, and economies averaging 30 per cent. of former expenditures.

The Interior Department has almost completed a thorough reorganization. There were formerly a number of divisions through which all correspondence and matters for the consideration of the Secretary passed and were prepared for his action. The system involved serious delays and a great amount of unnecessary labor. There were other divisions,—one to furnish documents, another stationery, a third furniture, and so on,—which have all been consolidated, with important saving in work and expense. In the Land Office the increase in efficiency is incalculable,—certainly several hundred per cent.,—and the saving in administration will be \$500,000 a year. The estimate for the Secretary's office proper is \$40,000 less than last year, despite the fact that the business to be done is greater. The work of the department is performed in less than half the time it used to consume, and the task of improvement is still in progress.

Public printing offers a good illustration of decrease in expenditures accompanied by improved service. A member of the cabinet once said to the writer: "If an official wants to effectually hide something from the public he cannot do better than put it in his annual report. No one will ever see it." This

jest is almost a literal truth. The reports have been cumbersome and repellent. They contained repetitions of the same matter, scientific treatises, general discussions, philosophical reflections, biographies and eulogies, and, in short, irrelevant and redundant matter of all kinds, and illustrations that had no excuse for their presence. In compliance with an executive order, the current reports have been restricted to pertinent subjects and are free from the objectionable features. They are, in consequence, much more useful, and have cost \$200,000 less than usual.

An enormous quantity of utterly useless printed material for which no demand existed has been issued by the Government yearly. In the past ten years 800,000 duplicate volumes have been returned to the Superintendent of Documents, and he has, for lack of storage facilities, declined the return of several hundred thousand more. And these figures relate solely to duplication in distribution to libraries and take no account of similar waste in the distribution to individuals. How great that has been may be inferred from the experience gained in the issue of two recent publications where the usual method was departed from. By taking care to prevent more than one copy going to the same individual a saving of 85,000 volumes was effected in these cases alone.

## BETTER BUSINESS METHODS FOR CITIES.

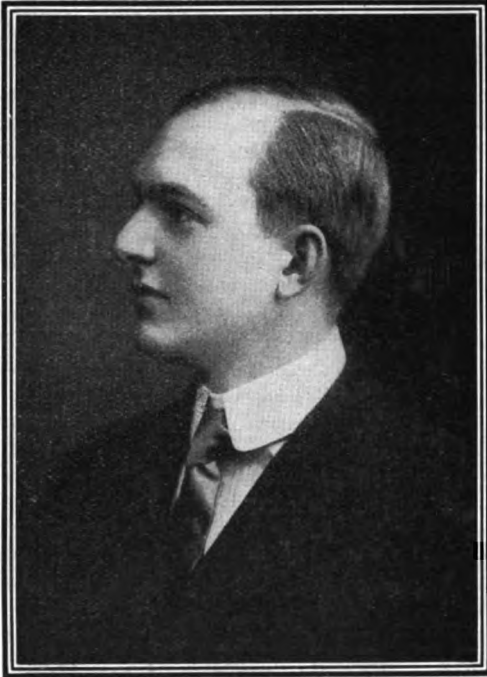
BY WILLIAM H. ALLEN.

(Secretary of the Bureau of Municipal Research, New York City.)

THE importance of diagnosing the diseases with which American municipalities are sore afflicted is illustrated by the variety of remedies encountered in one day while visiting Boston. A college professor wanted each city divided into small districts for compulsory public discussion of city affairs. A university president urged government by a commission of "best, intelligent men," in numbers small enough that the blame for misgovernment could be definitely located. The private secretary of an eminent man wanted intelligent men to follow the example of his chief, who had been "talking every two weeks on the need for better men." An accountant of national repute demanded classified accounts. Restriction of immigration, disfranchisement of the ignorant and of the unpropertied, enfranchisement of women, initiative, referendum, primary-election law, lectures to the foreign-born on American history,—each in turn is offered as a panacea for misgovernment in American cities.

The prevailing view among Boston editors, and one that has been reiterated by editors in New York, Philadelphia, Louisville, Chicago, Buffalo, San Francisco, etc., was effectively stated by Mayor Hibbard, of Boston, who took office on January 1:

I, too, am at present conducting a bureau of municipal research. Previous to the time of leaving my former position and becoming mayor, I joined an organization where it was necessary that I should state my occupation. I said: "Between hay and grass." Now it's grass, for the one thing I have found out after ten days of study is that I know less now about



Photograph by Davis & Sanford, N. Y.

MR. HENRY BRUÈRE.

(Director of the Bureau of Municipal Research.)

municipal administration in Boston than when I began. As to the problem of municipal administration, there is one sentence in the statement recently made by Comptroller Metz of New York that appeals to me strongly. It is that in which he says: "The problem of this office to-day is not one of discovering an irregularity here and there, but rather of reorganizing from start to finish this city's business methods so that irregularities that are invited to-day cannot occur next year." Now that is what we are trying to do in the city of Boston, and it is in that spirit that I welcome the officers of the Bureau of Municipal Research of New York.

#### THINGS IMPORTANT TO KNOW ABOUT A CITY GOVERNMENT.

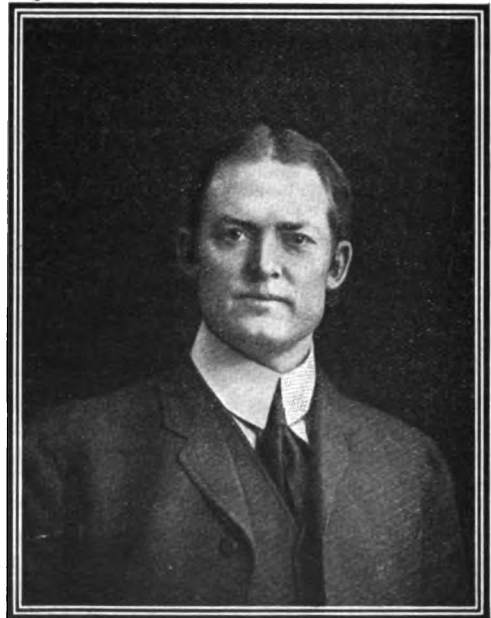
By "business methods," Comptroller Metz and Mayor Hibbard refer to methods that make it easy to exercise intelligent judgment. Intelligent judgment about business is rarely exercised except where it is easy to obtain the facts as to business results. Intelligent judgment with regard to municipal officials and municipal government will never be possible until it is made easy for all who may be benefited or injured by government to learn the essential facts as to government acts and community needs. In business the essential thing is not the name, the pedigree, the complexion or respectability of the manager, but the specific things that the manager

does. So in government the indispensable facts are not the political relation, the erudition, or personal characteristics of the official, but the specific things that he gets done, the specific things that he leaves undone or does wrong, the specific defects of government that injure the governed, causing unnecessary sickness, wretchedness, waste, arrested development of child life and of community life.

#### THE APPLICATION.

For business, methods have been devised that make it easy to record acts as they occur, to classify them where they belong and to report them regularly to managers and stockholders. The application of business methods to government means (1) the preparation of documents which may be used as evidence for locating the responsibility for each transaction, (2) the current filing and recording of this evidence in such manner that it may not be lost, (3) the calling each act by its right name, (4) the placing facts of a kind together in records of account that they may be interpreted, and (5) the reporting side by side what work is done and the cost of that work promptly and regularly to responsible officials, to electors, and to other parties in interest.

It is easier for the same methods to succeed in business than in government, because



MR. FREDERICK A. CLEVELAND.

(Technical Director of the Bureau of Municipal Research.)

the parties in interest are relatively few in most business enterprises. Where interested parties are numerous business enterprise has shown the same defects as government enterprise; inside information has brought inside influence and inside profits. Witness specific insurance and transportation evils familiar to the public mind. The protection of interested parties at a distance from the acting representative has developed in business the compulsory outside audit and the supervision now more or less efficiently exercised by State governments. The protection of the taxpayer at a distance from the acting municipal officials requires efficient outside supervision and special knowledge such as can be exercised by volunteer bodies which, like the Bureau of Municipal Research, can co-operate with city officials to insure the recording, reporting, publishing, and interpreting of official acts and community needs so that the average taxpayer can easily exercise intelligent judgment as to government.

#### WHAT HAS BEEN DONE IN NEW YORK.

Organized in 1906, incorporated in May, 1907, as an independent scientific body, this organization has published unsensational, unprejudiced statements of fact showing the results of the following studies: (1) The city of New York, the street-railway companies and \$1,500,000 of unpaid bills; (2) some phases of the work of the department of street cleaning that make inefficiency and dirty streets inevitable; (3) improved property leased by the city of New York contrary to public health and morals; (4) how Manhattan is governed; (5) making a municipal budget; (6) a department of municipal audit and examination; (7) follow-up studies in all fields after first examination and report; (8) for the report of the Charter Revision Commission to Governor Hughes, the bureau charted the functions of the present government of New York City, showing what each department is expected to do and through what machinery and employees it now attempts to do it, the organization of twenty departments being shown in diagrams; (9) incidental to the study of Manhattan Borough and the Commissioners of Accounts' office, the Borough President of Manhattan was removed by Governor Hughes on charges of gross incompetence, and the senior Commissioner of Accounts resigned before the hearing of charges that he had employed men on the city payroll on private work during business hours. In an attempt to save



MR. WILLIAM H. ALLEN.  
(Secretary of the Bureau of Municipal Research.)

his own prestige, the Borough President of Manhattan removed the Commissioner of Public Works, Superintendent of Public Buildings and Offices, and the chief engineer of the Bureau of Highways, and appointed efficient men in their stead, and permitted them to substitute in many departments efficient for inefficient methods and economy for waste.

#### REORGANIZING A CITY'S FISCAL SYSTEM.

As results of this citizen co-operation on the basis of facts the government of New York City is committed by resolution: (1) To uniform accounts that will tell for what acts money is spent,—installed in five major departments January 1, 1908; (2) to service records that will tell what acts are actually committed by employees and the results of those acts, the departments of health and street cleaning furnishing examples; (3) to annual budgets that will tell for what acts departments request funds, estimates being based upon actual cost of these same acts the preceding year,—eight departments having adopted the standard for 1908; (4) to a reorganization of its inspection and audit service, so that the veracity of statements from departments about acts, costs, and results can be proved,—notable results having already





riors, and that the public can definitely locate responsibility for waste, inefficiency or corruption. For illustration, let us choose what is probably the most interesting feature of this chart, viz.: (the lower right hand division) "Auditor of Receipts," which it is noticed does not appear in the present organization. The city of New York issues permits and licenses, rents markets, buys and sells property, sells water and collects fines and taxes. Receipts from these and other sources aggregate over \$100,000,000 annually. John Smith may pay \$50 for a license. This fact is clearly written on his receipt. If by accident or by design the stub reads \$5 for that license, the discrepancy can now be discovered only by having a man stand over the writer of the receipt. Thousands and thousands of dollars are spent in making sure that the \$5 marked on the receipt stub is copied as \$5 in the cash book, in register and ledger.

#### THE USE OF GRADUATED RECEIPTS, ETC.

The reorganization is intended to provide that a stub cannot differ from a receipt without detection. For fixed fees and licenses, the accuracy of records and the fidelity of employees will be tested by charging a clerk or bureau for the number of receipt blanks at their recorded value; where the amount due cannot be determined in advance, graduated receipts will be used as in post-offices; for water rates, taxes, etc., duplicate bills will be sent to the auditor of receipts by the water department; for leases, bills will be sent out by the auditor of receipts. In other words, to check up the amounts received by various city departments, the auditor of receipts will have documentary evidence of amounts due in his own office, in the form of graduated receipt, serially numbered stubs having a fixed value, duplicate tax list, water register list, or record of lease values, etc.

By setting side by side the amount of taxes assessed and the amount in arrears reported by the deputy exercising fiscal functions (at the left of the chart) with the amount re-

ported as received by the auditor of receipts, the general auditor, the finance deputy, Comptroller, and general public can learn where money due has not been paid, and what amounts of money are being withheld from the city that should be in hand to prevent the need for borrowing money at high interest rates.

#### EXPENDITURES MUST SHOW RESULTS.

The reader interested in the methods employed in his own city may be helped by asking his city Comptroller or mayor which of these two charts most nearly represents the business methods employed in the office of the Comptroller or auditor. A very important question is whether or not this central clearing house for information as to cost, has a department such as "Chief Statistician" in chart 2 for obtaining facts as to work done, or whether there are expert accountants with authority to insist upon records and accounts in the various departments that will make the truth legible when reported to the fiscal center. The Bureau of Municipal Research is interested in methods only because proper methods are indispensable to learning results. Whether within a city, a board of education or a fire department, the place to look for intelligence is the place where money is spent. If those who disburse public funds acquire the habit of measuring costs by results before claims are authorized and before money is paid, efficiency and honesty will be made easier than inefficiency and dishonesty. If private citizens desiring to promote self-government for the benefit of the governed will begin municipal reform by working for organization and methods that disclose inefficiency and efficiency alike, they will be surprised to find how ready city officials are to co-operate. If private philanthropy will spend upon municipal research a small fraction of the amounts now generously given to alleviate the physical and social evils of misgovernment, "America's conspicuous failure,—municipal government,"—will become America's conspicuous success.



COAL MINERS TRANSPORTING A PATIENT ON THE BACK OF A MULE.

## WHY NOT A "RED CROSS" FOR THE ARMY OF INDUSTRY?

BY ARTHUR B. REEVE.

"WHAT are you doing for him?" asked the hoisting engineer of a neighboring colliery, as he peeped in through the door of the dimly lighted shed at an apparently lifeless form with a blanket carelessly pulled over it.

"Sending for the undertaker," was the nonchalant response of the group of men outside.

"What was the matter,—gas?"

"Sure."

"Couldn't you revive him?"

"Didn't try. What's the use? He's done for."

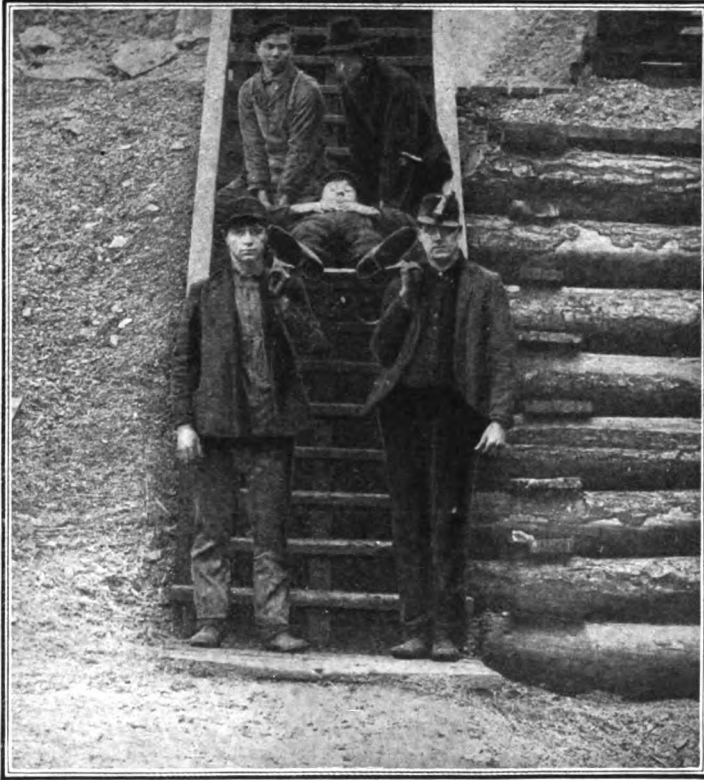
"Well, you *are* a fine bunch. Don't you know anything about it at all? No? It's none of my business, I suppose, but a few weeks ago our company had a lecture on first aid to the injured. I've pretty nearly forgotten just what you do for a man knocked out by gas, but,—oh, yes, it's just the same as you do in case of drowning. Now, here, a couple of you men look alive and work his arms,—so. Don't stop till I tell you. The doctor said never to stop if you kept at it for two or three hours. Gently now and steady. That's it."

This little incident happened several

months ago in a mining town of the soft-coal region. To-day one miner is at work in Pennsylvania instead of having been added as another unit to the already large figure of asphyxiations in the State Department of Mines report. One couldn't ask for a better example of what first aid to injured miners is doing.

Of course the State law requires that at the bottom of each shaft there shall be an emergency hospital, and indeed there is, but it has usually been found to be of comparatively little use. At least that is what Mr. W. J. Richards, general manager of the Philadelphia Coal & Iron Company, found, and he has known the coal regions most of his life. There must first of all be somebody who knows how to use it. An idea came to him that in each one of the fifty or more collieries of the company there ought to be a "first-aid" corps. So he had the company doctor go to each one of them in turn and call for volunteers. At each colliery a dirty, grimy crowd of willing men stepped forth, eager to enlist in the service, and out of the men themselves,—or, rather, out of the boys who work at driving the mules or opening doors,—the doctor organized 350 into squads.





CARRYING A PATIENT DOWN A FLIGHT OF STEPS ON A LITTER.

Did it work? Listen to this story by the doctor who carried out the scheme: "One night I was on my way to the hall where we were going to have our regular lecture and practical demonstration, when a telegram was handed to me saying that a man with a crushed ankle was coming by the next train to the hospital. I thought I'd stop on the way and see how he was getting on, and just as I reached the hospital the ambulance drove up with the patient.

"How is he getting on?" I asked the surgeon.

"Fine, sir," was the reply. 'His ankle has been dressed by a doctor and I wouldn't disturb it.'

"On the way to the hall I determined to make that particular injury the subject of one of the demonstrations before the boys, who had come from the scattered collieries. I told the story and had one squad after another dress the ankle of an imaginary victim. Finally, as a new squad came forward, I asked one quiet young fellow in it if he thought he could handle such a case.

"Oh, yes, doctor," he replied. 'I dressed

that case you spoke of. The accident happened just as we were starting to come here, and so the squad came on the train with him.'

"The ambulance surgeon had said the ankle was dressed by a doctor!"

They are now beginning to measure the value of first aid in dollars and cents, also. It was recently announced that as a result of it there would in the future be a 15-per cent. increase in the benefits which injured miners would receive from the miners' benefit fund. In other words, prompt treatment has made recovery so much more rapid and certain that during the last year the men lost less time through disability than ever before, although more coal was mined and the number of ac-

cidents remained about normal. First aid has, therefore, both enabled a man to return to regular wages more quickly and has increased his weekly allowance while he is laid up.

I was once talking to a coal operator about accidents, and before long he became angry and blurted out: "Well, what would you have us do? Stop mining coal?" No, we cannot stop mining coal nor can we deny the truth of the assertion that even under the best of conditions coal mining is what the Anthracite Strike Commission said it was,—one of the few most dangerous occupations which any great number of men follow. But we can at least have more regard for the care of miners when they are injured, and, therefore, a system such as this deserves recognition as an object lesson, not only to coal mining, but to all industry.

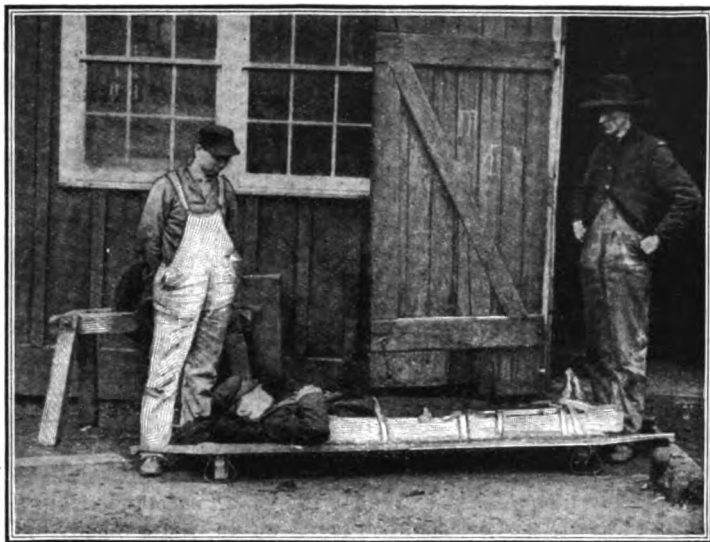
The fifty-odd squads for first aid meet regularly for practice and instruction, and at the meetings each squad is provided with a man who is willing to be bandaged and dressed as if he were really injured. Some particular form of injury is selected for the

lesson, and, after instructions have been given, the boys practice on their willing patient until they succeed in handling him satisfactorily.

Among other things, first-aid instruction is carefully limited to getting the victim ready to be carried to a hospital, or to reviving him from asphyxiation preparatory to the arrival of a doctor. "What would you do if the patient should call you in the next day to redress the wound?" asked a visiting surgeon once. "Well, if I did it, I should expect

to be prosecuted for practicing medicine without a license," replied the boy, repeating the instructions carefully drummed into his head.

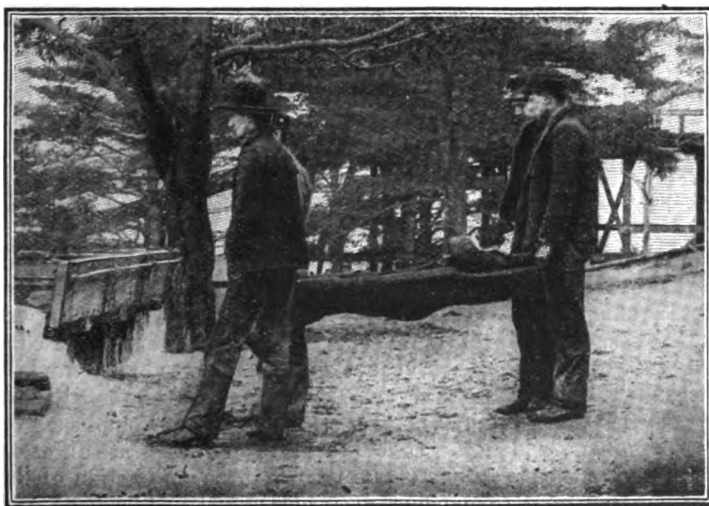
The emergency hospital at the bottom of the shaft in each mine is provided with beds, stretchers, splints, bandages, and other necessities, to which is added a portable case, very ingeniously devised by the company doctor himself, containing bandages and dressings, which may be carried to the scene of the accident at once by one of the boys. The rest of the squad, if the accident were an explosion of dynamite, for instance, would hurry with stretchers and splints from the hospital.



DRESSING FOR COMPOUND FRACTURE OF THE LEG.

A hasty examination reveals, perhaps, a broken leg, and at once a tightly wrapped package is taken from the kit, with all the bandages necessary for this particular case. The boys carefully bandage the leg and secure it between two splints, one five feet long, extending from the armpit to below the foot, and another three feet long, on the inside of the leg. Then the patient is lifted on the stretcher and carried to the foot of the shaft and up in the elevator to an ambulance that is by this time waiting. It's all in the day's work of mining our coal, this matter of accidents, and at best the journey is likely to be

a long and painful one. In the many transfers from stretcher to elevator and from elevator to ambulance, and possibly then to railroad train, many a simple fracture has, before the advent of the first-aid squad, been changed into a compound fracture by inexperienced handling. The time of recovery from a simple fracture is measured in weeks, from a compound fracture in months. The grimy men down there in the coal-pits know all this; that is why



IMPROVED LITTER,—A BLANKET AND TWO SAPLINGS.

when the squad was introduced there were so many volunteers.

Take the case of severe burns from gas or explosives. Something must be done immediately, and yet the burn cannot be dressed again very soon, for too frequent dressing is almost as bad as none at all. Oil and cotton are the usual materials used, but the cotton becomes dirty, and perspiration and coal dust render it foul. What would you do for a man like that? A doctor who knows all about it has devised packets of large square pieces of cotton gauze soaked and dried in a 2-per cent. solution of picric acid. Applied in several layers by the boys, and securely covered by cotton, the heat of the body quickly liberates enough of the picric acid dressing to make an effective treatment for at least forty-eight hours. That is an example of what scientific medical common-sense can do for industry, and should be duplicated in every dangerous trade.

In many cases accidents in mines bring serious losses of blood. The first-aid squad has been taught the location of the principal arteries, and the "tourniquet," a strap with a knob that presses on the artery, is provided, and they are taught how to use it. Then there is the treatment for asphyxiation, that is carefully taught them.

Ingenuity must be used with the miner, if nothing else. Take, for example, the "dirty-hand" problem. Of course all these dressings, carefully sterilized and sealed as they are, must be applied by boys at once, and any one who has ever been in a coal mine knows that clean water is an alien conception to such a place. To overcome the dirty-hand problem the gauze and other materials are wrapped and folded in strips of paper, or the paper is interposed between the layers in such a way that no finger need touch any part of the dressing. Another queer problem presented is that of whiskey. Starting in with it as a stimulant, it is sometimes so freely administered that a patient has frequently been known to arrive at the hospital completely under its influence, in addition to his other troubles. The first-aid squad confines its stimulants to hot coffee and aromatic spirits of ammonia.

It is, of course, too soon to see yet the immense educational effect of this new spirit in this company's mines. When the present boys in the first-aid squads are miners, and others have taken their places, a great many of the rough, and, to those who do not think, uncouth miners will know more about such

things as the care of the human body in emergencies than most of the educated public for whom they are making their vicarious sacrifices "a mile or so from daylight." Besides, the scheme has taken so well that the many first-aid squads have a keen sense of rivalry, and now they are having contests every year for medals offered by the company.

Such success for first aid is not the experience of the coal-mining industry alone. Every other company that has tried it, in other industries, has found the same result. Its value has been proved over and over again in dollars and cents. In the cotton mills of Rhode Island it has lately been installed. In one of the largest electrical plants in the country, as you pass through, you frequently notice the first-aid kits on the walls, with cards of instructions for all sorts of emergencies; while the company has issued a neat little booklet, bound strongly in cloth and fully illustrated, telling briefly and clearly just what first aid in case of electric shock is. Among the many sociological works of the Colorado Fuel & Iron Company are its first-aid instruction and splendid service. In all these cases such care has been found to pay in measurable money amount. The German and French manufacturers have found this out, also.

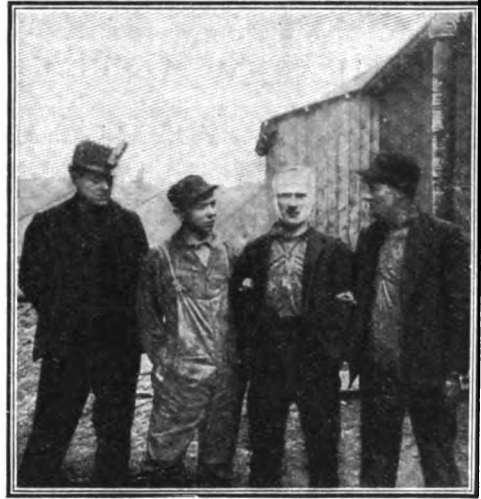
In Massachusetts a law has been passed requiring manufacturers to keep on hand a first-aid or emergency kit in the event of accident to any of their employees. Yet even so slight a move as the announcement of the board of health in one city, not long ago, that it would enforce this simple law raised a storm of abuse from some employers, who charged that there was graft back of it. When actually pinned down to facts they were forced to admit that the basis was a mere conjecture that "perhaps somebody has got options on a lot of first-aid kits." On the other hand, the most considerate employers of the city with one accord hastened to comply with the requirements of the law, and indeed many of them had already done so voluntarily.

Large corporations have so far proved the only ones to see the value of first aid. The Pennsylvania Railroad, for instance, has recently begun an aggressive campaign of education in first aid among its 198,000 employees scattered over an aggregate of 11,000 miles of line. This is being accomplished by a series of lectures delivered at different points on its lines under the direction of the company's medical examiner. This work will be of the most comprehensive character, and

those employees directly connected with train operation will at the end of the course be closely questioned on the subject when taking examinations in the future for promotion. Stretchers, together with first-aid packets containing bandages and dressings, have been placed upon the trains and at convenient points along the line, so that the men can have prompt equipment for carrying on the work, both for employees and passengers who are injured. The "first-aid room" in New York is a matter of great pride to the company.

The railroad Y. M. C. A. at Camden, New Jersey, some time ago took the courses offered by the New York Society for Instruction in First Aid to the Injured. The secretary of the association has said: "The Camden corps is doing splendid work, and its services are much appreciated by the Pennsylvania Railroad Company. During the year they have been called upon to take charge of 227 cases, 55 of which were taken by their men to the hospital and 172 treated by them at the shops without the aid of physicians. All of these cases have fully recovered except two, one of these men having been severely shocked by electricity and the other having had a foot crushed. But both of them are doing well and will, I hope, soon return to work."

Manufacturers who are interested can do no better than make a beginning with the course of five lectures prepared by the Society for the Instruction in First Aid to the Injured, which was organized as long ago as



HEAD DRESSING DONE BY THE FIRST-AID SQUAD, WADESVILLE COLLIERY, PA.

1882, under the chairmanship of Gen. George B. McClellan, as a committee of the State Charities Aid Association in New York. It is now a separate society, aiming to give instruction by means of lectures in first aid,—free to those unable to pay; for others from \$1 to \$3 for the course. There is one lecture each week, occupying an hour and a half, a review of work previously gone over, and a half-hour of practical work such as the application of bandages and splints, restoration of the apparently drowned, lifting the injured, carrying on stretchers, etc. Diplomas are awarded at the end of the course to those who pass a satisfactory examination. Last year 2223 persons were instructed and 1854 diplomas issued, while in the past twenty-five years 24,193 persons have been instructed and 18,164 have passed the examination and received diplomas. So far the work has been mainly in the police and fire departments of the city, with an occasional class in the Y. M. C. A.'s or the public schools. But the idea ought to be taken up by manufacturers.

A single illustration will prove the need: The manager of the insurance department of a large corporation has said:

Many personal-injury accidents cost less money than heretofore, by reason of the fact that, in addition to protective measures, we installed a system of "first aid." This was a means of shortening disabilities. Prior to April, 1905, the average disability of shop men on account of personal injury was sixteen days. By prompt application of "first aid" in an antiseptic form, this has been reduced to eleven days.



SLING IMPROVISED FROM THE SKIRT OF THE PATIENT'S COAT.

# THE NEW ANTI-VAGRANCY CAMPAIGN.

BY FRANCES MAULE BJÖRKMAN.

FOR the first time a concerted effort is being made in the United States to attack the vagrancy problem. Most of the countries of Europe,—notably England, Germany, Belgium, and Switzerland,—have had both legislative and administrative means of dealing with it for many years, but America, instead of instituting measures against the tramp, has raised him to the heights of a national joke. Our national attitude toward him is tolerant and indulgent. The nicknames by which we refer to him are, at worst, of a mildly bantering character, although they betray a thorough understanding of his real nature. The extensive literature which he has evoked is based on the popular recognition of his aversion to work, his contempt of veracity, his predilection for beer, and his horror of water both for interior and exterior use,—but it is not the sort of thing that leads to authoritative anti-vagrancy action. The stage tramp is the most irresistibly funny of comic characters. On the whole, our mental image of the vagabond is a humorous one, and we hardly think of him except in a humorous light.

And yet the "Weary Walker" of the American comic press represents a much more serious problem than his European brother. In the Old World the vagrant exists largely as a survival of the "journeyman" of the ancient trade guilds, the young workman, who, on completing his apprenticeship, was sent on the road to practice his trade before being invested with the degree of "master" and the right to set up in business for himself. Therefore, except in exceptional cases, the purpose of the European wayfarer is to get work. As a rule he makes no attempt to steal rides on the railroads, and he is usually both able and willing to pay for his meals and lodgings. Whatever begging he does is of a casual nature. The fact that his numbers are greatly multiplied in times of financial depression, when many men are thrown out of employment in the cities, is fairly conclusive evidence that, in intention at least, he is a workingman.

This is far from being the case with the American tramp. He is not looking for

work. He is traveling for pleasure. He does not tramp. He rides the railroads. He is a chronic and incorrigible beggar. His deliberate purpose is to get a living out of society without giving anything in return. Hard times or good times do not affect his numbers. There is apparently absolutely no connection between him and the problem of the unemployed. He persists in times of prosperity and in times of financial stress.

## MAGNITUDE OF OUR TRAMP PROBLEM.

What the size of the tramp army is no one can tell, but a vague idea of its magnitude can be guessed from the fact that the number of trespassers killed and injured on American railroads from the year 1901 to the year 1905, inclusive,—of which it is estimated that at least two-thirds were tramps,—amounted to 49,200: just thirteen times more than the number of passengers and more than the combined total of passengers and trainmen killed and injured during the same period. Some one has estimated that if the number of vagrants on the road is in the same proportion to the number of vagrants killed as the number of trainmen on the road is in proportion to the number of trainmen killed, there must be more than half a million tramps beating their way on American railroads every year. The annual loss to railroads through the destruction of property by tramps has been loosely estimated by Major J. G. Pangborn, of the Baltimore & Ohio, as something like \$2,500,000.

All this represents a tremendous cost to society. The tramp who is injured on the railroad usually becomes a public charge for the rest of his life, and the tramp who is considerate enough to permit himself to be killed outright has to be buried, either by the railroad or by the county, town, or State in which he loses his life.

And these things are only a part of what it costs us to maintain our national joke. Supervisor S. K. Estabrook, of the Wayfarers' Lodges in Philadelphia, estimates that tramps, when they are not on the road being fed and lodged by farmers and railroads,

spend one-third of their time in almshouses, one-third in houses of correction, and one-third in missions and lodging-houses whose rates are so low that the price of a bed can readily be begged on the street. At the approach of winter the jails which impose no labor on their prisoners are taxed to their capacity to accommodate the sudden flood of petty malefactors who seem to be hurling themselves into the arms of the law. In the summer such members of the constitutionally fatigued brotherhood as are not in the country begging their way, and incidentally rendering the highways unsafe for women and children, are in the city occupying the parks as lodgings and incidentally unfitting the park benches for use by any one but themselves.

#### AUTHORITIES ENCOURAGE THE EVIL.

These facts in regard to the American vagrant were laid before the thirty-fourth annual Conference of Charities and Corrections at Minneapolis last June by Mr. Orlando F. Lewis, who as superintendent of the Joint Application Bureau of the Charity Organization Society and the Society for Improving the Condition of the Poor in New York has made a special study of the vagrancy problem. In his paper Mr. Lewis showed that town and city authorities all over the country, instead of doing anything to abate the evil, with only a few exceptions are adding materially to it by refusing to incur the expense of arresting and prosecuting men who are caught stealing rides on the railroads. In support of his statements he read extracts from letters of numerous railroad officials stating that their troubles with vagrants were almost wholly due to lack of co-operation in repressive measures on the part of authorities of the towns and cities through which their roads pass. President James J. Hill of the Great Northern wrote that it was almost invariably the custom of magistrates in the towns along his route to let off all the vagrants brought before them for trial with a peremptory order to leave town within twenty-four hours. Other officials were quoted by Mr. Lewis as saying that policemen, instead of arresting tramps, frequently order them not to get off the trains, and, in some instances, actually help them to climb aboard in order to facilitate their exit from the community. Still other officials wrote that they had found it necessary to subsidize municipal authorities with money or passes in order to secure the con-

viction and commitment of tramps arrested by their own special policemen.

In places where tramps are arrested and convicted, Mr. Lewis said that sentence is frequently suspended on condition that the offender leave town without delay. In many municipalities it is the custom to release all prisoners convicted of vagrancy a few days after commitment. In others they are left practically unguarded, that they may escape if they feel disposed to do so.

#### THE RAILROAD THE KEY TO THE TRAMP SITUATION.

Thus the railroads are infested with tramps because of the parsimony of municipalities, and, by a sort of poetic justice, they become in turn the great purveyors in tramps to municipalities. "Naturally," says President James J. Hill, "when every town is pursuing the 'passing-along policy,' each one receives exactly as much refuse as it gets rid of."

However, according to Mr. Lewis, the railroads themselves are not doing all in their power to suppress the tramp evil. None of them is adequately policed. Few maintain any police except at stations and in city yards. The ejection of tramps from the trains is left almost wholly to the train crews, and these men are often unequal to the task. Furthermore, many trainmen are not unwilling to let a "bo" ride in return for a "fare" that goes no further than his own pocket. Dr. George L. Reitman, the Chicago physician who has tramped with tramps all over the world and whose relations with the wandering fraternity are so intimate that he once gave a "hobo banquet" at a leading Chicago hotel, says that the railroad is the key to the situation and that if it would make the tramps tramp there would soon be no tramps.

#### THE PUBLIC'S MISPLACED SYMPATHY.

But the ill-considered economy of municipalities and the laxity of railroads are not the only causes that contribute to the perpetuation and spread of vagrancy. Mr. Lewis lays much of the responsibility to the misdirected sympathy of the general public. He condemns unsparingly the sentiment that prompts the kitchen "poke-out," that maintains bread-lines and coffee-wagons, that permits the use of police stations and parks as lodgings, that defends the free "bed-ticket," and that prevents systematic attack on the "hobo joint" on the ground that the poor

man should not be deprived of the only shelter which his means can buy.

Since Jacob Riis, notwithstanding the protests of the sentimental, caused the practice of giving lodging to vagrants in the police stations of New York to be abandoned, public sentiment has changed in this one particular. Most of the large cities are now following the example of the metropolis and providing more suitable accommodations for their penniless wayfarers. In all other respects, however, there is still a strong disinclination on the part of civil authorities to institute any measures that may be construed by the public as a discrimination against the poor. Last summer the Women's Health Protective League, at the suggestion of Mr. Lewis, tried to get Police Commissioner Bingham, of New York, to clear the parks and squares of the all-day and all-night "squatters" by issuing a peremptory order to his men to enforce the "moving-on" ordinance, but their attempt was not successful, although Mr. Lewis stated publicly that it would be cheaper for the city to buy its vagrants opera seats than to permit them to make lodgings of its park benches.

On the same general grounds the missions have refused to discontinue their practice of giving "bed-tickets" to professed penitents, although the administrators of practical philanthropy have pointed out repeatedly that this particular form of charity operates chiefly to encourage hypocrisy as well as pauperism. It always insures a good attendance at meetings and a fine showing at the mourners' bench, but, as a rule, only the men who have lost even the "hobo" standards of pride and decency will take advantage of it. A certain young and vigorous member of the profession once assured the writer with tears in his eyes that "one thing he had never done in all his life was to get converted for a bed-ticket."

#### THE CHEAP LODGING-HOUSES.

Recently, however, in the face of the opinion of the public that the poor man is entitled to any sort of shelter that he can pay for, radical measures have been taken to reform and therefore to raise the prices of the "tramp joints" that line the New York Bowery from City Hall to Chatham Square. Convinced by his conversations with men applying to his society for aid that the cheap lodging-houses are making confirmed "bums" and "hoboes" out of the potentially honest citizens who arrive in New York

without money, as fast as they get hold of them, Mr. Lewis made a searching investigation into all the 10, 15, and 25-cent hotels in Manhattan and Brooklyn.

He found that there are 101 of these places in Manhattan alone. Although a few charge 25 cents for their best accommodations, the average tariff is 10 cents. Some idea of the manner in which the lodgers are crowded together may be gained from the estimate that from 12,000 to 15,000 beds are let out every night. It is probably needless to say that in every house there reigned conditions of indescribable filth and corruption.

Mr. Lewis laid his findings before Commissioner Darlington of the New York Department of Health, and Dr. Darlington, after having confirmed Mr. Lewis' report with an investigation of his own, drew up and had adopted a set of regulations making it compulsory upon every lodging-house to maintain a high standard of cleanliness and decency, whether its patrons liked it or not.

The lodging-house keepers, however, joined in bringing a suit to test the constitutionality of the measure. The suit is still pending, and, on the strength of the fact, all the lodging-houses have succeeded in getting their licenses renewed without having been put to the expense of making any improvements beyond a coat of whitewash here and there.

#### CHICAGO'S NEW VAGRANCY LAW.

In the absence of concerted action of any kind most of the other sporadic attempts to grapple with the problem have been about as effective. Last summer Chicago made an effort to get at her gigantic floating population that makes its headquarters in the political district controlled by the renowned Hinkey Dink and Bathhouse John, by giving to municipal courts the power to fine or imprison persons held as vagrants, permitting policemen to arrest persons accused of vagrancy without warrant, and permitting conviction for vagrancy, although the person arrested might be in possession of means, if he could not show that he had a regular way of earning a living. The newspapers expressed editorially great hopes of the new law, but, although it has now been in operation for several months, it does not seem to have had much effect. The population of South Clark street has not been diminished in size nor altered in character, nor have the vagrancy cases in the courts been materially increased. The measure operated beautifully to enable the machine to lay hands



upon certain unoffending citizens against whom it had a grudge,—notably a number of strike pickets,—but it left useful members of the Bathhouse and Hinky Dink constituency untouched.

#### RIGID EXCLUSION FROM NEW HAMPSHIRE.

Such communities as have good vagrancy laws and as have been successful in getting them enforced, are able to keep their own precincts clear of the tramp nuisance only at the expense of their neighbors. The knights of the road merely brand each one of these places as "a hostile burg," and pass on to more hospitable localities. New England, which has the most rigid vagrancy laws in the country, is very little troubled by tramps, but it is surrounded on all sides by territory that is infested with them. The New Hampshire law, which empowers any resident to bring a tramp before a magistrate and which stimulates the citizens to take advantage of the privilege by offering a reward of \$10 for each such arrest, operates chiefly to keep New Hampshire's just share of vagabonds distributed among other States.

#### A NATIONAL ANTI-TRAMP CRUSADE.

Mr. Lewis' paper made a profound impression upon the reformers and philanthropists in the Minneapolis conference, but it did more than that. It made a profound impression upon the public. From one end of the country to the other the newspapers published extensive extracts from it, with editorials calling attention to the significant facts and figures which it contained and urging their municipalities to act upon them. The editorials called forth a flood of replies from private citizens, social workers, and public officials indorsing these sentiments and giving additional reasons why definite steps should be taken without delay. All at once it seemed to become clear to everybody that the tramp is not a harmless joke, but a serious problem, and both the public and press seemed to make up their minds suddenly that something ought to be done.

The members of the conference were of this opinion also. On the day after Mr. Lewis presented his paper, a meeting was called for the purpose of considering the feasibility of inaugurating an anti-tramp movement throughout the United States. The result was the appointment of a committee to organize a permanent body to be known as the National Vagrancy Committee to carry on a consistent and persistent war-

fare against vagrancy all over the country.

This committee was made up of some of the foremost social workers in America. William Rhinelander Stewart, president of the New York State Board of Charities, was made chairman, and Mr. Lewis secretary. The other appointees were Miss Alice L. Higgins, general secretary of the Boston Associated Charities; David B. Tilley, a member of the Massachusetts State Board of Charities; H. K. Estabrook, a member of the Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity and supervisor of the Philadelphia Wayfarers' Lodges; Amos W. Butler, president of this year's conference and secretary of the Indiana State Board of Charities, and Raymond Robbins, formerly superintendent of the Municipal Lodging House in Chicago. Representatives of some of the most important lines in the country were present at the conference and promised the committee the hearty support of the railroads.

The committee has been quietly at work ever since and has now not only sketched out the general plan of organization but has outlined a definite policy for the work. In the first respect it will be analogous to the National Child Labor Committee. Sub-committees will be established in every State and headquarters opened in all the large cities. Affiliation will be sought with the leading charitable and reform associations, and the support of public officials and prominent and influential private individuals will be solicited.

#### MAKING THE TRAMP PAY AS HE GOES.

In policy, however, the National Vagrancy Committee will be the direct antithesis of its prototype. The older body exists for the purpose of protecting the weak from work, the new one has been organized for the purpose of impelling the strong toward work. All its activities will be directed to the end of making it harder and more uncomfortable to be a loafer than to be a worker.

In pursuance of this ideal the society will attempt to close up every avenue through which a man can get a living out of society without giving to society anything in return. It will send out literature revealing the injudiciousness of the "poke-out" and the "touch," urging housewives to resist all appeals for kitchen-door aid, and requesting men to adopt an invincible policy of deafness to the hard-luck stories of street beggars. It will attempt to dissipate the sentimental esteem of the public for bread-lines,

coffee-wagons, and free bed and meal tickets by demonstrating that these things, instead of helping the honest poor, only minister to the vices of the dead-beat.

It will seek to secure the enactment and enforcement of legislation forbidding the use of police stations as lodgings and of the parks and city squares as lounging places for habitual vagrants. It will wage an unrelenting warfare against cheap lodging-houses that do not conform to a high standard of cleanliness and decency, and which, therefore, do not charge a relatively high price for their accommodations. Missions and other charitable organizations will be urged to exact a certain amount of work for all the aid that they give. Civil authorities will be asked to provide heavy labor in jails for all prisoners convicted of vagrancy, and to maintain mendicancy officers in plain clothes to arrest street beggars. Most important of all, every effort will be brought to bear upon railroad officials to secure the adequate policing of their rights of way, and upon municipal, county, and State authorities to inaugurate a policy of active and hearty co-operation with the railroad police in arresting and convicting trespassers. In short, the program provides that there shall be left no place where the homeless wanderer can lay his head, no avenue through which he can get a meal and no way in which he can travel, without paying for the privilege.

#### WHAT MASSACHUSETTS HAS DONE.

Many of the measures proposed have already been shown to be both practical and effective by the commonwealth of Massachusetts. The Massachusetts law now provides that vagrants confined in jails shall be kept at hard labor; that vagrants lodged in almshouses shall be segregated from paupers; that municipal lodging-houses shall require a certain amount of labor in exchange for meals and lodgings, and that common lodging-houses shall be beyond the control of their guests and shall be required to meet the approval of the board of health.

The regulations for lodging-houses that were adopted recently by the Massachusetts State Board of Health go a step beyond the set drawn up by Dr. Darlington for the control of the "Bowery joints" in New York. Dr. Darlington's lodging-house rules provided that bathtubs should be merely provided, but the Massachusetts law requires that they shall be used. Also to Dr. Dar-

lington's comparatively modest exaction that clean linen shall be placed on each bed every night, the Massachusetts fathers have added the demand that each guest shall be furnished with a clean night-shirt,—and required to wear it.

#### STIFFENING LIMBER BACKBONE.

To those persons who object to this policy on the ground that it will infringe upon the precious right of the individual to be idle, the leaders of the movement merely reply that no man has a right to be idle at the expense of honest men who work,—particularly when by his idling he spreads mental and physical disease among the industrious. To those who cry out that the scheme is cruel and heartless and will work hardship to the worthy poor, they reply that it will never touch the worthy poor. To the men whom it will reach, however, they declare that it will act as a truer kindness than all the bread-lines and bed-tickets in the world. In support of this contention they point out the fact that the chief cause that makes a man a vagrant is a certain lack of backbone that renders him practically incapable of managing his own life unless he is forced to do so. If a man of this character finds that he can get through life without making an exertion to support himself he will permit every one of his faculties to atrophy for want of use. If, however, he is met at every hand by an inexorable edict that he must work if he would eat, he will put forth just enough effort to encompass his desire and, in doing so, he will begin to develop into an efficient man.

#### MUNICIPAL LODGING-HOUSES.

But the policy of the movement does not stop with throwing the vagrant upon his own resources. In addition to the repressive measures which it recommends it suggests definite lines of constructive work. While laboring to close up every avenue by which a man can drift down hill, the leaders of the movement will try to open every road by which he can climb upward. They will urge every city, before beginning its attack upon the bread-line and the bed-ticket, to establish a clean and comfortable municipal lodging-house where any man, finding himself without food or shelter or the means of procuring them, can go and get both in exchange for an amount of work proportioned not so much to his drains upon the institution as to his physical ability.

In connection with these lodging-houses they would have free employment bureaus, where the employable men could be provided with jobs; hospitals for defectives and inebriates, where the unemployable who have not yet become incurable could be restored to working efficiency; compulsory labor colonies, where incorrigible drones could be given a wholesome stimulus toward useful activity and an incentive to learn a trade, and decent refuges where the hopeless wrecks of humanity could be humanely housed and could, at the same time, be prevented from spreading moral or physical disease.

In its entirety the design of the organization is not only to protect society from the vagrant class, but to restore the individual vagrant to the ranks of the self-supporting.

The leaders of the movement believe that this can be done if proper means are provided for getting hold of the novice. Of the total number of men who have come to the Joint Application Bureau for aid within the last five years,—who are nearly all actual or potential vagrants,—Mr. Lewis estimates that about 80 per cent. are between the ages of twenty and fifty,—the best working years of a man's life,—and that no less than 54 per cent. are of American birth.

The leaders of the movement think that these men are worth saving for their own sakes, and it is to this end, as well as for the purpose of protecting society from a serious and growing evil, that the National Vagrancy Committee has come into being.

## HOW POUGHKEEPSIE DEALS WITH TRAMPS.

**WHAT** may be accomplished by following the recommendations of the National Vagrancy Committee, as outlined in the preceding article, has been shown by the little city of Poughkeepsie, N. Y.

Logically, Poughkeepsie ought to be infested with tramps. It is the only coaling station between New York and Albany, and therefore all the trains have to draw up there to take on fuel. Furthermore, it is the only stop made by the express trains between those two points. As train crews invariably take advantage of such stops to search their cars for tramps, Poughkeepsie is an ideal place for a hobo traveling out of New York to drop off and "throw his feet" for his night's lodging or his next day's supplies.

Up to seven years ago the members of the wandering fraternity gave incessant demonstration of their keen appreciation of this chance. Begging and petty thievery were rampant, and burglaries and safe-blowings were of common occurrence. In the year 1900, however, the municipal authorities appointed as chief of police Charles J. McCabe, who had risen from patrolman to the rank of sergeant, but who had been a brakeman on the New York Central before he joined the police force.

Having, as a trainman, spent a great part of his time for several years of his life in matching his wits against those of the men on the road, the new chief had no illusions whatever about the vagrant class. Therefore

almost his first official act was to take measures to prevent tramps from continuing to use Poughkeepsie as a camp and forage ground.

At this time from twenty to thirty men were being accommodated with lodgings in the Poughkeepsie police station every night,—and no questions asked. Chief McCabe started in to ask questions. Every man who presented himself at the station-house for a lodging was received hospitably,—and required to give an account of himself. If the man refused to do so the chief intimated that Poughkeepsie would continue to extend its hospitality to him until he did. If he responded, the chief listened sympathetically and then proceeded to lock him up until his story could be verified or disproved.

Once having got into the station no would-be lodger got out until Chief McCabe was in possession of full details as to his identity and past history. If the chief found himself unable to extract the information he wanted by questioning, he photographed his guest and sent the picture to other police chiefs throughout the country. In this way he not only found out what he wanted to know as a rule, but he was enabled to restore many badly "wanted" persons to the anxious authorities of other communities. He also instituted the custom of searching applicants for lodgings,—a practice which brought to light a great deal of incriminating evidence

in the way of burglars' tools, concealed weapons, and stolen goods, thus revealing the fact that many of the self-invited guests of the city were dangerous criminals.

The result was that the popularity of the Poughkeepsie police station as a lodging-house fell off amazingly. However, as the crimes attributable to vagrants did not show a corresponding decrease, Chief McCabe drew the inference that the "hoboes" had merely transferred their patronage to the low 5 and 10-cent lodging-houses along the tracks. He began then to make frequent raids on these places and to carry off transient lodgers to the police station, where he required them to make known their exact business in the city.

At the same time he instructed all roundsmen and patrolmen to keep a close watch on the streets for beggars, peddlers without licenses, and strangers without visible means of support, as well as to arrest on sight every illegal car-rider caught getting on or off the trains or hanging about the tracks.

News of these high-handed ways were evidently passed quickly "down the line" to all members of the profession. At any rate, Poughkeepsie was given "the double cross." Burglaries and safe-blowing fell off astonishingly, and begging and petty thievery practically ceased.

The change is strikingly illustrated by the police records. Previous to 1900 the number of vagrants lodged at the police station averaged 4100 a year. Since 1900 they have averaged 860 a year. Previous to 1900 the number of burglaries committed in the city averaged from fifty to sixty a year. Since 1900 they have averaged from two to three a year. The average annual property loss since 1900 has been less than \$500.

But this is not all that has been accomplished by Chief McCabe's anti-vagrancy campaign. It has not only saved thousands of dollars to the city of Poughkeepsie, but it has saved an incalculable sum to society in general. In the seven years that he has been the head of the police force the chief has caught and sent home more than 1000 boys, most of whom would otherwise, in all likelihood, have become parasites upon society, and many of whom might have developed into criminals.

It is common knowledge to police officers that a "kid" is a valuable asset to all classes of vagabonds. The traveling safe-blowers and station-robbers, known as "yeggmen," can use small boys to advantage in locating means of entrance and in gathering up other

useful information, while to the "panhandlers" they are invaluable for working the "sympathy racket" upon people who would meet the appeal of a grown man with contempt or abuse.

During his life as brakeman Chief McCabe had seen hundreds of little boys,—many of them not more than eight years old,—kicked off trains to fall into the hands of these vampires or not, just as chance might dictate. To the average trainman a boy car-rider is merely a "tough kid" for whom the method of treatment is prescribed. But young McCabe saw that a large number of these boys were just normally active youngsters who had "jumped" a train as they would "hitch onto" a milk wagon, and had been carried beyond the point where they had intended to drop off; or else over-imaginative readers of dime novels who had started West to find some place where interesting things still happen. He realized how important it was that these boys should be kept from becoming the tools of criminals and constitutional loafers, but until he became chief of police he saw no way of doing anything. Then, however, he announced that if he could help it no runaway boy should take the downward path for want of a restraining hand at Poughkeepsie,—the point at which so many youngsters had formerly started on a hobo's career.

To this end he ordered his men never to let a strange boy in town go unapprehended, but to arrest every youngster getting on or off the trains or wandering about the city, and to bring him to the police station. There the chief talked kindly to the lad, won his confidence, got his name and address, and made him comfortable in the matron's quarters while efforts were made to get in touch with his parents or guardians. Once in the chief's clutches no boy leaves the police station at Poughkeepsie except in convoy of a big policeman to take boat or train for home.

So far Chief McCabe's work has necessarily been repressive rather than constructive, owing to the fact that the city has no adequate means of taking care of and giving to the well-meaning wayfarer the lift that would very probably put him on his feet. In the meantime, he is carrying out a policy which keeps at least one town free of social parasites. Even though, at the present time, this may imply an additional burden upon other towns, it sets an example, which, if followed, would mean the elimination of the vagrant class.

# CHINA AND THE LANGUAGE QUESTION.

BY HOWARD SWAN.

(Sometime professor in the Imperial College, Peking, China.)

[The transliteration of one language into another radically different in alphabet and syllabification is always difficult. The transliteration of Chinese into words formed with the European alphabet is especially so. Several American scholars of Chinese have highly approved Professor Swan's ideas and explanation of the necessity and possible methods of Chinese phonetization as set forth in the following article. Their accuracy and finality are, of course, a matter of opinion with native as well as western scholars of the Chinese language.—THE EDITOR.]

THE Far Eastern problem is and always has been, What is the future of China? To the Chinese themselves the problem is more complicated than it appears to other nations; but it is one principally of government, of education, and of language. Of government first; because, without a good government there cannot be state-supported schools and colleges. But if the question of schools and colleges is thus of grave importance, that of language is of still greater importance, as language is at the base of all education, and without a generally understood language no subject can be taught well.

"THERE IS NO CHINESE LANGUAGE."

It may surprise some to hear that there is no Chinese language! There are Chinese dialects; there is a series of Chinese ideographic characters corresponding in some degree to an alphabet; but there is, up to the present, no general Chinese language that all Chinamen can speak and understand. The nearest approach to it is the Peking Mandarin or *Gwaan-hwa* (Kuan-hwa),—"official talk,"—which has spread widely because the mandarins or government officials have first to reside in Peking, and carry that dialect from thence to every district. It is spoken generally, however, only in Peking, and in the hinterland of Shansi and other provinces directly behind, and by officials of other parts of China in their Yamens or courthouses.

There exists, further, a universal book language, which all the better educated Chinamen are taught; and in this the *Wên-li*, as it is called (pronounced Wōn-li, or won lee, meaning "literature language"), the imperial edicts and higher class books are written. All educated Chinese throughout the empire can read these, and it is this literature language, together with the Chinese ideographs, the gown, the periwig tail, and

certain habits and customs, that make the Chinese in a sense a united nation or empire. But there is as yet no general spoken language. Put twenty Chinamen in a room together to discuss any important governmental or commercial proposition, and, unless they all come from the one district, such as Shanghai, or Canton, or Peking, or unless they all know Pekinese, they cannot understand one another's speech. The idioms are different, pronunciation is different, intonation is different. Even simple greetings, such as "How do you do?" are entirely different as pronounced in Shanghai from the way they are said in Peking. In Soochow, for example, which is only eighty miles from Shanghai, it is different again. There it is sounded "*Axōn che Vae?*" (Have you eaten rice?) In Peking it is pronounced "*Chela Faan mo yuwu?*" (Eaten rice, or not?),—in which Che (eat) and Vae-or Faan (rice) are the same or similar, but the rest of the phrase is different. In Soochow the phrase "there is not" is "m p," just two dumb consonants; in Peking it is "*mo yuwu*" (like "more you").

In the writer's class of graduate students in the Imperial College, Peking, out of twenty-one students from various districts in the first class there were only five who could speak correct Pekinese. Others could make themselves imperfectly understood, but each spoke his own dialect, and two were absolutely incomprehensible to the rest. These two had therefore to wait until they had learned English to speak with the class, or at least until they had learned Pekinese, which is, without organized teaching, an almost equally difficult task. Another resource, peculiarly Chinese, is to take to writing, not only on pieces of paper and corners of desks, but on the palms of the hands, in the dust, or by gesture in the air; and by

long practice the Chinese are very quick at this written gesture language. This palm-writing is cumbersome, but fortunately nearly always successful when educated men come together.

#### WRITTEN CHINESE SPEECH A NOTATION OF IDEAS.

Chinese as written is not a language; it is a notation of ideas. Just as our mathematical, algebraical, musical, and chemical symbols are known all over our continents, though pronounced differently, so with the Chinese ideographs. These ideographs, or picture words, are recognized by all educated Chinese, and by the Japanese, Manchus, and Tibetans, the inhabitants of the Malay peninsula and other Chinese colonies. In all, some 600,000,000 (six hundred millions) of people, or very nearly half the entire population of the world, read some Chinese, though probably only 10 per cent. read and write it fluently. The Chinese written language is therefore a universal notation to a greater extent than any other language except English. Its construction is not unlike English, and its grammar is even more simple, being quite different in both these respects from the Japanese, which is one of the most difficult languages in the world to learn.

As can easily be seen, this lack of a general Chinese "tongue," or spoken language, precludes the possibility of public speech-making, and, indeed, leads to so many mistakes or possible misunderstandings, laying the speakers open to suspicion of sedition, that in China public meetings are usually altogether banned, or in such disfavor with the central government that private persons do not often care to run the risk. Capital punishment, with or without torture, and often without a trial, is still in force in parts of China, and the suggestive drawing of the edge of the hand across the throat several times successively, even in Peking, is a common gesture to indicate the fate of suspected and denounced persons and their whole families.

There are eighteen provinces in the Chinese Empire, each with its one or several dialects, so that the empire is really much like Europe was at the time of the Middle Ages, with the Chinese Emperor as Pope, and the land divided up in principalities. In Europe we have Italy, Roumania, Switzerland, France, Spain, Portugal, each with a variety of Latin, to say nothing of Britain, with its Gaelic, Welsh, and English, and the

Norse languages; while Greece and Russia still use the original Greek letters that Cadmus is supposed to have given the Phœnician merchants to facilitate their commerce. If there were no general knowledge of English, French, or German in Europe and America, but educated officials only had a speaking knowledge of Latin and a writing knowledge of Greek, this would fairly represent the state of China, which has some 400 dialects, with Peking mandarin as the general tongue corresponding to Latin, and the Wen-li corresponding somewhat with our use of Greek in learned works.

#### PRESSING NEED OF ONE LANGUAGE FOR THE EMPIRE.

What is clearly needed in China is a general spoken tongue, understood from one end of the empire to the other, and taught in schools and colleges as we teach English. This should be in graded lessons, with clear explanations, exact phonetics to represent pronunciation, and plenty of lively narrative and conversation, journalistic, classical, and poetic examples to be studied in the classrooms, along with historical and scientific works written in the spoken tongue, as in the West. By this teaching, and the continued influence of the railroads, there would soon spread over China a true Chinese tongue. It may be pointed out that within recent years modern Greek was consciously developed somewhat in this way, through the efforts of three enthusiastic and patriotic Greeks, who formulated a grammar on the French model, published millions of copies of ancient Greek classics, and allowed the people themselves to develop the modern Greek language as it is to-day.

So with the Pekinese pronunciation and idiom. Books could be written in the actual speech of the people, either in Chinese characters or in romanized letters, or both, instead of as now in a sort of abbreviated shorthand made up of abstract picture words, reading, as to sense, something like our own cablegrams, but written in ideographs.

To write Chinese it is necessary to learn at least 2000 signs. At least 4000 are necessary to read books with facility. To learn 300 of these is easy, 1000 is a task, 2000 is a terrible drudgery, and the second 2000 is almost an impossibility to any except lifelong students. The most that are in use is 7000, though of obsolete words there are 20,000 or 30,000 more of which Chinese encyclopedists have made collections.

## CONSTRUCTION OF CHINESE IDEOGRAPHS.

A word or two as to the constitution of Chinese writing will make plainer the difficulties of this language to its own countrymen, as compared with the simple alphabetical nature of western tongues. In Chinese the written signs do not usually represent the sounds, but each represents a rough drawing of the actual thing or idea spoken about. For instance, we say tree, and write the sound, t, r, ee; but with the Chinaman the sound for tree is, say, *Shu* (shoo), but he does not write any sounds to show it is pronounced Sh, or u. He draws a picture of a tree with root, stem, and branches, thus 木, which is pronounced Shu in some parts, though it may be quite different in another district. A man is indicated by drawing his two legs, thus 人, and the word is pronounced variously, jin or djin, zhin, zhōn, rzhōn, rōn, or renn, and in some parts nyin or nyen. If a Chinaman wishes to write "sun," this he calls usually Taa-yaang, or great male-principle, but sometimes he uses another word which may be represented Rzhi, for sun; he writes this 日, which was originally the well-known symbol, ☉. So for moon he writes 月, which is a crescent, 一 二 三, much like ours, but horizontal. They are called yi (yee), oerh (er), saan (sun), and so forth. The abstract or compound ideas are made up of a set of 214 root words or radicals and 800 phonetics, or guides to sound. The 214 radicals form the Chinese alphabet, and range from a single stroke to a complicated drawing of a bamboo with holes in it, written in seventeen strokes, meaning a "flute." The 214 are classifications rather than letters of an alphabet, and some signs,—such as man, mouth, hand, woman, heart,—are very useful in composition, standing for whole classes of objects or ideas.

Abstract words are made up of several of these. To illustrate: woman is, and child is 子; the combination 好 means "good, well, loving, kind." A woman under a roof means "peace"; a pig and a roof indicates the "family"; a mouth inside a door means "to ask a question," and so on,

endlessly. The most abstract word in Chinese is the word "virtue," or uprightness of character,—the basic virtue of the Confucian system. The following analysis will explain the composition of this interesting Chinese character, and give an insight into the construction of many others. First, the word "upright," as of a wall or house, is made up of the signs for ten, eyes, and straight,—meaning that what is seen by ten workmen and no fault found is upright. The signs for these are:

If we add the sign for footsteps of a man 彳 we show that it is walking upright 彳 that is meant; and the further sign 心 placed underneath of a heart, thus 德 (with its drops of blood or arteries), shows that it is spiritual or heart-quality that is expressed.

Thus we get 彳 + 十 + 四 + 一 + 心 which are written in one square sign, and become the classic symbol: 德 and this combination for virtue or uprightness is pronounced as a whole Dōa (almost like der or door without the r), though each of the smaller signs has a different pronunciation of its own.

## EFFECT ON CHINESE LITERATURE.

With such a system as this it can be easily seen how slow any intellectual progress or means of literary communication must be; and the Chinese education, while it fosters concentration, memory, and application to study in a manner unknown to western peoples, is narrow and circumscribed, and apt to give rise to a feeling of intellectual superiority without sufficient cause, by the fact of a conquest over such a difficult means of communication, while a knowledge of reading and writing in western nations is the common property of every little child.

To be sure, from a philological point of view, when one gets used to the signs Chinese becomes a fascinating study, and is easy to read by eye, as each sign, when once learned, usually carries within it its true meaning and original idea. In such cases, one sees at a glance that the meaning of a sign has to do, for example, with trees, or stars, or metals, and so forth. On the other hand, some signs have now little connection with their original meaning, and many are extremely complicated. Chinese abounds in synonyms and hazy, ill-defined words, but sometimes this similarity has a useful result.



At the time of the Boxer troubles, when the imperial edict was sent out that on a certain date "all foreigners are to be exterminated," some friendly officials substituted a Chinese sign similar in looks but with the meaning "protected" instead of "exterminated" or "slaughtered," and this saved hundreds of lives in the friendly provinces.

A Chinaman reading aloud a public notice or edict can hardly be understood by his hearers if they do not see the writing. It must be read by the eye to be certain of the contents. Further, a man from a different province would read it aloud quite differently, and even then none could be sure of the meaning by hearing alone, unless it were couched in the idiom of the district, which is usually not done, as the common tongue of the people is despised for literary purposes, much as Italian was at the time of Dante, or ordinary Greek at the time of the writing of the Christian books. Consequently, books are written to be read by the eye. Ordinary language is not employed, but a highly artificial and stilted style has been developed. China wants a Cadmus, a St. John, and a Shakespeare,—the one to put its best and clearest dialect into phonetic writing; the second to teach the highest philosophical and moral truths in the simple words of common life; and the third to open the imagination and bring all into harmony in one grand plan of the ideal man and woman; while a fourth,—a Chinese Huxley,—is required to explain scientific truths in a simple and easily understood manner.

#### FORMS OF LITERARY EXPRESSION IN CHINA.

The Chinese have no lack of poetry of their own, much of it of a high degree of excellence, as can be seen by reading Professor Giles' volume on "Chinese Literature," in the World's Literature series. The drama is held in low esteem in China, and actors are regarded, with barbers, as being too low to admit into the colleges. The spread of the love for imaginative dramatic poetry may come about, as in other countries, by a translation into Chinese of Shakespeare's plays, or by the springing forth of a new Chinese poet writing in the common tongue. The common tongue bears on its waves the great vessels. In Japan the western styles have been taken up, and novels and poems written in ordinary language about everyday themes are now becoming common. The second desideratum can be satisfied by the translation of biographical,

historical, philosophical, and scientific works in the Peking educated speech, or Gwaan-hwa ("Kuan-hua"). But neither of these two can come at all usefully for the common people before one of the Chinese dialects is taken and acknowledged by the government as the standard and its pronunciation carefully put into phonetic spelling in a way to commend itself alike to the ear and to the eye. A great deal of work has been already done in putting western scientific books into Chinese characters, using either the official or literary language. But there still remains the difficulty of educating the common people, who cannot afford to give ten years of their life to learning the necessary characters.

From the foregoing it will be seen that much remains to be done before government and commerce can be carried on with the same facility with which western nations manage their affairs. In the western nations every boy can read and write easily at eight or ten years of age, and the whole of literature and science is thus thrown open to him by degrees with this key. But in China only a small proportion can "read characters," and a still smaller proportion read and write easily and correctly.

There are several ways in which the Chinese could remedy this: one by learning another language, as English or Esperanto. In Japan, English forms the second language, and the million of students who can now read English must have added very largely to the power of intercommunication of the Japanese nation, to say nothing of their knowledge of French and German, which is considerable, though far less than of English. But in China a better means would be to put their own simple language into phonetics. This can be done in several ways,—by a syllabary, with signs for separate syllables, as ba, be, bo, bu, and so on, as is done with the Japanese *Kana*. A more useful way, however, would be to use a carefully adjusted system of romanized spelling, using phonetic signs of the roman alphabet which all the other nations could easily read.

At present the Chinese themselves have no phonetic spelling, and no study of exact phonetics, or so little of it that it practically counts for naught. The Chinese idea of phonetics is to take one of their best-known characters,—let us say, for example, a character called in Pekinese *chu*,—and another pronounced *ping*; and by putting the two together (*chu-ping*) the first sound of the

first character is added to the last sound of the second character, so obtaining the result, "ching." This is found useful among the Chinese in cases of disputed pronunciation, or for indicating that of foreign words. Unfortunately, useful as it may appear at first trial, the Chinese pronounce their words so differently in different provinces that it is not possible to rely on this device. It is no exaggeration to say that in different parts of China what is in one province called *chu* in others may well be either *chu* or *ju*, *cho*, *jo*, *chowu*, *jowu*, *juwu*, or possibly *ngo*, *nga*, or even *waal*! Chinese phonetics are particularly fluidic. To the average Chinaman, even when educated, it makes little difference if you pronounce "International Law," or "International Gnaw," or "International Raw,"—all will be understood, and he will use these interchangeably.

#### PHONETIC SYSTEMS NOW IN USE.

Among the foreign educators, missionaries, and diplomatists in China there are several phonetic systems now used or being tried. Among these are the following: The early French romanized, now nearly obsolete; one or two German systems of greater or less complexity and weirdness; the English diplomatic romanized, known as Wade's system, which for want of something better has become almost universal, and the American missionary system, known as Mateer's; the Standard Romanized Pronunciation system (a compound and improvement of these latter two); M. Murray's numerical system, used chiefly for Braille printing for the blind, in which the 408 root Chinese sounds are given numbers and are indicated by a raised system of dots punched on paper in tiny squares; a Chinese syllabary based on the Japanese *Kana*; several new and wonderful Chinese systems, based on Chinese sign writing, and looking like Chinese (the schools and colleges are full of inventors of these wonderful systems); a method of Chinese shorthand, which is said to have great vogue, especially among women; and finally the International Phonetic System, worked out by the present writer, and taught by him in the Peking Imperial College. This is somewhat similar to, but more complete than, the international romanizing suggested by a Japanese missionary, and now used for their own language by the Japanese. The only three systems worthy of consideration, however, for the purpose of transcribing Chinese into some kind of a written language

comparable to English, French, or German, are Wade's (Mateer's is nearly the same), the Standard, and the International Phonetic.

It is not necessary to consider these systems in detail. We must constantly keep in mind, however, that for China to have the benefits of western science and for other nations to treat her as on a par with themselves she must have a constitution, an organized educational system, and for this, a national spoken language. To have the language become truly national she must somehow or other have phonetics properly studied and carefully taught in her schools, as a means to indicate the correct standard pronunciation.

A method of teaching Chinese either to Chinese themselves or to foreigners should include a course in Peking mandarin, as the official language. The pronunciation should be indicated phonetically either with Chinese signs or the Roman alphabet, or both. Preferably, the tones should be indicated if possible by additional letters or doubled signs within the body of the word, rather than be entirely omitted, or indicated by figures above the line, as in the Wade system. The recognized international phonetics as used in Japan should be used, but somewhat modified to give room to indicate the tones. The principle of this international system is: "English consonants and continental vowels." The Chinese language should not be regarded as monosyllabic, but those syllables which naturally run together in speaking should be run together in writing. The ideal should be to take the most distinct and important dialect, say Pekinese, and form a language which could be easily read by all who knew the Roman alphabet, so that whether American, British, Norse, French, German, Italian, or Japanese, all would be able to use and understand it.

Chinese is a language that now requires studying from five to ten years to learn at all usefully. One becomes skilful in it only after twenty years of hard work. With a phonetic system and a good method of arranging the common idioms of daily life, we should be able to speak Chinese fairly well in six months or a year.

With such a good phonetic system fully worked out for all the ordinary phrases and idioms of common life, some simple grammar and a dictionary of words on the same plan, it would be quite possible to put China on a level with other nations in the possession of an easily read and easily acquired means of

verbal intercommunication. This would be not only of great service to commercial and diplomatic circles throughout the world, but would prove of the very greatest advantage to philology and linguistics. China has something to teach, but its chest of treasures is as good as locked up, owing to the heaviness of the key, which only a giant in intellect or patience can turn. The Chinese have advanced in the past by their unique possession of a complete philosophy without superstition, and a universal notation of ideas, —two great desiderata which the German

philosopher Leibniz longed for, but in vain. The Chinese have kept their unity amid the clashing of empires, by the sole means of this notation; but they have also remained in semi-darkness while other nations advanced, by the continued use of a language which indicates ideas instead of pronunciation. To change is to progress. Progress is based on education. Education is based on language. The Chinese problem is a language problem, and if China herself and the other nations recognize this the "Eastern Window" will soon open for light.

## THE NEED OF LAW REFORM IN CHINA.

BY CHARLES SUMNER LOBINGIER.

AN interesting phase of the many-sided progressive movement in the Chinese Empire is the undertaking to reform its judicial system. A commission charged with this duty is now at work, and during a recent visit to China the writer had the opportunity of meeting a member of this body, Mr. Y. L. Kuan,—whose official title is Secretary of the Ministry of Law,—and of learning from him some of its program.

### THE EXAMPLE OF JAPAN.

In taking this step, as in many other respects, China is now following in the footsteps of Japan. One of the first innovations of the Mikado's government after its overthrow of the Shogunate was the establishment of a judiciary upon western lines. This was inaugurated as early as 1872, and its existence afforded one of the principal arguments whereby seventeen years later, but prematurely, many now believe, foreign powers were induced to relinquish their claims of extra-territorial jurisdiction in Japan.

The Sunrise Empire followed up this first reform with a series of sweeping changes in the laws themselves, resulting finally in the creation of an entirely new legal system selected from the best foreign sources. In 1881 a new criminal code (now about to be superseded) was put into force abolishing the severe and barbarous penalties which had been borrowed from the Chinese many centuries before. Codes of procedure, both criminal and civil, were promulgated in 1890, and about three years later a commercial and a civil code, both based upon German models.

The program of the Chinese law reform-

ers appears less extensive, though the results may be quite as effectual. The system of punishments has, indeed, already been considerably mitigated, largely through the efforts of Wu Ting-Fang, well known in America by reason of his long and efficient service as the Chinese representative at Washington. But it does not seem to be the purpose to change materially the system of private substantive law, and for this there appear to be excellent reasons.

### THE CHINESE CODE.

It may not be generally known that China has an ancient and elaborate, not to say voluminous, code of written laws. In point of antiquity it is by far the oldest of all codes now in force. Only such instruments as the Decalogue or the Code of Hammurabi seem ancient beside it. If the Code of Justinian had been continuously operative since its promulgation it would still be youthful as compared with this Chinese product. Intrinsically it consists of some twenty-four volumes, in the literary language of the empire, and it not only covers the general field of substantive civil and criminal jurisprudence, but it also touches upon nearly every phase of human interest and duty; for the Chinese conception of law is broader than the Occidental and includes many subjects which western jurists would regard as belonging to the domain of ethics or etiquette.\*

Independently of its contents the external character of this code affords a guaranty of

\* Such, e.g., are the numerous injunctions of filial duty enforced by severe penalties, and the minute regulations concerning marriage and even engagements.

its permanence. It is said† to consist of the accumulated decrees of the emperors, dating back twenty centuries, collected, revised, and arranged in logical order, and is thus an application, upon an elaborate scale, of the system of adjudicated precedents which forms the foundation of our Anglo-Saxon jurisprudence. But in China the respect for precedent and written authority is much greater than with us. "A quotation from Confucius has settled many a quarrel, arbitrated many a dispute."‡ The only class at all corresponding to our lawyers is that known as "searchers," whose business it is to find a precedent according to which a litigated question may be decided. With such notions thus deeply rooted, a code containing the precedents of ages and embodying the sum of Chinese juridical philosophy is not apt to be seriously disturbed even by the mighty upheaval now taking place in the Celestial Empire.

Nor is it clear that such a result would be desirable. The displacement of an indigenous, time-honored system of laws, even though defective, by one of alien origin, perhaps abstractly better, is a serious undertaking, and the results are likely to be disappointing. It is doubtful if the Japanese have succeeded in adapting their exotic, though smoothly phrased, codes to the spirit and understanding of the people. While in Japan recently the writer was informed, upon good authority, that the judges themselves are often at a loss to understand these codes and that it is not uncommon for them, confidentially, to seek the assistance of foreign lawyers in cases of doubtful interpretation.

In China, however, if we may believe impartial critics, not even theoretical superiority of foreign systems can be urged in favor of displacing the ancient national code. The author last quoted says that the Chinese laws "as a whole are mild and humane, far superior to those found in any other Asiatic country." And the translator of the code, Sir George Stanton, declared: "When we turn from the ravings of the Zend-Avesta or the Puranas to the tone of sense and business in this Chinese collection, it is like passing from darkness to light, from the dwellings of dotage to the exercise of an improved understanding; and redundant and minute as these laws are, in many particulars, we scarcely know a European code that is at once so copious and so consistent, or is nearly so freed from intricacy, bigotry, and fiction."

#### REFORM IN ADMINISTRATION NEEDED.

Nevertheless, the Chinese code is one of substantive law only,—i. e., it prescribes rights and duties, but does not, it is said, contain any provisions governing procedure or the methods of enforcing rights. Moreover, there seem to be no distinctively judicial officers in China; the governmental system has come down unchanged from a time when the various classes of functions had not been differentiated, and one set of officials might perform any sort of duty. To-day the court of lowest grade is the Yamen of the district magistrate, who, besides being the all-around administrative officer of his locality, hears causes of any character. From his decision an appeal may be taken to the prefect, the provincial magistrate, the viceroy, and formerly to the censorate in Peking, though a court of cassation has now been established there.

As the rules require the decision of every inferior tribunal to be reviewed by a higher one, it will be seen that the simplest piece of litigation is subject to long and vexatious delays, while in no case can it receive the attention of a class of skilled men specially trained for the task of administering justice according to law. It is to the removal of such patent and inherent defects that the reformatory commission is now devoting its labors. The plan is to establish a real judiciary, whose functions are to be separate and distinct from those of any other branch; its members to be selected only from those especially equipped for its duties, and its procedure to be regulated by uniform and recognized rules, instead of being left to the discretion of each individual magistrate. Recognizing, no doubt, the hugeness as well as the importance of the task and the undesirability of hasty action, the government in its imperial edict providing for the change allows fifteen years for the establishment of the new system. With this period at their disposal and with the experience of Japan to guide them, the Chinese commissioners ought to be able to avoid the errors which have caused such dissatisfaction on the part of aliens residing in the former country. For the good of China, not less than of the stranger within her gates, it is to be hoped that her reformers in achieving their task may realize that the due and speedy dispensing of justice to foreigners as well as to the subject is the first concern of the state, a requisite to lasting commercial prosperity, and the surest passport to the confidence of outside nations.

† Holcombe, "The Real Chinaman," pp. 30, 195.

‡ *Ib.*, p. 48.

## LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

### THE MECHANICAL HANDLING OF THE WORLD'S STOCK OF GOLD.

MORE than \$1,000,000 per diem is the value of the supply of gold to the world, yet it is so mechanically managed that it fails to subserve fully the tremendous interests which depend on it. In the various treasuries, banks, and other depositories of the commercial world there is to-day a stock of gold coin and bullion equal in value to about \$3,300,000,000. Late in 1907 the United States Treasury held of this aggregate \$916,000,000, Bank of France \$541,000,000, State Bank of Russia 508,000,000, Bank of Austro-Hungary \$229,000,000, Bank of Italy \$167,000,000, Bank of England \$159,000,000, Imperial Bank of Germany \$146,000,000, Bank of Spain, \$78,000,000, Bank of the Netherlands \$38,000,000, Bank of Naples \$35,000,000, Bank of Scotland \$26,000,000, National Bank of Denmark \$24,000,000, National Bank of Belgium \$21,000,000, Royal Bank of Sweden \$21,000,000, National Bank of Roumania \$20,000,000, Bank of Ireland \$16,000,000, Switzerland banks of issue, \$13,000,000, National Bank of Switzerland \$12,000,000, German local banks \$11,000,000, Bank of Sicily \$9,500,000, Bank of Norway \$9,000,000, Bank of Bulgaria \$6,000,000, Bank of Portugal \$5,500,000, Bank of Finland \$5,500,000, National Bank of Servia \$3,000,000, National Bank of Greece \$500,000, and in other depositories in this country, Canada, Mexico, Central and South America, the Colonies, Turkey, Egypt, India, Japan, and China there was, approximately, \$280,000,000 additional.

This immense stock of gold is popularly supposed to flow whither exchange demands; but this is a delusion, and it is attached by numerous and invisible ligatures to the countries which secure possession of it. Indeed, it is so tied up that a demand from one county to another, even in exchange for securities or commodities offered at a depreciation of from 25 to 30 per cent., is responded to with the greatest reluctance, difficulty, and delay. The events of our recent crisis demonstrated the difficulty of withdrawing from Europe to this country an

amount of gold equivalent to less than a single year's production of our mines alone. This is, in part, because gold enters into the arts and the coinages of the commercial world as soon as it is produced.

As the case stands to-day every state requires, and must have, command of the means to liquidate its paper issues in gold, but there is no necessity herein for selfish accumulation, rendering it difficult for neighboring states to obtain it when required by the exigencies of legitimate commerce, without being obliged to sell securities and products at bankruptcy prices, says Mr. Alex. Del Mar in the *Engineering Magazine* for January. Accordingly, he suggests a project to remedy this embarrassing condition, which he describes as "purely mechanical":

It is to mobilize the entire stock of gold held by the contracting states, by means of issuing, against such stock, certificates of deposit, which shall be made legal tenders in all of the contracting states, except at the treasury of the state of issue. Each state shall substitute such certificates in place of the gold for all purposes for which the gold is now employed, and shall undertake to pay them on demand. The security afforded by such certificates would be just as good as,—nay, even better than,—that of the gold itself. The expense entailed and time lost in conveying the metal to and fro across the ocean and of recoining it would be avoided; and in case of urgent demand from either side, or as between the first-class powers, the certificates would respond to the demands of commerce and of exchange with a celerity and certainty that cannot be imparted to the metal itself.

That this could be accomplished he points out that states have frequently admitted into their monetary circulation, with full legal-tender power, the coins of other states. For instance: Spanish coins were accepted in this country, Portuguese in England, and English in Portugal. The Latin Monetary Union in 1866, between France, Belgium, Switzerland, and Italy, later including the Papal States, Greece, and Roumania, and the Scandinavian Union,—Denmark, Norway, and Sweden,—are illustrations of inter-state agreements for uniform coinage recognition. The international postal union and money

order system deals in credits amounting to hundreds of millions per annum. "Why not," says he, "a system of international legal-tender certificates backed by deposits of gold coin, to the full amount of their issue, but, unlike the coin, full legal-tenders in each and all of the contracting states? When wanted at home, as a basis for other issues, they could be locked up in the treasury; when wanted abroad they could be used at once, without expense of carriage or recoinage."

Three objections, he concedes, may be urged: Where shall the stock be deposited? Shall the contract be observed in case of hostilities? How may different coinage denominations be regulated? He replies, in order, thus: Let each state keep its own stock

and let the commissioners of all the contracting states countersign and register the certificates of each state. Since the legal-tender quality depends on more than two belligerent states, and would be regulated by the convention obligatory in all, no danger need be apprehended from the second query; and a scale which enables large sums in pounds-sterling, francs, marks, florins, rubles, and dollars to be expressed in national integers of equivalent gold weights exists to solve the denominational apprehension. Hence, "the plan herein outlined would virtually provide a Bank of the World; and its promise of influence in securing the peace of that world should be great enough to sweep away any objections to its adoption that may be raised by either class interest or diplomatic intrigue."

## IN THE SERVICE OF UNCLE SAM.

**A**TTRACTIVE as is the civil service and alluring as is an official position at Washington to most young men, the delights of serving the Government at its principal seat are not unalloyed with drawbacks and disappointments. A former ten-dollar-a-week clerk in a country lawyer's office, who succeeded to a clerkship at \$900 a year in Washington under civil-service regulations, found his position by no means a bed of roses.

Describing his experiences in the *National Magazine* for December, Mr. H. C. Gauss says that nine o'clock each morning saw the commencement of this public servant's labors. With the exception of half-an-hour lunch interval he worked until 4:30 p. m. daily, principally taking dictation from an older clerk. His salary was paid in two instalments, half on the 15th and the remainder on the 30th. Thirty dollars was the minimum for board and room; \$5 for luncheon; \$3 for car-fare, and laundry and sundries consumed so much of the balance that he was eagerly awaiting the second month's pay-day. After six months he congratulated himself if pay-day found him with cash on hand.

His grade was the lowest. Next to it was the thousand-dollar division; above that the twelve-hundred-dollar class; then the sixteen-hundred and eighteen-hundred dollar variety, next to the chief clerk of division. Over that functionary was the chief clerk of the bureau, subordinate only to the chief clerk of the department. Efficiency in work is a lever for promotion assisted by forcible

"kicking." This the incumbent quickly discovered. The thousand-dollar grade was a gathering of all sorts: those who could get no higher and those who had been reduced from higher grades. The lawyer's clerk emerged from that environment, however, and in the process discovered that "efficiency" workings are taken in a Pickwickian sense and are construed in an esoteric sense by that patient personage, the appointment clerk, who reads them through a pair of spectacles entirely his own, and who is, in the main, correct in his translation of the symbols. He also discovered that the man who hides his light under a bushel runs no danger of being unearthed.

At the twelve-hundred-dollar stage he concluded that his limit was reached and that he was idle a good deal of the time. Hence, he studied law, and, on admission to the bar, made a good connection with the lawyer who had first employed him. On his retirement he summed up his experience of civil service as follows:

There are not many good positions in government employment accessible from the classified service.

There are also many bright young men constantly striving for these places, and the large side of the ratio is on that of the strivers.

The best positions in life attainable through the classified service are those in outside employment, preparation for which is made possible by the conditions of government work.

Securing employment in the classified service is largely a matter of chance as between a given number of persons of probably similar qualifications; but the chance offers the opportunity of hitting upon individuals well adapted for the work. Any rigid system would fill the departments with clerks who would conform to the pattern of the system, which in turn would reflect its creator, so that the clerks would be very much of one kind.

Very much of the new material is impressionable, and is quickly modified and molded.

In promotion, the personal equation has its influence. The academic system of marking for efficiency is absurd. Modified by those who have to deal with its results, it works with a reasonable amount of justice, though with inevitable cases of individual hardship.

The pathos of the service is the absence of

expectation of a satisfactory outcome. While there is continuous employment at good pay during the productive years, the intangible surplus of friends and associations does not accumulate as in outside life.

The problem of disposing of old and disabled clerks cannot be settled by opposing a civil-pension list. It is settled now and could be administered at less expense if given its proper name.

Comparative efficiency cannot be ascertained until a standard of efficiency has been established. No one knows whether the Government work is being efficiently done. The most one can say is that it is being done.

Readers of this article by Mr. Gauss will be able the better to appreciate the work of the Keep Commission, described on page 190 of this number of the REVIEW.

## THE AXIS OF EUROPEAN POLICY,—THE BAGDAD RAILWAY.

THE culminating point of German policy in the Near East is, says M. René Pinon in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, the construction of the Bagdad railway. The French reviews have recently been devoting considerable attention to this question, and M. Pinon discusses in great detail the relations of Germany and Turkey. He analyzes German methods very carefully. He points out that the most important element in German preponderance in the Near East is the cordial relations existing between the Kaiser and the Sultan. Therein lies both its greatest strength and its weakness.

The German banks are the real inspirers of German economic and colonial expansion. The maxim of the German financier is that the bank ought to precede commerce in order to facilitate business transactions and organize credit. While German banks have been multiplying in the East, Berlin and Constantinople have been linked together by telegraph, and the German hope to extend telegraphic communications by the Bagdad railway to Bagdad and the Persian Gulf and thence to the Dutch Indies. But Germany places even more reliance upon her maritime organization, and, in addition to the conquest of the Mediterranean, her object is to found agencies in the Turkish ports, the Persian Gulf and the Indian Ocean. All these means, however, are but the avenues leading up to the construction of the Bagdad railway. Hitherto the great international routes have surrounded the Ottoman Empire without penetrating into its interior. The creation of a network of railways in Anatolia and the Bagdad railway con-

cession has marked a veritable epoch in the economic history of the East.

The resurrection of Asiatic Turkey is so gigantic an enterprise that it cannot be the achievement of one nation alone. M. Pinon strongly advocates an *entente* between Germany and France in the Levant. The greater the task, he says, the more dangerous the possibility of disputes, the more need there is for *ententes*.

### THE RAILROAD A DANGER POINT.

M. Francis Delaisi's article on the Bagdad railway in *La Revue* may be read in connection with the above article. He recapitulates the history of the Bagdad railway scheme, and the difficulties Germany has had to contend with down to the summer of the present year, when the 3 per cent. increase of the Turkish Customs dues was instituted to assure the Turkish guarantee for the railway.

The railway is to make Bagdad five hours instead of fifty-five days distant from Constantinople, and it will enable the Turks to convey troops rapidly to their most distant frontiers. In short, it will consolidate the Ottoman Empire. It will accelerate the present route to India, and the Suez Canal will lose much of its commercial importance. Naturally the Germans wished to retain for themselves all the glory of the scheme,—and the profits; but England, France and Russia being opposer to such a monopoly, the railway for the last four years has been the axis of European policy. Times have changed since the railway was first pro-



jected. France is no longer ready to offer her capital unconditionally, and the powers insist on the railway being an international affair.

#### Why the Kaiser Must Have His Bagdad.

Writing on the Kaiser's visit to England, the editor of the *Revue de Paris* (M. Victor Bérard) assumes that the question of the Bagdad railway must have been one of the chief topics discussed at Windsor. For seventeen years this question has dominated the relations between London and Berlin, and the construction of the railway has always been one of the cherished objects of the Kaiser's ambition. Now that the marshalship of the world is no longer in his hands he is more than ever in need of a victory, and

M. Bérard suggests that neither England nor Europe will gain by not recognizing this fact. He points out a method by which he believes the conflicting interests of England and Germany might be reconciled. He would allow the Germans to build the railway as far as Bassorah, an arrangement which would not hinder English boats ascending the Tigris as far as Bagdad. As compensation for the German railway on the Euphrates, the English should ask for an extension of the privileges of the Lynch Company on the Tigris, and they would find that neither their political influence at Bagdad nor their commercial advantages would be reduced in any way.

## THE FIGHTING VALUE OF THE FRENCH ARMY.

GENERAL LANGLOIS, of the staff of the French army, contributes to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* (Paris), a paper in which he contrasts the French army of to-day with that of Germany, a study the conclusions of which go to show that if France were to meet her traditional foe in the field at the present time, her fate could hardly be different from that which befell her in 1870. The eventuality of a war, he declares, is not less present now than in the past, and a consideration of our situation as against that of the German army is not without its own sinister interest. Says the general:

Since the law of March, 1905, France has been in a position very inferior to that of Germany, from the point of view of the number of combatants. Exactly, therefore, what would happen in the case of war may be here shown. It is highly probable that hostilities would begin without any formal declaration whatever, perhaps unexpectedly, and in the course of a period of political tension. Germany alone is capable of assuming the offensive in so brutal a manner, since her Emperor has decided that he alone shall be the arbiter of war and peace. In France, war can only be declared by a decree of the Constitutional Parliament, even in response to an act of aggression. Consequently an initial delay must arise in the matter of mobilizing the French army,—at least a delay of twenty-four hours, if the Chambers be in session; if not a more protracted one. This would undoubtedly allow Germany to harass in a very serious way our early operations, and to give battle under conditions peculiarly advantageous to herself. Her first movement would be directed upon French soil, and a series of aggressive actions must take place, against which the present defensive forces maintained on the frontiers, far below their normal figures, it is

clear, would be of little avail. In the more important operations which must succeed, the position of the French army, according to the schedule, is the following: to the fifty-six squadrons, sixty-five sabres strong, the German army could oppose, in the first pitched battle, 114 squadrons, 130 sabres strong, or 14,820 German horsemen against 3640 of the French army. There is, moreover, our admitted inferiority in artillery to be calculated. Such being the case, the dangers of assuming a sudden offensive, disappear entirely in the case of the Germans. The French, in the initial stages, at least (and reverses in the beginning have an incalculable effect on the *morale* of French troops, particularly), would be practically at the mercy of the invading army.

Nevertheless, the General maintains that in respect of individual worth, the French army is incontestably superior to the German. The French soldier, he says, is naturally disciplined when properly led. By the very force of his self-respect the French trooper is capable of superhuman efforts. His genius for war, moreover, a quality lacking in the Teuton, renders him, in campaign, adaptable to all manner of contingencies, particularly in modern warfare, in which personal initiative is ever growing, and which was unknown almost altogether in the days of "close order" operations.

Contrary to what is generally thought, says General Langlois, there is now more than ever an opportunity for the private soldier to show his mettle, to prove his capacity for initiative, and thus to bring himself to the notice of his superiors. This is what is known as the fighting value of the soldier. The collective moral value of an army is an entirely different thing, and, un-

fortunately, according to General Langlois, the policy has for some time past prevailed in France of lowering the prestige of the army and exalting officialism.

The *morale* of the French army and its former spirit and verve can only be restored by a complete overhauling of the whole military system. Justice in the promotion of officers is almost a farce. Military or soldierly merit is recognized only according to backstair princi-

ples and interest. The consequence is that the officers of regiments are for the greater part divided against each other; that this lack of *esprit de corps* has its effect upon the troops who perfunctorily, if not with perfect disgust, approach and perform their military duties; and, finally, that there is, as the logic of the whole situation, a general fear prevalent in the army that a meeting with the Germans on the field of arms would mean but a repetition of the tragic episodes of 1870.

## THE JAPANESE, CANADA, AND SOUTH AMERICA.

AFTER characterizing Canada as "one of those neighboring lands of vast but only partly peopled spaces where the subjects of the Mikado may take lessons in western civilization, earn large incomes, and establish profitable industries pending their return to a life of ease in their native land," M. Louis Aubert, writing in the *Revue de Paris*, says:

The measures taken by the Dominion of Canada in regard to Chinese have guaranteed the Japanese against the only competition they could not have mastered. Since January 1, 1904, the per capita tax on Chinese immigration has been \$500. Since then the Canadians appear to be increasing their precautions. A recent law forbids the employment of Chinese labor in workshops and factories. They may be employed as domestic servants, they are permitted to work in canning factories, but are not given licenses to fish.

The activities of the Japanese in Canada are quite different. Those who are in a servant's capacity are either stewards or hotel employees. They work chiefly, however, in the fields, in the forests as wood-cutters, in sawmills, and on the roads. They are permitted to take out naturalization papers, and after the legal term of residence may obtain licenses to fish and act as sailors. Indeed, almost a third of the fishermen to-day in Canada are Japanese.

The Chinese being barred, the Japanese profit by the demand for cheap labor on the sparsely peopled plains, where the syndicate white men demand too high prices for their work. Since California halted the Japanese these people have poured into Canada in increasing numbers. Until ten years ago the Chinese monopolized all the fishing in the Fraser River; now the Japanese have it all. A Japanese economist, Kozaki Hirokichi, who visited Canada some years ago, recently wrote in a journal of Tokio (in February, 1906): "The Japanese fishermen who earn the least make \$300 per season; some earn as high as \$3000."

After the demonstrations in British Columbia, some months ago, the provincial Legis-

lature passed a bill increasing the entrance tax on Japanese immigrants to \$500. Three times this measure was insisted upon by the province, but each time the Dominion Government opposed the bill. Commenting on this, one of the Vancouver newspapers recently remarked: "We must resort to other tactics; we must convert the rest of Canada to the opinion of Columbia."

After reviewing the anti-Japanese sentiment on the Pacific Coast of the United States, the writer in the French review draws a novel inference from the departure of our fleet for the Pacific Ocean. He says:

The United States is maintaining, renewing, and developing her Atlantic fleet to keep pace with European ambitions covering Central America and South America. She is also, however, gradually turning her back on Europe, so that she may see with her eyes what Japan is doing across the Pacific. By the good will of Europe the Monroe Doctrine is to be respected on the Atlantic front while the American fleet is in the Pacific. In this enterprise the United States wisely trusts to the wisdom and good feeling of the Latin republics. The wisdom of this confidence is evident when it is remembered that with the fleet in the Pacific there is no club to bring Cuba, San Domingo, and Venezuela to terms.

The question of the Far East, says M. Aubert, will develop the Monroe Doctrine.

The immigration of the Japanese, their colonization all the way down the coast of the Pacific Ocean from Canada to Chile, and their attempts to form on the Western Hemisphere many *Shin-Nippons* (New Japans) are now menacing the United States, not only in California, but in every country of the Western Hemisphere. If it can be imagined that for ulterior motives of their own some of the South American republics might count on Japanese assistance, it is quite evident that when Japanese patriotism and Japanese energy have made themselves felt in the South American republics, as they have already made themselves felt in California and in British Columbia, the anti-Japanese spirit may awaken a real sentiment of pan-American solidarity.

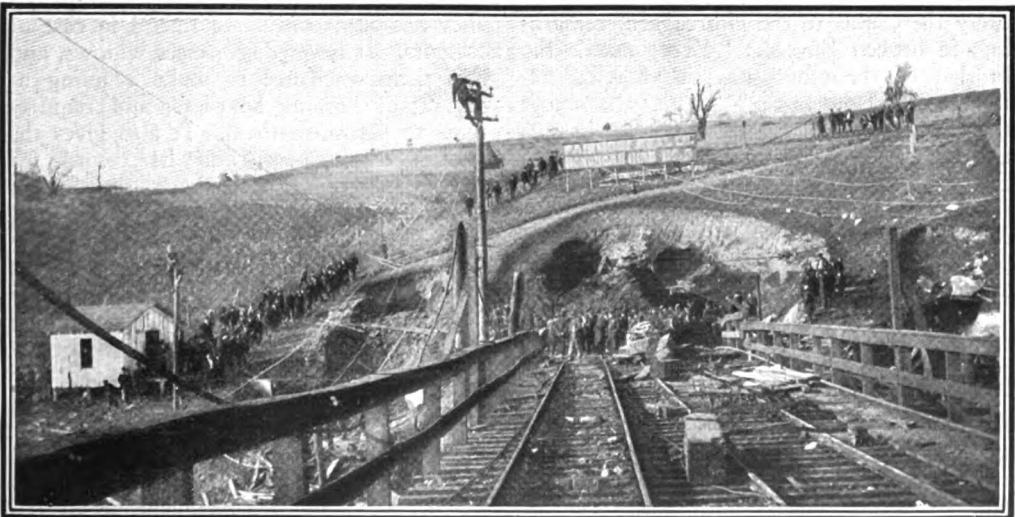
## THE GREATEST COAL-MINE DISASTER IN OUR HISTORY.

TO the long list of mining disasters in this country that in the mines of the Fairmount Coal Company, at Monongah, W. Va., on December 6, 1907, must be added, with the observation that its death tally is the most appalling in American coal-mining history. Death made a clean sweep that day, and his harvest was 344 souls,—miners, bosses, and engineers,—every man below ground when his signal came, save four, who escaped somewhat miraculously through a "toad hole." That desolation's hand is heavy on the bereaved in Monongah, and that it is still resounding with a ritual of sobbing, is inferable from the statistics of this awful visitation. Approximately 250 widows, 1000 children, and many aged persons have been left without means of support, and this does not include unborn children,—the greatest hardship of all. The population of the town was about 3000, so the disaster has destroyed about one-half of its breadwinners. Most of the families live in the company's houses, and as many of them desire to return to their relatives in Europe, the little town may be materially depopulated within a short time.

In *Charities and The Commons* for January 4, Mr. Paul U. Kellogg contributes a graphic and comprehensive article on the explosion, its apparent causes, its effects on the people, the economic and social questions in-

volved, the rescue work, and the measures for precaution in mine-working, as well from the viewpoint of the employer and employee as from the State itself. "West Virginia mines," says he, "have a bad name. We know that they kill a great number of men in the course of a year." Number 6 and 8 (in which the men lost their lives) of the Monongah mines are splendidly equipped from a production standpoint. No. 8 is a new mine; its tippie is the biggest in West Virginia. A giant fan whirled at the mouth of a separate air-way. Machines did the cutting and electricity ran the cars that carried the coal.

When the mine was running the great fan referred to sucked the wind up the air-way at the rate of fifty miles an hour,—against which a man could not stand in so small a passage. Thus, to falling masses, and darkness and gas, new hybrid forces, half safeguards, half dangers of the air,—explosives and wind and lightning are added. Despite the electrical apparatus the West Virginia statutes prescribe no standards to safeguard the lives of miners. No apprenticeship is necessary, and no examination, for such positions as mine foreman or fire boss. The machine has led to an influx of foreigners,—instructions in seven languages are hung at the mouth of the Monongah mines,—who know practically nothing about the



THE MOUTH OF NO. 8 MINE, AT MONONGAH.

(Showing holes scooped out in the hill by the force of the explosion on December 6, 1907.)

dangers within a mine, and, consequently, are unable to exercise the care essential to their own safety.

In the light of the recent explosions the vital question is whether mere willingness to sell your labor is to remain the badge that admits to a mine, or whether some positive standard of efficiency shall not be required by law, even if it raises the labor cost, before a man is turned loose in the offings.

#### DUST VERSUS GAS AS THE CAUSE.

Various rumors were current as to the cause at Monongah. Some laid it to gas. A mining engineer held that a runaway trip of cars had smashed the electric wiring deep in the mines, and that the presence of coked dust throughout the headings after the explosion proved that coal dust rather than gas was to blame. The officials claimed that a "windy shot" had caused the trouble, for under the West Virginia code there is no provision for clearing away the dust from a chain saw after a machine operation before shooting the blast, as there is in France. The general manager stoutly maintains that there never has been any gas in the mines, and that economy in operation and equipment has never been attained at the expense of the miners' safety. These, however, are questions for the consideration of the State and federal authorities.

#### MAGNIFICENT RESCUE WORK.

Of the rescue work the writer speaks in tones of commendation. An Italian laborer, outside the Catholic church, where services were being conducted for the dead, offered to carry the coffins to the churchyard, remarking, in broken English: "Every one is the brother of the other, no matter what nationality he belongs to." It was that spirit that brought the president, vice-president, and directors by special train to the mines and kept them there day and night. Likewise, other miners from Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Ohio,—all volunteers, expert in feeling their way in "after air," in building brattices, and clearing entries, and willing to work seventy-two hours at a stretch, if necessary. "This mustering of the minute men of the coal pits," says he, "is one of the finest things in industrial life in America to-day." Nos. 6 and 8 were on the same bank, a mile and a half apart, and connected underground. The roof caved in only in a few places, and it was mainly "after-damp" that the rescuers had to fight. Their principal weapons were boards, can-

vas, and cement, and a spinning fan at the mine mouth.

He describes the work as follows:

The entries of a mine are parallel tunnels connected every so often with cut-offs, like rungs on a ladder. Butt entries, similar to the main entries, branch off at right angles to the latter, and from these butt entries open out the chambers, or rooms, from which the coal is cleared. The fans forced the air down one entry until it came to a cut-off, around which the current set, coming back up the other entry. The men followed the air, until they reached the cut-off, where they set up a brattice, or temporary partition, blocking the connecting passage. Then the air current had to push on to the next cut-off before it could find an outlet to the other entry. The men followed, a gang of from fifteen to thirty-five, the explorers leading, lifting their safety lamps to the roof and watching the flame. If it lengthened there was fire-damp there and they would know they were treading on the heels of another explosion and must wait; or else they lowered their lamps and watched the flame. If it died down, there was back-damp there, heavy-settling, but ready to reel over the man that breathed it. Again, they must wait, must go ten feet ahead and try; must hold canvas barricades against the after-damp till their arms ached, while the brattices slowly went up; and all the time must forage for death in that breathless sweater, finding it in a disemboweled mule, or the charred, crushed thing that had been a miner, or a headless trapper boy, or an empty shoe.

The rescuers were mostly English-speaking. The son of a Michigan judge, a young volunteer in a grey sweater, and former mine superintendent, was placed in charge of the explorers. Some of these had no rest for three days and nights. The company's policy has been considered liberal in case of accidents. It never dispossesses widows, and gives them a chance to make a living at washing or keeping boarders, and requires others to patronize them. It also gives the children employment, and its record for safety precautions was above the State's standards. Still, it was not what it might be. The managers of mines in West Virginia have resisted and blocked, says the writer, preventive legislation in that State for many years. "They had kept down unions through which the work sense of the men might have found expression; and they had resisted State supervision. And 344 men were dead."

Reverting to the families of the suffocated miners, the writer claims that their destitution to-day is owing to the failure of the social mechanism to keep pace with industrial development by devising ways in which

these mobile family groups shall have lodged in them some measure of economic integrity, which shall survive the death of the breadwinner in the mines. The fact that the very homes of the miners were part of the producing plant emphasizes the break where an industry turns back to society the families it

has used and crippled. A relief fund of \$200,000 is being raised for the widows and other sufferers, to which the Fairmount Company contributed \$20,000, and the Carnegie Hero Fund Commission \$35,000. It is intended to give to each widow \$300, and, also, \$100 for each child under sixteen years.

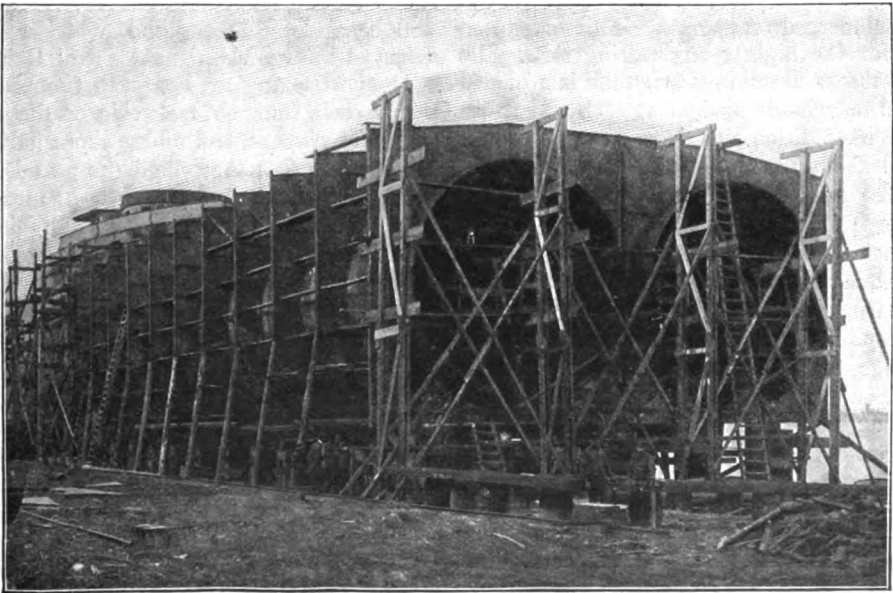
## THE DETROIT RIVER TUNNEL.

WHERE the Detroit River defines the boundary line between this country and Canada five important railroads cross: Michigan Central, Wabash, Grand Trunk system, Père Marquette, and Canadian Pacific. Powerful transfer steamers up to the present, capable of taking on their broad decks entire "limited" trains, have served as the conduit for passengers and traffic from Detroit to Windsor. Fifteen minutes is the usual time in crossing the river, but the switching and coupling on the other side occupy thirty or forty minutes,—a serious delay in fast service between the East and West; but in winter, when the ice floes obstruct the river, the delay is longer. Freight traffic has grown to enormous proportions in recent years, and this renders the ferry more than ever inadequate.

Hence the project of a tunnel between Detroit and Windsor, below the bed of the

river, to reduce the time of a train's crossing to seven or eight minutes, and avoid delays and expense incident to the maintenance of expensive ferries, which are slow and cumbersome. This tunnel will come as the culmination of Mr. Henry B. Ledyard's successful administration of the Michigan Central system. He is the originator of this stupendous undertaking, which is now in charge of an advisory board of engineers, consisting of Mr. William J. Wilgus, chairman, vice-president of the N. Y. C. & H. R. R.; Mr. H. A. Carson, chief engineer of the Boston Transit Commission, and Mr. W. S. Kinnear, chief engineer of the Detroit River Tunnel Company, in direct charge of construction, says Mr. James C. Mills in *Cassier's Magazine* for January.

Months and months have been spent in planning this tunnel, until the final method of construction was adopted in the summer



PAIR OF TUNNEL TUBES, READY FOR FLOATING.

of 1906. This provides for a "double-barreled" tunnel of steel and concrete, through which trains will be operated by electricity. The Butler Bros.-Hoff Company, of New York, is the contractor, and in the early summer of 1909 the tunnel is to be opened. Its method of construction is novel and unlike all other plans for similar undertakings. The section of this tunnel under the stream will be 2622 feet long, and the river's depth varies from twenty to forty-eight feet. A wide and deep trench is being excavated, into which great steel tubes will be lowered into place and, when adjusted, covered with concrete. Briefly speaking, this is the tunnel. It is the idea of Mr. Wilgus. The trench will be excavated to the depth of forty-five feet below the bed of the river, and will be forty feet wide at the bottom. Piles are then driven down to the bottom of this trench to serve as a support for the huge tubes while they are being bolted in place.

Building these tubes is a colossal work. Made from plates of steel three-eighths of an inch thick, the sections are twenty-three feet in diameter and 260 feet long. At intervals of eleven and one-half feet on the outside there are transverse diaphragms which strengthen the tunnel and divide into sections the space to be filled with concrete. When ready for lowering, the tubes, with ends "plugged" to render them watertight, are floated and brought exactly over their intended resting place. Then water is admitted, and they settle by gravitation on the submerged supports. This operation calls for the highest engineering skill. To aid in this undertaking each tube is provided with a detachable upright at each end to indicate its position when sinking. As these extend about ten feet above the water, they serve to adjust the lateral position of the tubes.

When laterally adjusted, divers descend and examine the tubes carefully, to see if the bearings of the diaphragms on the beams of the pilings are in place and, also, to bolt the huge sections together. On each tube is a "sleeve" at one end, which can be slipped over the end of the tube previously sunk. This has a flange that is bolted to a corresponding flange on the other tube, a rubber gasket being placed between them. A similar gasket is fitted in the inner end of the sleeve bearing up against the edge of the other tube. With the sleeves and gaskets in place, bolting follows, the gaskets being

squeezed together between the ends of the tubes, forming a tight joint. A space of three by eighteen inches is thus formed around the tubes at the end of the joint, and this is filled with a grout of cement.

Concrete is the next factor. Gravel is first deposited over the bottom of the trench to a depth of two feet, to make a proper bed for the concrete, which, upon hardening, encompasses the foundation, piling, the tubes, diaphragms, and sleeves in a solid mass of stone. A trough of oak planking is built without the tubes, and into this trough the concrete is chuted and spread over the bottom of the trench, and is carried up over the tops of the tubes to a thickness of about five feet. Within these tubes will be built twenty-inch thick rings of concrete, and these are the tunnels proper. When completed, there will be a clear head of eighteen feet from the top of rails to center of arch, and sixteen and one-half feet wide across the center line. Ten 260-foot sections will be required to connect the American and Canadian dock lines. Including the approaches, the total length is 7960 feet from portal to portal, and the open cuts are 4840 feet additional, or, in all, nearly two and one-half miles. Concrete is the main factor in the construction of this tunnel, and it is estimated that 300,000 barrels of Portland cement, 250,000 tons of screened gravel, and nearly 1,000,000 barrels of sand will be required. The tunnel will be of the light concrete finish, brilliantly lighted, clean and well ventilated. Its cost will be at least \$8,000,000, which will be defrayed by the Michigan Central Railway.

In constructing the approach tunnels, two shafts were sunk on each side of the river, one on each shore, and others about half way between the first shafts and the portals. In this way a number of excavating gangs may be worked at the same time by digging in both directions. The operations are going on steadily, and beside the excavating, concrete gangs are mixing and building up the walls of the bores with concrete. These walls are four feet thick, arched overhead, and covered with a water-proofing of layers of tar, pitch and felt, which, in turn, is protected from injury by four inches of cement and brick. The shafts near the river banks are to be permanent, and are lined with strong double walls of concrete. They will serve to ventilate the tunnel and as outlets for the drainage pipes, as well as an exit in case of accident in the tunnel.

## THE RUSSIAN BUDGET FOR 1908.

THE *Ruskiya Vedomosti*, in commenting on the speech of the Russian Minister of Finance, Kokovtsov, in the third Duma, on the budget for 1908, brings out some interesting data, throwing light on the present economic condition of Russia. This journal agrees with the minister's optimistic view that "as soon as the inner life of the country again becomes normal the prosperity of the working masses and the financial condition of the country will be on the way to a steady improvement." Neither does it dispute his thesis that "the marked signs of the pacification of the country serve as favorable symptoms in the estimation of the nearest future, when compared with the recent past."

But this evasive bureaucratic phraseology, says the writer of the article quoted, leaves out of consideration the more serious questions connected with the subject. According to the minister, the abnormal phenomena in the inner life of Russia ends with the unfortunate "war," the failures of crop, and the internal disorders. But much that the minister considers to be normal must in reality be called abnormal. In 1905 Russia raised 3,784,000,000 poods of grain (a pood equals forty pounds); in 1906, 3,257,000,000 poods,—i. e., 527,000,000 poods less. In 1905 697,000,000 poods were exported; in 1906 590,000,000,—i. e., 107,000,000 poods less. For the domestic consumption there remained 420,000,000 poods less, and for the aid of the peasants suffering from failures of crops 40,600,000 rubles was expended in 1905, against 110,800,000 rubles in 1906,—i. e., 70,000,000 rubles more. The export of grain is apparently the main trump in the official estimation of the economic condition of the country. The *Vedomosti* continues:

We do not intend to stand up in defense of the widely spread thesis that it is wrong to export grain while the population is starving. On the contrary, reduce the export of the Russian grain, and the population will probably starve. But take off the yoke from the oppressed productive power of the people, and our fatherland will begin to catch up rapidly with the transatlantic republic, which exports agricultural products for nearly two millions of rubles per annum. Of this pressure, which is now keeping down the productive power of the people for ages, the Minister of Finances does not speak at all. It is certainly not his fault, but the fault of the system of which his office is a part. The agricultural development of Russia is also limited to a certain class only, and the government has never done much in the way of



M. KOKOVTSOV.

(Russian Minister of Finance.)

the elevation of the peasant masses. With its oligarchical tendencies it is certainly not able to do so.

In a second article the writer points out that a government organization, in collecting taxes from the population, is obliged to create conditions for the cultural development of the country, in order to enable the citizens to pay these taxes. In comparing the Russian budget in its general features with the budgets of the ordinary income of Germany and Great Britain for the past ten years, the writer finds this statistical comparison:

	Increase in the ordi- nary income of the Gov- ernment for 1896-1906. Per cent.	Income from each inhabitant in 1906. Rubles.	Increase of taxes on each inhab- itant from 1896-1906. Per cent.
Prussia .....	50	36.1	30
Great Britain.....	43	30.5	27
Russia .....	42	11.5	24

The Russian budget grows more slowly than the German and the English in absolute figures as well as in the calculation according to population, and there is a greater intensiveness in the taxing power of the Russian masses than in those of the western countries.

But the cultural demands of the Russian population are satisfied by the government much less than in the western countries. It is therefore much harder to increase the Russian budget



than the English or Prussian. And who knows how long this economic, political, and moral pressure will continue in Russia. As a sign of the increase in Russia's wealth Mr. Kokovtsov points out the increase of deposits in the Russian savings banks. But statistics show that in Prussia the per capita bank deposits were, in 1906, 224 marks, in the United States \$42, and in Russia 8.3 rubles. Besides, the greatest number of depositors and the largest amounts of deposits do not belong to the farmers or labor-

ing class, but to the middle class of merchants and officials.

As to the optimistic view of the minister concerning Russia's credit, the writer thinks that only a decisive, earnest, and sincere change in domestic policy and an elevation of the productive power of the country can finally bring back to Russia her forfeited position in the world's money market.

## CURAÇAO A REALLY SUCCESSFUL TROPICAL COLONY.

THERE has been so much talk of late years about the lamentable results obtained when white men try to govern tropical colonies, that it is refreshing and surprising to hear of one colony which is a constant proof that it is really possible for a European nation to administer successfully and very profitably a region not far from the equator. To most people the name of Curaçao is a combination of letters difficult of pronunciation, signifying nothing but a delectable and fiery drink with an indefinable aroma about it, which after meditation suggests that orange skins may enter into its composition. An excellently illustrated article in *Hojas Selectas* (Barcelona) presents the name with entirely different associations, as belonging to a little island of the Antilles, just north of Venezuela, whose characteristics are as pleasant as they are unexpected and unique.

The island is one of the inconsiderable colonial possessions of the Dutch, whose complete success in governing and cultivating this tiny corner of the tropical world is little known to the general public, although the island has been occupied by Europeans since 1523, a hundred years before the landing of our own Pilgrim Fathers. The date of its discovery is not certain, but the leading events in its mildly checkered career are well-known. It has changed hands two or three times, but the Dutch have generally been in possession, and have had no dispute to their claim for 200 years. In 1694 a large number of Jews settled there, fleeing from persecutions in Europe, and still form a considerable element in the character of the place. Another factor of population is the large colored element.

That the successful administration of the Dutch has not been due to absence of the usual perplexing problems of tropical countries and peoples is shown by the history of the liberation of the slave element.

As early as 1752 there was a great insurrection among them, showing that they must have been unusually spirited, since slavery was a generally accepted institution at that time. This rebellion was put down with the inhuman ferocity to the lower classes thought necessary at that date as the only means of preserving society, but mutinies and rebellions continued till the King of Holland finally emancipated all slaves by an admirable royal decree, allowing \$80 to owners for loss of each slave, and 70 centimes a day for each of the sick and aged slaves, thus thrown on their own resources after a lifetime of dependence. Since that time so profound a peace and quiet has reigned that the annals of the colony seem scarcely like those of a real corner of this wicked world.

The population numbers about 50,000, although, since no census has ever been taken, the same uncertainty floats over these figures as over the age of some old negroes. It is guessed at and estimated. At any rate most of what population there is is concentrated in the one city of the place, Willemstad, which is a very urban little metropolis, with all the conditions of life of one of our smaller cities, but it has a record that puts to shame any city of our own. In an absolutely indefinite number of years not a single capital crime has been heard of either in the city or among the rural population.

The author of the article in the Spanish magazine attributes this remarkably creditable history partly to the pacific nature of the inhabitants, and largely to the wise, temperate and eminently just administration of this colony by the Dutch Government.

The colonists feel so strongly the integrity of their rulers that, though they send no deputy to the Dutch Parliament, nor have in any other way a share in the home government, they are perfectly satisfied with the arrangement, and none of the clamors for self-government so usual among far-away colonies are ever heard among them. The island, and several others even smaller, are governed by a chief official appointed directly by the Queen of Holland. He is aided by a cabinet and by a sort of colonial council which serves as a legislature for the colony. The present incumbent rejoices in the



THE GOVERNMENT HOUSE OF CURAÇAO.

name of O. de Yong van Beek-en-Donk, and rules with perfect equity over a motley population, one-third of which is composed of emancipated slaves and their descendant.. The Jews are very numerous, prosperous, and influential, having virtually all the business of the place in their hands. They live in a special quarter of the city set aside for them and have two synagogues. The rest of the population is almost solidly Roman Catholic, which is another curious element in a colony which has for so long been a dependency of Protestant Holland.

The city of Willemstad itself is a very attractive modern metropolis, through which the Dutch, true to their home ideals have run several large canals. These not only facilitate immensely the transportation of merchandise, but give the town a charming half-Dutch, half-Venetian aspect on which the Spanish author of the article dwells with delight. He is also struck with the singular cleanliness of the town, a trait which is again pre-eminently Dutch.

The city has two synagogues, two Roman Catholic churches, two Masonic lodges, two banks,—one a savings bank, the other a trust-company,—two casinos, two hospitals, an ice factory (a great luxury in so small a tropical city), electric lights . . . All those modern conveniences which make it seem oddly like a piece of Europe floated away from its moorings. It is singular to think of this busy little center of life, hopeful, prosperous, pursuing its way in perfect accord with the spirit of the modern world and beating it at its own game of material success, although almost wholly unknown to it.

The great prosperity of the island depends by no means upon extraordinary natural re-

sources, for it is of volcanic formation, hilly, and entirely without water except what comes from rainfall. It is, moreover, very, very tiny, being only forty miles long and about ten miles wide; but from this little scrap of land the industry and ingenuity of the Dutch planters have obtained large returns. In spite of the concentration of the population in the city, the rest of the island is dotted with farms and farmhouses where some of the usual tropical crops are raised, tobacco, indigo, sugar, etc., but especially medlars, which are the best in the world. The physical aspect of the island is described by the Spanish author as extremely pleasing. In the city are a number of flourishing industries, such as the making of straw hats, fine cabinet-making, etc. A large quantity of salt is exported yearly and a very valuable mine of calcium phosphate is worked with great profit. But the real industry is the manufacture of the celebrated liqueur which takes its name from the island. This is prepared from the expressed juice of the skins of a peculiar variety of orange which grows freely in Curaçao. The fact that this sort of orange apparently grows only on that island means virtually an eternal monopoly of the industry by Curaçao, which in turn virtually assures prosperity for all the future.

The Spanish author, evidently with the memory of Spanish failures in colonial administration fresh in his mind, speaks especially of the exceptional uprightness and honesty of all public officials, who secure the

administration of justice without delay and without favor, and says that Holland owes to this policy, steadily carried out, her remarkable freedom from the rebellions and discords which disturb other countries who

are trying to accomplish the same thing in tropical regions. The loyalty of the inhabitants of Curaçao to the crown of Holland is a fitting reward for the justice which they have always received.

## SWEDISH EXPERIMENTS IN COMMUNAL OWNERSHIP AND CO-OPERATION.

THE parish of Orsa in the province of Dalarna (The Vales) has long been known as "the richest community in Sweden," and not without good cause. Thanks to the vast forest lands owned and worked by the parish as a commune, its inhabitants have been wholly free from taxes of every kind for the last twenty-five years. During the same period a number of important and far-reaching improvement schemes have been carried out, resulting in making the roads and the schools of the parish rank among the finest in the country. But this prosperity has not failed to arouse envy, and recently insinuations have been heard to the effect that the people of Orsa were being "pauperized," and that the great funds raised by the selling of timber were being squandered in a way that would justify interference by the national and provincial authorities.

These accusations and the officially made suggestion that a special auditor be appointed by the government to go over the accounts of the parish have caused the more bitterness in the hearts of the Orsa people because the autonomy granted the communes in Sweden is remarkably great, jealously guarded, and invariably merited. And the sturdy peasants of Orsa have hinted in retort that much of the hostile criticism might be traced to the known desire of its population that a great portion, if not all, of the land within the parish be held collectively as communal property and leased to the tillers.

The whole matter is made the subject of an interesting article in a recent issue of the *Social Tidskrift* (Stockholm).

Up to 1879 Orsa was known as one of the most poverty-stricken communes in Sweden. Its soil was at once meagre and swampy, and for those reasons particularly exposed to the ravages of the heavy fall frosts. Agriculture was declining steadily, and the emigration from the parish was appalling. There were no railroads and next to no roads.

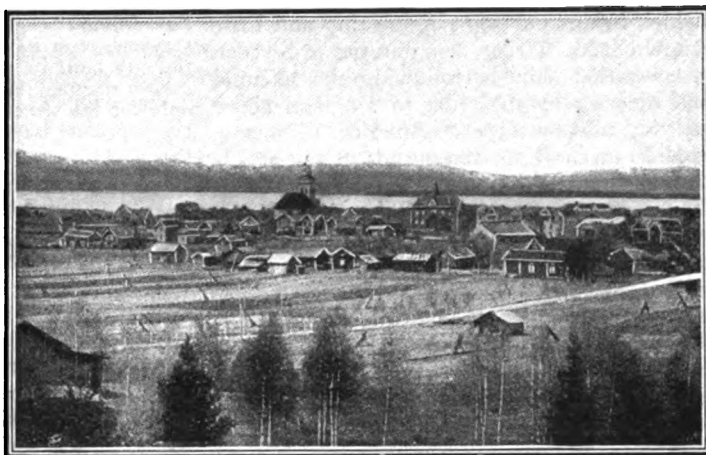
At that time a royal commission was at work distributing and disposing of certain forest lands which had before been reserved as crown property. Some one persuaded the representatives of Orsa, rather against their own inclina-

tion, to set aside one-third of the lands allotted to the landowners of that parish as communal property, instead of having it all parcelled out among the landholders, as was done elsewhere. The arrangement was confirmed by royal patent and some 160,000 acres of timber land was reserved in the poorest and least accessible district of the parish. Up to the present time the sale of timber from those forests has brought the commune in all nearly 10,000,000 kronor, or about \$2,600,000. According to the rules laid down by the government for the use of the means accruing to the Orsa Forest Fund, the proceeds were to be applied as follows: (1) Expenses for the protection, renewal, and working of the forest; (2) 10 per cent., until a total of 300,000 kronor (\$78,000) be reached, as an emergency fund for "famine" years; (3) for purposes regarded as generally useful to the commune, such as medical attendance, care of the poor, popular education, improvement of agriculture through irrigation or otherwise, development of stock raising, improvement of police, and the construction of new as well as improvement of old roads. The regulations established provided expressly that if any part of the funds be used to meet taxes, whether national or communal, this must be done in such a way that no special favor was shown to the landholders of the parish, to whom, as a body, the communal forest is regarded as belonging.

The result has been that all the taxes have come out of the fund, and that the citizens, whether owning land or no, have been exempted from taxation of any kind. It was also provided that not more than 1,000,000 kronor should be invested in railroad building. The handling of the fund was entrusted to a commission of three, one of whom is appointed by the provincial government, while the other two are elected by the landholders of the parish. Three auditors chosen in the same way go over the accounts of the commission annually. This is how the proceeds of the fund have been applied so far:

The payment of all taxes during the last twenty-five years has already been mentioned. About 200 miles of excellent roads have been built, at a cost of \$235,000. Irrigation ditches totalling in length 550,000 feet have been dug at a cost of about \$80,000. Where not long ago could be found only two poorly equipped schools with a couple of teachers, there are now thirteen model schools with a staff of forty-five teachers,

not to mention two "school kitchens" for the instruction of girls in domestic duties. The teachers are all paid about 10 per cent. more than the law requires. And a system has been established enabling the children after finishing their schooling to return for brief periods each year to freshen up their knowledge. A parish hospital has also been built, but comparatively little has been done so far for the care of the poor, and the proposition to establish old age pensions has not been carried out.



THE VILLAGE OF ORSA.

(Known as the richest community in Sweden.)

The general result of these improvements

has been to raise the standard of intelligence and education among the people, as well as to better their economical condition by making the parish practically immune to frosts until after harvest time. On the other hand the commission has managed to evade the provisions of the letters-patent by investing not less than 2,500,000 kroner in three different railroad lines, none of which has proved an interest bearing investment so far. To do this, the parish has borrowed the money thus employed above the sum which the law permitted to be taken for such purpose from the fund itself. And at present the anomalous condition exists that the richest commune in the country is hard up for cash at times with which to pay the interest on the railroad loans. It is admitted by every one, however, that the roads encouraged by the parish have been free from all speculative features, and that their building has been of great importance in opening up districts which previously were practically shut off from all communication with the outside world.

If anybody should ask an Orsa peasant today whether the fund has been of use to the parish or not, the man would laugh outright and reply: "Where would we be without that fund?" And if you ask persons in different walks of life whether the riches coming from the forests have had a demoralizing influence on the people, the answers, given in various forms, with all in substance say this: "To begin with, when the purpose of the fund was not yet known to a majority, those were found who imagined that it would be useless to strive and struggle in the future, as the fund would take care of them anyhow." But by degrees the people learned that the only *direct* advantage coming to them

from the fund was the freedom from taxation. With his private economical condition everyone had to deal as he could best. Therefore it is not possible at the present time to observe any decrease of private enterprise among the Orsa people, while, on the other hand, a large increase in the interest for all public matters makes itself felt.

#### Inter-Communal Co-operation in Sweden.

The first Swedish Communal Congress was held at Stockholm on October 10, 11, and 12, when about 400 delegates from some seventy cities, boroughs and towns met and organized the Swedish Cities' Union. The call for the congress was issued by the Central Association for Social Work and was signed, among others, by four members of the City Council of the Swedish capital, two of whom are also members of the Upper House of the Riksdag. The programme for the congress is printed in a recent number of the *Social Tidskrift* and contains the following subjects of discussion:

Modern development of urban communities. The problem of city suburbs. Cities as employers. The land policy of the cities. The national building law and the city ordinances relating to buildings. The cities and the housing problem of the laboring classes. City budget. Communalization of public utilities. The food question in the cities.

In connection with the convening of the congress the same periodical publishes an interesting review of the progress of inter-communal co-operation both in Sweden and in other countries. Attention is first given to the development of municipal enterprises for the improvement of individual cities,

which brings out some interesting and little known facts. Urban communities in Sweden were rather slow in following the splendid example set by the cities of England above all, but also by those of America, Germany, and France. Thus the author of the article relates that in 1874 only four Swedish cities had constructed sewerage systems, while ten years later not a single city possessed a department of street cleaning that could be called properly organized. Since then immense progress has been made, as evidenced by the fact that during the last five years the death rate in the cities has been lower than in the rural communities.

The case of the little city of Oskarshamn, now having about 7000 inhabitants, is cited as peculiarly characteristic.

The first two street lamps, burning oil, were provided in 1859. Up till then citizens out at night had carried lanterns. The next forward step was the exchange of old-fashioned vegetable oil for kerosene in 1865. Two years later it was discovered that more than two lamps were needed. Then offers to build gas works began to pour in from foreign capitalists who had been deprived of their home markets by the spreading of the municipal ownership idea in their own countries. Those officers were rejected so long that gas works ceased to be the proper thing and their place was taken by power houses for the generating of electricity. Still

the foreign capitalists were tendering their services, with as little result. At last, in 1898, the city built its own power house, and then in such a manner that electricity was provided not only for the streets and public buildings but for every private home in the city, while there was still enough left over to sell to factories in need of power for their machinery.

And along the line just indicated the first definite forms of intercommunal co-operation in Sweden made their appearance. Coal is expensive over there. Few countries are richer in water power, on the other hand. Thus one city after the other among the larger ones proceeded to make itself independent of the coal market and its towering prices by purchasing a waterfall within easy reach. Such action has already been taken by the cities of Stockholm, Örebro, Gäfle, Nora, Hedemora, Köping, and Hudiksvall. Others that were poorer or less fortunately situated pooled their interests for similar purposes. The small communities of the province of Blekinge on the southern coast have joined hands in this way with the large Scanian municipalities of Malmö and Lund, while the cities of Landskrona, Helsingborg and Halmstad on the west coast have become large stockholders and directing factors in the great Southern Swedish Power Company, a semi-public corporation.

## THE TEMPER OF THE AMERICAN.

**P**ROVINCIALISM is worthy of the keenest study, and few realize that its relation to the national welfare makes a comprehensive knowledge of its essential character of the greatest importance. This is true of all peoples, but especially of our own, for here the national state is in its beginning, and the impress of the locality is still the most significant phase of our national political experience. To understand the American temper, we must go back to the indigenous American, who is predominantly rural,—a resident of an agricultural community.

This American is pre-eminently optimistic. However dangerous or threatening present conditions may be, he is never distressed, for he believes that finally everything will be adjusted. This is because he is right at heart, and this is universally recognized. He is attached to the soil and believes in rural economy. Success and labor are convertible terms,—and he is no

believer in a privileged class. The self-made man is his ideal, and birth has no prerogative. He believes a heritage of toil is the most valuable legacy for son or daughter, and a failure to accumulate a competence is ascribed to shiftlessness. He is a thorough believer in the Canonist doctrine that there is sufficient labor in every community to support every inhabitant, and that a failure to be employed is a personal fault. A tramp is, in his estimation, a reprehensible being.

### SUCCESS AND TOIL SYNONYMOUS.

Thus does Mr. Joseph B. Ross outline the indigenous American in the *American Journal of Sociology* for November. Caste distinctions are not recognized by this American philosopher, says the writer, and personal worth is the only thing which receives his commendation. Hence, with him, success and toil are synonymous, and each is deemed the equivalent of the ethically right.

He measures ethics by an economic standard, and expects the toiler to accumulate wealth. Because such a man is worthy, goodness is identified with success. By parity of reason evil is identified with failure. When evil befalls a good man, says the writer, the matter is incomprehensible to our indigenous one. Likewise is the success of an evil person an anomaly to him.

He is a firm believer in himself and in the solidarity of his community. The successful man was always born on a farm, and was acquainted with the hardships of rural life. His early straits developed the sterling qualities which afterward led to success. This tends to make him narrow. The dependence of the community is upon its substantial citizens, who must be upheld and sustained; hence the strange face is not welcomed. The transient is bidden to leave the neighborhood with speed, and the strange family is not welcomed until time has proved its worth and ability to accumulate fortune.

#### A THOROUGH-GOING PARTISAN.

His temper is dominantly political. The chief citizens of the community are chosen to the local offices. There is keen interest in the elections, and every man is a partisan. He will oppose his best friend and support instead an unworthy member of his political faith through partisanship. His party platform is an *ex cathedra* utterance, and that of the opposition anathema. Charges of corruption in office do not affect him deeply. If the derelict is of an opposing political affiliation he ascribes the happening to that fact. If a member of his own party is involved, he is not inclined to condemn him. His mind is not keenly alive to the sacredness of public office. "The incumbent is expected to exploit the public if it can be done without detection, and the American admires the astuteness of the one who can thus improve his private fortune with the greatest skill."

He believes firmly in favoritism and privilege,—the rule of the partisan tempers every conception. He suggests to the merchant a reduction in the price of his purchases, is not above using personal influence with a judge or jury to favor himself, and when drawn for jury duty is susceptible to the same approaches. He cannot understand how a personal friend should permit a judgment injurious to his interests, for he

favors his friend at the expense of justice.

Religiously, he is passively orthodox, and rarely a zealot. While his interest is inane he defends the church firmly whenever it is attacked. Religion is to him an essential safeguard to the community, and he does not tolerate independents. He is not pre-disposed to pleasure. A few books,—the Bible, sectarian literature and the pamphlet laws of the State,—may be observed in his home. A visit to the county seat or market town, where he gossips about political conditions, or crops, is his recreation. The chief evils, he believes, are the theatre, the dance, and card games. Novel-reading is trifling and sometimes dangerous to the moral tone, he holds; but on visits to nearby towns he sometimes succumbs to his bibulous propensities.

With no faith in specialized powers he is a great believer in versatility. He admires the man who is equally skilful in all undertakings. Ability cannot but win a prominent place in the public regard; hence, the college professor can teach any branch of learning, and the lawyer or physician direct agricultural or commercial ventures, successfully. Public speakers are seers and sages. Their utterances are accepted with little investigation and little regard for original authority. Platitudes are commended and verbosity is apotheosized. In thought he is not capable of abstraction. The concrete is his guiding star. Beliefs and practices are embodied in persons, and words of favored statesmen are read and pondered, and quoted as conclusive in any argument.

These characteristics bear the imprint of the frontier and were formed in an earlier age. With changed conditions interest in the larger world has succeeded the vista of the hamlet. But while environment has been outgrown, the American type has persisted. The tendency of American development is, however, the antithesis of this temper, which is agricultural and rural, while the bent, to-day, is decidedly commercial and urban. This conflict of urban tendencies with rural thought must affect our entire life, and so long as the thought of the people remains provincial the larger national life cannot be lived. That philosophic mould is too small for present needs, and the creation of an enlarged view is one of the needs of the immediate future. Whether this is possible or not depends on the form it may assume.

## SERVIA'S ECONOMIC PROSPERITY.

NOTWITHSTANDING all its domestic troubles, the Russian Government has never ceased to stimulate the panslavistic movement at home as well as abroad. Many special agents and newspaper correspondents are frequently touring Germany, Austria-Hungary, Roumania, Macedonia, Servia, and Bulgaria, and even the United States, for the cause of the future panslavic state, which they expect will be established some day under the protection of the great White Czar. The well-known newspaper correspondent, Vasili Nemirovich-Danchenko, has lately visited Croatia and Servia, and in a series of letters to the Moscow daily, *Russkoye Slovo* (the *Russian Word*), presents a very optimistic picture of the progress of the Slavs in those countries. With all the efforts of the Austrian Government to put prohibitory tariffs on Servian imports, the Servian cities are growing rapidly, and with them Servia's prosperity.

Instead of exporting their cattle, as heretofore, to Austria-Hungary, the Servians are shipping their oxen, via Salonica, to England and Alexandria, while Austria-Hungary is still compelled to import geese and ducks. Instead of paying high custom duties, a great part of the poultry is now smuggled in by expert contrabandists. As to the main product of the Servian farmers,—the hog,—Austria-Hungary will be compelled to import it, as the Hungarian hog never furnishes such lard as the Servian.

Turning to Servia's financial prosperity, the correspondent points out that while the banks of Vienna and Budapest have been compelled to raise their discount rates to 8 and 9 per cent., the banks of Belgrade charge the old-established rate of 6 per cent.

While there are no great capitalists in Servia, the masses are prosperous, and there is no poverty in any part of the country. The farmers are well fed and well clad. Only the old Servian politicians are still looking for favors from Vienna; the new radical party is not afraid of the Austria-Hungarian minataur. In spite of the tariff war with Austria, Belgrade has grown wonderfully in the last five years. Splendid new buildings, improved pavements, fine hotels, schools, and public institutions show the remarkable development of the Servian capital.

Nemirovich-Danchenko was especially pleased to find that at the Grand Hotel, where formerly the German language predominated, Russian is now spoken. Elevators, electric lights and all other modern improvements,—he thinks that even St. Petersburg could learn a lesson from the capital of this lilliputian country.



KING PETER OF SERVIA.

(Whose realm now enjoys great prosperity.)



The Russian writer believes that the Austrian diplomatists have made a great mistake with their prohibitory tariff on Servian products. Instead of buying sugar and glass from Austria, the Servians have now established their own sugar refineries and glass factories.

And while the Croatians and Slovaks from Austria-Hungary are emigrating in great numbers to America, the Servians remain on their farms, raising the hog, pasturing their oxen, and cultivating their vineyards and fruit gardens.

## THE WEAKNESS OF GERMANY'S COLONIAL SYSTEM.

THE visit of the German Colonial Minister, Herr Dernburg, to inspect German possessions in Africa, signifies, according to semi-official rumor, that the Emperor William is about to make a final effort to consolidate the imperial possessions oversea into something of a businesslike organization which shall justify, from an economic standpoint at least, the persistency which characterized him in founding his colonial power. It is well known that Bismarck was opposed to colonial expansion, on the ground that to a country that was without a great navy a colonial empire could only be a source of weakness.

Nevertheless, says Maurice Lair, writing in *Revue Bleue* (Paris), Germany could not for any length of time escape from what has been known as "Colonial fever." Nor was she without her own especial reasons.

Her population has increased at such a rate as to frighten economists. In 1834 it was 24,000,000 souls; to-day it exceeds 60,000,000. Between the Germanic and the Anglo-Saxon races the proportions have been reversed since the eighteenth century; then there were 20,000,000 Germans to 9,000,000 Anglo-Saxons; to-day the latter number 135,000,000, as against 75,000,000 of the former. For want of colonies, then, the prolific power of Germany has produced but a loss of living forces, which, in the labor world, even threatens to entail serious civil conflicts.

Other countries, furthermore, rejoice in splendid colonial possessions which are the creation of men of their own race: Great Britain, in every quarter of the globe; France, in the western Mediterranean; Russia, progressively in Asia; the United States, ever expanding in its own wonderful territory. Germany alone lags behind, and is growing to fear that her prestige may fail if she does not organize a domain beyond the sea.

It must be remembered that hitherto the imperial government has counted for almost nothing in the acquisition of colonial territory. Most of the German colonies owe their existence to private enterprise. The advent of the present Emperor, with his ideas of colonial expansion, happened for all practical purposes too late, since almost all the

planet had been already parceled out. To-day German colonial possessions amount in extent to 2,600,000 square miles, with 13,000,000 souls, as against 29,000,000 square miles owned by Great Britain, with 350,000,000 subjects.

The German colonies are not represented in the Reichstag, and are somewhat arbitrarily governed, since the Colonial Department at Berlin, recruited at will by the Chancellor, as yet exercises no serious action. Since his success at the last elections the Kaiser has availed himself of the good-will of the majority to exploit more freely, and with less reference to the imperial tax-exchequer, the value of the imperial colonial possessions.

The results hitherto provided by these possessions would discourage any other man but William II. The German population, for example, is of little account and less promise. In 1906 the census of the German colonies showed that there were only 5276 Germans in the imperial possessions in Africa, and 675 in the Pacific islands,—this, too, as the result of twenty years of effort, and in a territory five times greater than that of Germany. The colonial army, amounting to 18,000 men, is, of course, not included in these returns; but, on the other hand, the missionaries, the officials, the police, the excise, and all the families of these individuals are included, so that the proportion of German colonials resident is almost ridiculously small. Germans are accustomed to ridicule French colonies and their regiments of police and officials. Yet France has 20,000 of her sons exploiting the resources of Tunis. It might be thought that German commercial enterprise had at least shown something in the way of hopeful signs of a future. It would appear to be far from so, since the Fatherland sent, in 1904, 35,000,000 of marks of merchandise to her dependencies, and received in return only 11,000,000 marks of importations. It is true, as pointed out by Herr Dernburg, that railway communica-

tions have not as yet been really established. There are at the present moment over 1000 miles in the course of construction, and much will depend for the future of the colonies on the willingness of German financiers to lend money for further development, a willingness which always provides a barometer of hopefulness, but which in this case is not conspicuous.

In Germany the notion prevails that the colonies cost more than they can possibly ever be worth. The colonial budget for 1907 amounts to 156,000,000 marks, or nearly \$39,000,000; in the past decade they have cost \$171,000,000 without counting special credits, and of this

sum over \$100,000,000 has been spent on military enterprises.

Nevertheless, Germany has become so rich within the past twenty years, says M. Lair, that she can afford the initial expenditure, if,—and this is the crucial point,—her colonies are susceptible of being finally organized to yield a profit. It is a hopeful sign that the working classes, which the Socialists are stirring up against an imperialistic policy, profit by the existence of these dependencies. They, with the saving middle-classes of the Fatherland, consider the world-policy of the Emperor as the logical outcome of Germany's prodigious economic prosperity.

## THE WORK OF THE "POLISH MOTHER OF SCHOOLS."

THE first report of its work has just been issued by the greatest educational institution in Poland, the Polish Mother of Schools (*Polska Macierz Szkolna*) of Russian Poland. This report, which covers the period from July 1, 1906, to July 1, 1907, shows the work of the *Macierz* to have been surprisingly rich in results. It must be borne in mind that the *Macierz* commenced its work in the period of the greatest confusion in Russian Poland, the period of frightful turbulence, of disorganization, of unprecedented partisan strife, and of a universal epidemic of violent politics. Such conditions generally do not conduce to the development of cultural work. And yet the Polish Mother of Schools persevered and survived the storm. Nay, it had already begun to reap an abundant harvest when Governor-General Skallon (in December last) ordered the closing of the 1600 schools in the kingdom.

Russian reaction soon showed its teeth, and commenced to attack the *Macierz*. But this strong institution, standing on a legal basis, resolved to conquer all difficulties. At the outset the governors of six provinces of the kingdom questioned the legal right of the *Macierz* to extend its activity over the whole kingdom; later, the organization met with the systematic restricting by the curator of the Warsaw educational district of the right of founding town and village schools.

Up to July 1, 1907, the chief directory of the *Macierz* applied to the educational authorities for permission for the opening of 1247 schools, but obtained, the report complains, licenses for the opening of only 681

schools. Of 316 names of teachers submitted by the chief directory in the year for which the report is issued, to the authorities for approval, only 159 received approval.

Some of the administrative regulations with regard to the *Macierz* are, as the law department of the *Macierz* points out, directly contrary to the law; as, for instance, the prohibition of the opening of *Macierz* schools in places in which there are communal schools.

The statistics of the *Macierz* speak for themselves. The total number of "circles" is 781, with a membership of 116,341. At the institutions of the *Macierz* that sent in their statements for the period in question 63,000 persons attended studies, 14,401 children were cared for in the asylums, and 400,544 persons used the reading-rooms and libraries. The contributions of the public during this period for the purposes of the circles and of the chief directory reached the sum of 810,673 rubles (\$405,000) without reckoning the value of fixtures and real estate donated to various "circles."

This first report of the Polish Mother of Schools is an answer, observes the *Warsaw Gazeta Codzienna* (the *Daily Gazette*), to those pessimists who constantly assert that the Polish community shows no energy in practical work.

With the funds of the 308 circles whose treasury accounts have not been included in this report of the *Macierz* the budget of the Polish Mother of Schools will be found to reach 1,000,000 rubles. If we add to this that, according to the calculations of K. Kujawski, we possess in "the kingdom" thirty-one intermediate private schools (without reckoning the girls' boarding-

schools), the maintenance of which costs at least 1,000,000 rubles a year, we shall have the sum of 2,000,000 rubles that our community at present expends for the maintenance of its private schools. In view of our educational needs, this is an insufficient sum. But in view of the state of our community, which has been enfeebled in latter times by economic misfortunes, it is quite a considerable sum, testifying that the capability for work and benevolence in our community has by no means disappeared.

"St. Gr." in the Warsaw *Tygodnik Ilustrowany* (the *Illustrated Weekly*) closes a synopsis of the report of the Macierz with the following observation:

We cannot in this place enumerate all the cultural arrangements in "the kingdom" to the founding of which the Macierz has contributed. On its initiative there have arisen hundreds of institutions,—lower schools and intermediate schools, people's universities, courses for illiterates, people's homes, legal advice sections, pedagogical museums, teachers' seminaries, etc. Despite the short period of its activity, the Macierz has accomplished a great work. To-day nobody will take away from the wide masses of Poland either the knowledge of reading and writing which they have acquired, thanks to the Macierz, or the popularizing information which they have gained, be it in the reading-rooms or at the lectures. This has already become the property of the people.

## JAPAN'S FIRST WORLD'S FAIR.

IN spite of the alleged warlike ambitions of Japan, there is reason to believe that the intention of the Tokio administration is to bend all its energies to the encouragement of the arts of peace, and especially the promotion of its economic interests in the Far East. The invitation lately issued by Japan, requesting the nations of Europe and America to participate in the international exposition to be held at Tokio in 1912, is, undoubtedly, indicative of her peaceful intentions. Inasmuch as this new undertaking of Japan has already awakened so much interest in this country as to find encouragement in President Roosevelt's recent message to Congress, it seems opportune to give the nature and scope of the exposition society as described by its president, Viscount Kaneko, in an article in a recent issue of the *Taiyo* (Tokio).

The official title of the coming exposition of Japan will be "The Grand Exposition of Japan." This name was intentionally preferred to the more pretentious name of "world's fair" or "international exposition," for Japan does not wish to appear too ambitious or too sanguine of success in her first undertaking of this nature. According to Viscount Kaneko, this exposition, like those preceding it, will be held (1) to promote the common economic interests of the nations participating in it, (2) to further the education of the world, (3) to foster amicable relationship among nations, and (4) to furnish Japan with an opportunity for a national festival.

Not only have world's fairs proved to be of common economic benefit to all nations, but they have, as the Japanese writer points out, become a powerful means of education. An important feature of modern expositions

is the inauguration as their adjuncts of numerous conventions and conferences. Savants and scientists, philosophers and religious workers, educators and preachers, authors and journalists, come to world's fairs from all parts of the globe to discuss vital problems pertaining to their respective fields of study. To such conferences and congresses the world is indebted not a little for the dissipation of religious and racial prejudices existing among nations. As an instance, Viscount Kaneko points out that, since the world's parliament of religions held at the Chicago fair, the west has not only ceased to cherish absurd prejudices against Buddhism, but has begun to make an earnest effort to study that great religious system.

The third advantage of world's fairs the writer finds in the fact that they improve diplomatic relationships among nations.

The time has passed when international friendships are maintained or destroyed at the pleasure of rulers or governments alone. To-day it is people as well as governments that are responsible for war and peace. Should the people of one country assume a hostile attitude toward those of another country, the amicable relationship between the two states must necessarily be endangered, however desirous to maintain peace their rulers may be. It is, therefore, extremely necessary for the promotion of the world's permanent peace that the peoples of all countries be made to understand one another. No international exposition which does not take this important fact into consideration can be regarded as faithful to its true mission.

As to the fourth aim of the international exposition, the Viscount says that a nation, as well as an individual, needs to be afforded opportunities of amusement. An international exposition is, in a measure, an occasion of grand national fête.

## COLOR PHOTOGRAPHY.

IT is known that the Lumière system of color-photography depends for its success upon the fact that the innumerable hues of nature may in reality be looked on as combinations of the three fundamental colors,—red, blue, and green. In addition, dependence is put upon the circumstance that in order to get a composite effect, say purple, it is not necessary that the two colors, red and blue, be each made to cover the entire surface of the object. It is sufficient if the objects be thoroughly well sprinkled with innumerable fine red and blue dots, each color being evenly distributed. To secure the precise shade of purple desired exactly the right proportion of red and blue dots must be combined. The decision as to such combination is not left to the photographer, but is automatically effected by nature herself. This becomes clear in the explanation of the process given by Dr. M. W. Meyer in a recent number of *Ueber Land und Meer*.

To form the sensitive plate the glass is first covered with a layer of very fine grains of starch (potato flour). These grains are of excessive minuteness,—about 80,000,000 being required to cover the surface of three and one-half by four and five-eighth inches. These grains have first been saturated in a color dye, the colors being the three fundamental ones. The glass plate is then covered with a mixture of equal quantities of the three colors. Such a plate will then appear colorless,—or should do so. We have now an approximately even mixture of those colors necessary to produce any natural hue. Bromide of silver, so prepared as to be equally sensitive to all three colors, is now poured over the layer of starch grains, and the sensitive plate is done.

The ordinary camera may be used. One attachment, and but one, is required. This is a "yellow plate," the object of whose use is to correct the arrangement of the modern camera whereby the object-glass focuses the ultra-violet rays upon the sensitive plate. The reason for this in ordinary photography is that such rays affect more decidedly the photographic plate than those which reproduce to the eye the colors of nature. But, for the purposes of color-photography, the spectral colors themselves are desired. The "yellow plate" it is necessary shall be specially adapted to the peculiar Lumière sensitive plate. It is said, on the other hand, to

be suited to the optical arrangement of any modern camera.

The Lumière plate is introduced into the camera with the glass side toward the object-glass. We are now ready for color-photography. In practice it is found necessary to make longer exposures than with the ordinary photographic process. There are two reasons for this: First, we have given up the ultra-violet rays for the rays which express nature more truly, but which are chemically weaker; second, as the object is to affect the bromide of silver, the rays of light must now pass through the starch coating, and so are weakened.

We will now suppose that a many-colored landscape has been properly focused on our plate. The red rays from a red object fall upon the plate, pass through the glass, and fall upon the grains of starch. If the object is a chimney, this chimney will be imaged on the side of the starch coating next the glass. This image will contain within its limits grains of all three fundamental colors. The grains of any one color, or of any combination, would yield an image of the chimney. However, the red rays, imaging the chimney, fall some of them upon red grains of starch, others upon grains of starch which are not red. The former pass through and affect the coating of bromide of silver; the latter are arrested and lost. In the case of a purple object, both red and blue rays succeed in passing through the starch layer and working upon the bromide of silver. And so on, with the various colors and color combinations.

It must still be confessed that we do not have any vestige of colored images on our plate. However, the plate is now taken into a dark-room. This must be a genuine dark-room, as light of any color would have disastrous results. Any one of the usual developers can be used. Metallic silver is now deposited wherever the bromide of silver has been affected by the light. The result of this is to produce a negative having the general appearance of that produced in the ordinary way. No colors yet. Now there is a particular chemical which is a solvent of metallic silver but not of the bromide of silver. Our negative is now introduced into a bath of this preparation. The metallic silver, covering precisely those places affected by the light transmitted through the starch coating, is now dissolved away, and the bromide

of silver where the light did not succeed in getting through is left unaffected. The effect of this removal of the silver is to display the colors of the starch. Red grains appear picturing the form of the chimney. Red grains now also come to light showing the image of the purple object. But, associated with these red grains, are blue ones also appearing and displaying the form of the purple object. The eye will receive both a red and a blue image, the separate elements of which are so mingled and so minute that the two are blended into one purple object, precisely as in nature. And so, with various objects of all colors and combinations of colors.

In bright daylight the plate is put into another bath where black silver is now deposited upon precisely those points where the bromide of silver has so far remained intact. But such points are those which in nature were dark, and so sent no light of any color through the glass plate and starch coating to affect the layer of bromide of silver. The effect of this deposition of black silver is to darken the parts of our plate corresponding to the dark spots of the landscape. We have now,—not a negative,—but a diapositive whose colors and shadings correspond to those of nature. This ends the essential process, although the plate is passed through several other baths to perfect results.

## IS OUR WORLD TO BE DESTROYED BY COMETS?

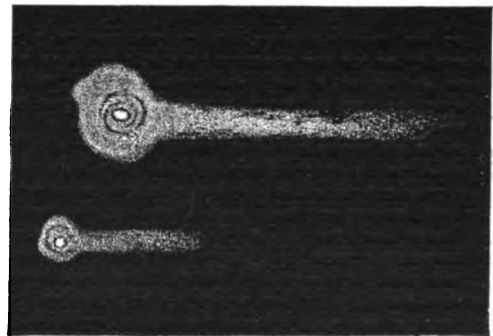
A CAREFUL study of the habits of comets and their actual and possible relations to our own globe is contributed to a recent number of the *Hollandsche Revue*. After recalling the most famous historical prophecies as to the end of the world coming from a collision with a comet,—and reminding us naively that none of them has come true,—the writer points out that at one time there actually was danger that one of these erratic heavenly bodies would come into violent contact with our earth. On this point he says:

Such a dangerous tramp of the heavens did indeed at one time exist, one which seemed to have for its veritable aim the destruction of our globe, the comet of Biela. This moved in a very small ellipse about the sun, returning every six and one-half years to a spot very close to a point in the earth's path which this reaches in the latter part of November. At its arrival in our field of observation, however, it was not always in such position as to be visible to us; so that it had been observed only in 1772 and 1805 before becoming recognized as a comet. In 1826 it was discovered again by the Austrian Captain von Biela, whose name was then given to it. Von Biela proved at the time that it was the same comet as was seen in 1805, and foretold its reappearance in 1832. This prediction soon aroused much anxiety, for the position of the path of this comet,—a position apparently so fraught with peril to our earth,—had become generally known even among the uninitiated. The fear became universal that the destruction of the world might be now at our very doors, and that the last day was at hand. This fear gained such hold upon the common mind that von Littrow, the able director of the Observatory at Vienna, was moved to publish a pamphlet proving this fear to be utterly baseless, since on November 30, 1832, the day when, as seen from our earth, the comet was expected to

reach its crossing point with the earth's orbit, it would in reality be still many millions of miles removed from this. By this all minds were set at rest, and the comet appeared at its post without causing any harm. Von Littrow, however, at the same time predicted that on November 30 of the years 1933 and 2115 this comet would really approach very close to the earth's path, and what then might happen no one could foretell.

According to von Littrow's calculation, we would once more, and that in comparatively few years, be standing on the very brink of destruction. But this peril was also very soon averted, for, since its appearance in 1832, this same comet of Biela has been the cause of new surprises, both as to itself and as to what may happen to its fellow-wanderers.

Far from attacking our globe, it has laid violent hands on itself, has committed hari-kari in fact; for when, in 1846, it became visible again, it had torn itself into two parts, and, in-



BIELA'S COMET.

As it appeared the last time (February 19, 1846).  
From the drawing by O. Struve.

stead of the original comet, there appeared two new and smaller ones, which followed each other at a distance of 40,000 miles. In 1852 these broken parts of this twin comet were already 350,000 miles removed from each other, and since then, notwithstanding the most diligent search, nothing has ever again been seen of the comet of Biela. It was supposed at the time that the two parts into which the original comet had split itself no longer possessed sufficient luminosity to enable us to observe them by means of our present instruments. But in 1872, the year when the broken parts of Biela should have come again into view, there appeared instead, exactly at the same place and period, the end of November, an extraordinarily strong shower of stars. The comet of Biela had disappeared from the stage of the universe and had gone the way of all comets,—a splendid confirmation of the theory of Schiaparelli, propounded long before, that comets ultimately resolve themselves into showers of falling stars, so called.

Although, now, so far as we know, no comets have ever come into collision with the earth, such collision has occurred on the part of comets with other planets. Moreover, it is supposed that comets very frequently plunge into the sun without our being able to perceive anything of the fact. The possibility of their collision with the earth is therefore not excluded, since (an additional cause for apprehension) the orbits of comets

are often so small that some can return after a comparatively short time, and their shortness may increase the probability of such collision. The shortest of these comet paths has only a period of three and a half years, while the comet of Halley requires nearly seventy-six years to complete its course. This is the only one of the periodical comets visible with the naked eye, and this will reach its shortest distance from the sun again on May 7, 1910, thus in about two and a half years. The main question now is this: Is there any chance whatever of a collision with the earth on the part of comets? The probability of this, says the writer in the Dutch review, seems to be exceedingly small.

The degree of such probability has been represented in the following manner: The chance of such collision is as small as if some one in a balloon should fire at a globe two feet in diameter (the sun), but should by mistake, instead of that globe, hit a peppercorn (the earth) which was sixty-five meters distant from that globe, thus on the edge of a circle having a surface of 13,000 square meters. According to the law of probabilities, this writer maintains, the chance of the collision of a comet with the earth is only as 1 to 400,000,000.

## WHAT MARS IS REALLY LIKE.

**A**N analytical study by the eminent Austrian astronomer, Johann Palisa, which appears in the *Deutsche Revue* (Berlin) treats of the conditions which prevail upon the planet Mars, giving special attention to the probable explanation of the so-called canals of Schiaparelli. He winds up his argument with a summary which begins thus:

If we sum up briefly what the telescope reveals to us on the surface of Mars we find that that planet is a heavenly body similar to the earth. It has a solid crust, seasons like our globe, is surrounded by an atmosphere, which, though its exact composition is unknown to us, surely contains aqueous vapor. We find that the region about the poles is covered with snow in the winter season; that precipitation, therefore, is not lacking; the melting of the snow-masses furnishes us evidence of climatic conditions not dissimilar to those upon the earth. Upon our sphere we know by experience that wherever on any stretch of land precipitation occurs, even though in sparing quantities; where the temperature rises, if but occasionally, above the freezing point of water, vegetation springs up, accompanied by fauna before long. We may, therefore, assume with great certainty,—

and this is the view of all observers of Mars,—that that planet is capable of sustaining plants and animals. That its surface does actually bear vegetation is attested to us by the changes in the coloring of numerous dark spots coincident with the change of seasons, and by the appearance of previously invisible dark regions and lines.

And now comes the significant and highly interesting question: If planets and animals subsist upon Mars, is the planet also inhabited by intelligent beings, Mars people?

It has been remarked by some astronomers that astronomy has other real problems to deal with and should leave alone such conceits as these. In truth, the astronomer must abandon the field of tangible reality and allow his fancy free play if he wishes to enter into a study of this question.

In the question under consideration it may, in the first place, be said that the existence of Mars-people is very well possible, all the requisite familiar conditions being given. But a further point has been reached,—in the Mars canals the work of man has been positively described. In fact, the uniformly regular, often perfectly straight, course of these structures, some of

them pursuing a north to south direction, forms a conspicuous moment for that assertion. Whether these canals be in reality of the same breadth throughout, or merely a chain of punctiform structures, the general supposition is that this regularity is not to be wholly ascribed to blind nature. Opinion is almost unanimous that the origin of these canals, as they appear to us, is connected with the flowing down of the polar waters; and what has seemed a particularly striking phenomenon is, that were the canals formations of nature, acting alone, they could not pass beyond the equator, but would have to halt before it. That they extend far beyond the equator furnishes the most important argument for the view that not nature alone but man's agency also, has been at work here; not even the existence of the canals is as indicative of the presence of man as this very circumstance.

If Mars possesses water, the area covered by it, in our estimation, is so small that one may reasonably conclude that there is a great dearth of it upon that planet. And the rare appearance of cloud formations strengthens this view. Now in order to utilize this important element of life to the best advantage, it must be conducted wherever there is fertile soil. The inhabitants of Mars have, therefore, directed the water's course along stretches in which, as soon as the fructifying moisture appears, vegetation is developed. The agency of the inhabitants of Mars has essentially contributed toward the regularity of construction which the canals present. The formations which look to us like canals are not, of course, in their full extent aqueducts; it may, indeed, be that but a very narrow strip of them irrigates the adjacent land. In order to have the water flow beyond the equator the inhabitants of Mars may have constructed peculiar elevating devices, since, as before observed, this phenomenon is hard to explain in any other way.

Let us, in conclusion, repair to a point in the universe which is just as distant from Mars as the earth and as the earth from Mars; I assume here that we know nothing of humanity upon our sphere, and would observe both heavenly bodies only through telescopes; should an angel

come to us and tell us that one of these two planets is inhabited by intelligent beings, and ask us to guess which, we should certainly guess Mars and not the earth, since the earth offers, so far as we can form a picture of it, nothing similar to the changes that take place upon Mars, and does not by any sign betray our presence. But if we admit that Mars is inhabited, the circumstance that it probably could accommodate organic life much earlier than the earth, would lead to the further conclusion that these people have progressed beyond us in culture and in the sciences. Their greatest concern, however, must always be the wisest exploitation of the existing water supply.

Our earth may once share the same fate as Mars,—that the water will steadily diminish. As may be familiar, the temperature of the ground is subject to fluctuations of the seasons: In summer it is higher, in winter lower, but the amount of fluctuation decreases at once upon descending any distance into the earth, and at a depth of only five meters it ceases entirely, and we strike there the average yearly temperature of the locality. But from that point there is a continuous increase of one degree Centigrade for every thirty meters as we proceed into the interior. The earth has still, therefore, very high temperatures in its depths; but unceasingly, even though slowly, the cooling goes on, and a period will some day be reached when the temperature of the outer crust will sink below zero, and only the five meters before referred to will, owing to the sun's rays, show higher temperatures.

While now the water that percolates into the earth is transformed into vapor by the heat of the interior and returns to the surface, the water which in descending will strike strata with temperatures below zero, will freeze and never again reach the surface. What, therefore, is perhaps in store for the earth in millions of years, that has already partially taken place upon Mars, a planet solidified before our own.

## THE PROBLEM OF THE ROOMER.

**I**N every city of any considerable size the roomer is every seventh or eighth man or woman you meet. He may be a day laborer or a city editor, but he represents the ambition, hopefulness, individualism, energy, and persistence of the younger productive ranks of mercantile and mechanic employees. With 90,000 roomers in Boston, one for every 723 in Chicago, one for every 463 in St. Louis, and before the earthquake one for every 233 persons in San Francisco,

what the rooming-house resembles is an interesting topic for discussion.

Professor Albert B. Wolfe, of Oberlin College, accordingly outlines the roomer's problem in *Charities and the Commons* for November 2. The growth of cities and the movements of population within the same city explain the rooming-house districts in our cities. The roomers have come to the city for employment, and the "landladies," for the most part, widows thrown on their



own resources, who turn to the roomer as a last resort. Old four-story family residences are rented,—in New York "brownstone fronts," in Boston "swell fronts," in St. Louis old style Southern mansions, which have been vacated through business changes or the fickleness of residential fashion. At one time nearly all roomers were boarders. To-day the boarding-house has largely disappeared. The effects of this transition are deplorable.

The reader must not fail to understand the difference between the rooming-house and the boarding-house. The boarder sleeps and eats in the same house; the roomer takes his meals at a restaurant. Twenty years ago two-fifths of the "boarders and lodgers" enumerated in the census of Boston were boarders. In 1895 less than one-fifth (17.4 per cent.) were boarders. The percentage of lodgers increased from 60.4 in 1885 to 82.6 in 1895. The further increase which has undoubtedly taken place since 1895 has virtually wiped out the boarding-house. This is true not only of Boston but of several other Massachusetts towns. Statistics are lacking for cities outside Massachusetts, but the probabilities are that the rooming house is everywhere displacing the old-time boarding-house. The causes of this lie in the competition of the cafés and "dining rooms," the fact that it takes less business ability to manage a rooming-house than a boarding-house, and most of all, that the rooming and café habit of life offers much more freedom than did the boarding-house. In the latter one must be on time for meals and must pay whether he eats or not. Moreover, lax as were boarding-house conventionalities, they afforded far more restraints than can be found in the rooming-house. A boarding-house without a public parlor would be an anomaly, while a rooming-house with one is a rarity.

With the passing of the boarding-house went the last vestige of "home" life, for a boarding-house without a public parlor would be an anomaly, while a rooming-house with one is a rarity. The common table with its friendly, if aimless, prattle being removed, the isolation of the roomer followed, which is a real social problem. He knows few people, and these not intimately. He rarely enters a family circle, and becomes a more or less nomadic character,—essentially a floater. The absence of the public parlor is responsible for damming the well-springs of healthy, social intercourse and for throwing the lodger upon his own resources. A girl receives her visitors,—men and women,—either in her room or in the street,—the moral effect of which can easily be deduced.

Landladies cannot afford a parlor, and this is the basis of this drawback. The moral results of such a situation, the writer believes, are a peculiar attitude of mind toward marriage and family; temporary unions and prostitution as substitutes; poignant loneliness; a blind, self-seeking individualism striking at altruistic impulses and moulding existence too closely on lines of the competitive business world. They have no substitute for home life, no opportunity for real recreation or cultural association, and are exposed to conditions which would try the most stable moral consciousness.

The whole situation should be much more thoroughly studied than it has been as yet. Public statistical bureaus should gather details of the rooming-house districts. Public opinion should be aroused. The roomer must be given a social anchorage; the furniture sharks that prey upon the landlady should receive attention. The connection between lodging and prostitution should be studied more carefully. A public parlor should be demanded, even if it be made a prerequisite for a rooming-house license. The boarding-house should be brought back, and the café life resisted in every possible way. Fundamentally, at the bottom of these things are, of course, better education and better wages.

In the same magazine Eleanor H. Woods, of South End House, Boston, writes interestingly of the humanitarian efforts of certain movements in Boston for the social betterment in its lodging districts. A room registry organized at South End House three years ago for the assistance of patrons seeking rooms and to stimulate business methods among the housekeepers has attained a reasonable degree of success. A card catalogue of 150 houses is on file, containing information as to location, price, quality, etc. A charge of 10 cents is imposed for a list of available lodging-houses and a postal to be used if a room is secured by the applicant. Housekeepers are charged one-half a week's rent for a tenancy of three weeks; otherwise, 10 per cent. The neighborhoods are scrutinized carefully and disreputable people ejected. This registry serves as a source of information to patrons of the South End district, and labors for cleanliness and morality.

This writer advances hopefully a suggestion for "boarding club houses" for business women, something on the plan of a private house accommodating twelve or fifteen,

with two or three for household work. An experiment on this line worked successfully in Boston, and for women no longer in the youngest ranks the writer believes such a household would prove a strong attraction, and she advocates a series of houses so organized, under one general management. Free from domestic restrictions, and with relative home surroundings, such houses

would prove superior to the general run of lodging-houses, and would obviate the loss which women feel when "housed in caravansaries where social responsibilities are discouraged by the constant experience of being thrown with so many whom it is impossible to know, and yet in whose company all the significant home functions are daily practiced."

## CURIOUS LIFE CYCLES.

AS a study of possibilities in the way of manifestations of vital phenomena, the course of events that takes place in a series of generations of aphids is highly surprising to any one not familiar with the vagaries of nature in the byways of life.

A contribution to the study of life histories of these organisms is published by Dr. A. Mordwilko in a recent number of the *Biologisches Centralblatt* (Leipzig).

Among some of the more common forms of aphids the adults die in autumn and only their eggs are left, hidden in the ground, or under the bark of trees, to maintain the life of the species over winter. Next summer an aphid hatching from one of these eggs becomes the starting point for a series of generations that develop without wings and are unable to move far. All these live on the same plant and feed upon it until the plant begins to wither, as a result of their depredations, and there is a consequent scarcity of food.

Then the aphid shows its powers of rising to the emergency. A new set of eggs is produced that hatches into aphids with wings, and these insects fly away to a new, thrifty plant, where they settle down, and resume the old order of things just as their ancestors of some generations ago did a month or two before.

As the economic result of this, the crops are seriously affected and the farmer suffers such an appreciable loss that it becomes a matter of economy for him to employ the best measures at his command to combat the apparently insignificant enemy.

But the achievement of wings is especially interesting as an instance of a provision of nature for meeting adverse conditions. Wings do not appear at any definite time in the history of the species, but are called forth as a response to external conditions, usually

because the food supply is diminished for some reason, making it necessary for the aphids either to migrate or to die. Literally a case where the spur of adversity brings out latent powers.

The writer goes on to describe still more curious phases of development observed in the more complicated life histories of migrating species of aphids that change their location at different seasons of the year, certain generations spending the autumn and winter on a tree, perhaps, while succeeding generations become emigrants and travel to some herbaceous plant to spend the summer.

Among these there is a wingless form of aphid that takes up its abode underground on the roots of vines, where a continuous succession of generations develops until the approach of winter. Then, when the temperature sinks to about 10 degrees C., the insects become torpid in response to the cold. But during the summer, or in autumn, a new type of descendants appears, winged individuals, that leave their underground retreat for the parts of the vine growing above ground, where they deposit two kinds of eggs, large ones to develop into females, and small ones that will produce males. These insects die, and only the eggs retain their life over winter.

The following spring, a new order of events is inaugurated. From the newly hatched insects there descends a race of aphids that attack the leaves of the vines and cause the curious gall formations found on them. This continues until the last of summer, when the leaves begin to die, and then the aphids wander back to the roots, where they may change directly into the characteristic type that preys on the root, although it is impossible for the converse order of change, of root type directly into gall type of aphid, to take place.

# LEADING FINANCIAL ARTICLES.

## EXPERTS DECLARE THEIR CONFIDENCE.

**P**ERHAPS the first journalistic authority on financial matters is the *Economist* of London. It is reassuring to have the opinion of its editor, Francis W. Hirst, that our panic signified no general rottenness of conduct,—nothing more than a defect in method.

How is it that in the United States alone a collapse of paper values (which in other countries would be regarded with comparative indifference or possibly even welcomed as a sign of returning sanity) should end in a general stoppage of work, a paralysis of distributing agencies, a cash famine, and a general withdrawal from men of ample wealth and credit of the ordinary banking facilities?

After reviewing the few sensational disclosures which brought on the general crash, Mr. Hirst says: "A more deplorable condition of things could hardly exist, or one more injurious to the great majority of American banks, which are clean and sound."

If in every State there had been an official or semi-official bank with the State behind it,—with the kind of relation to other banks in that State which the Bank of England has to other English banks, or the Bank of Germany has to those of Germany, or the Bank of Amsterdam to those of Holland,—the panic-stricken depositors, instead of carrying their currency to safe deposits or hiding it under their beds, would have re-deposited it in the State bank, which would then have been able to afford ample and immediate succor to all sound institutions. The rest, which were not sound or solvent, would have gone very properly into the receivers' hands.

### AN OVER-EXPECTED PANIC.

"When Bismarck declared that 'the enemy who fixes a day for his attack is never dangerous,' he uttered a truth which is especially applicable to financial disturbances," says James W. Van Cleave, president of the National Association of Manufacturers, in *The Circle*. Mr. Van Cleave can find no signs that the depression of 1908 "will even remotely resemble those which came in 1818, 1837, 1857, 1873, or 1893."

Everybody who knows the causes of each of our panics, and who takes an intelligent survey of the present situation, will see that almost all those causes are missing now. To-day there is:

No recent great war (as the war of 1812-15 with England, which helped to bring the panic of 1818, or the civil conflict of 1861-65, which

was responsible for several of the factors which aided in precipitating the cataclysm of 1873) with its consequent destruction of property and derangement of industries.

No crop failure (as in 1837).

No railroad-building beyond the country's immediate needs (as in 1857 and in 1873).

No wildcat banking (as in 1818, 1837, and 1857).

No greenback endless chain or silver dilution of the currency (as in 1893) to draw gold out of the Treasury.

No adverse balance of trade (as in 1818, 1837, 1857, 1873, and 1893).

No gold drain to Europe (like we had in all those years) to meet debts of any kind.

No shortage in revenues (as in 1893 and some other panic times).

No menace of any sort or from any quarter (as there was in every one of those five panic years) to our country's monetary system.

### FROM AN ENGLISH BANKER.

Some solid comfort is extended to everybody interested in American stocks and bonds by an article in the *Nineteenth Century* of London. It is a personal opinion of peculiar interest, because it comes from J. W. Cross, an English banker of ten years' experience in New York City, during the tumultuous years of 1861-'71. Mr. Cross says:

It is just fifty years since I first became interested in American securities. I have known no other class of investments which have given more satisfactory results during these fifty years, taking the average prices they cost, the interest they have returned, and the average prices at which they can be sold, even at the panic quotations of to-day.

I can say of Wall Street, after ten years' experience there, that it is the most satisfactory place that I know to do business in, notwithstanding all its harassing ups and downs and its hustling. . . . The chief reason why lapses are more marked in New York is that New York is by far the biggest market in the world for stock transactions.

Let us never forget that while there has been a great deal of "simulated prosperity" in the United States, owing to overborrowing, there has at the same time been an increase in the productive power, and a development of real, efficient industrial activity, during the last ten years especially, such as the world has never seen before.

### THE COURAGE OF CORPORATIONS.

Give the corporations their due. They have been among America's most courageous,

most useful pioneers. Their cause is well defended by Major Henry L. Higginson in the *Atlantic Monthly*.

Who have built all the mills, the dams, the railroads, the tramways, the gas and electric works, and who have dug the mines? The corporations, made and managed by enterprising, able, thoughtful, patient men. Have they failed or succeeded? They have done both in many, many cases.

If, in the struggle for existence, bargains and railroad rates were made which seemed a hardship to the farmers, is it not fair to ask whence came these iron roadways and how the farmers would have marketed their crops without them? And, moreover, is there a railroad in our broad land that has not been forced to wade through dire distress, if not bankruptcy,—bankruptcy often repeated several times?

The wrecks of cattle companies in our Western States are laughing-stocks because a laugh is the sole return which the owners have ever had; yet the cowboys were paid their wages and the country ate the beef. If the truth were known, very many successful corporations have been built on the ruins of others, and, because the successors have reaped the harvest sown by the original men, they have prospered, but the return on the first and second capital taken together is not large.

After recounting the struggles of the Bell Telephone Company and the Steel Corporation, Major Higginson declares that "most of our great railroads and industrial enterprises have had the same history; and now to us older men who have seen money and hope and life sunk in these colossal tasks arises

strongly the wish that justice should be done to these men and to their numerous supporters, who have bought their bonds and shares, and have waited for returns,—too often in vain."

#### THE USE OF WALL STREET.

To set, on every important bond and share of stock, a price more accurate than the wisest man in the world could estimate by himself, and to set this price *in advance*, giving stock- and bond-holders ample warning of coming industrial changes,—that is the work of the nation's money barometer known as Wall Street. An editorial in the *New York Evening Post* has this to say on its value:

Wall Street has demonstrated again that it is the financial barometer of the nation. . . . When, during a long period, Wall Street is set foul, foul weather is certain to come.

It is of no avail to call Wall Street "hard names." Whether we like the individuals connected with it or not, the thing they do, in their united capacity, is both useful and indispensable. They bring to bear upon trade and finance a collective judgment which is more valuable than that of any one banker, merchant, manufacturer, or any one group of business men. . . . Hundreds of men, with thousands of millions at stake, give their nights and days to the closest scrutiny of the widest facts obtainable, and their inference, after comparing notes and checking off data, must be nearer the truth than that of observers less skilled.

#### MAKING MONEY WORK.

**P**EOPLE who have worked hard for their money, and who now want to work the money itself for all it will bring, are paying serious attention to such articles as *Munsey's Magazine* prints this month, under the title: "A Rare Opportunity for Making Investments."

For the small investor, with a few thousand or even a few hundred dollars,—so few that they must be made to earn every cent that can be squeezed out of them without undue risk,—the 1907 panic has created a rare opportunity.

Of course, it is useless to dodge the fact that the purchaser of any common railroad stock, or of most preferred industrials, is taking a risk. This article is helpful only to those who realize this fact, and who are looking for the least risk and the utmost possible extra gain.

It is utter folly for a small investor to think of buying stocks on margin. His only safe and prudent course is to purchase outright, paying in full for his securities, getting a certificate for them, and putting it carefully away. He can take as few or as many shares as he can pay for,

—a single share, if he so desires, and any broker will be glad to receive his order.

Nor must what is said here be interpreted as a recommendation to purchase any particular security or as a guaranty of profit to the investor. The advice must be accepted exactly as it is given,—in general terms. Securities are now selling at bargain prices and offer a rare opportunity to both large and small capitalists. This stock or that stock may go down still lower, and this investment or that investment may result in loss. No man can tell whether the bottom prices have been reached, or when they will be reached. Dividends, too, may be temporarily or even permanently reduced. Nevertheless, the chances are many to one that any standard American stock or bond purchased now, and held as an investment, will prove a satisfactory and remunerative acquisition.

The lists of railroad and industrial stocks which *Munsey's* suggests as "standard" are given on the next page, with the price and yield to the purchaser, corrected up to the going to press of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*.

## RAILROAD STOCKS.

	Price about. \$	Yield about. %
Atchison .....	73	8.2
Baltimore & Ohio .....	89	8.7
Chicago, Milwaukee, & St. Paul .....	115	8
Chicago & Northwestern .....	150	4.6
Delaware & Hudson .....	166	5.3
Great Northern .....	123	5.6
Illinois Central .....	131	5.3
Louisville & Nashville .....	101	5.9
New York Central .....	102	5.8
New York, New Haven, & Hartford .....	140	5.7
Norfolk & Western .....	68	7.3
Northern Pacific .....	124	5.6
Pennsylvania .....	116	6
Reading .....	100	3.6
Southern Pacific .....	76	7.8
Union Pacific .....	126	7.9

## INDUSTRIAL STOCKS.

American Car & Foundry (preferred) ..	90	7.7
American Locomotive (preferred) ..	91	7.6
American Smelting (preferred) ..	95	7.3
American Sugar (common) ..	113	6.1
General Electric ..	124	6.4
National Biscuit (preferred) ..	106	6.6
National Lead (preferred) ..	90	7.7
United States Steel (common) ..	30	6.6
United States Steel (preferred) ..	94	7.4
Virginia-Carolina Chemical (pref.) ..	93	8.6
Western Union Telegraph ..	59	8.4

## BONDS vs. STOCK.

The surest possible way, after all, if you want an income that is absolutely sure, is to buy the right kind of bonds,—not stocks. An experience in proof is told by George Carey in *The Outlook*:

A few years ago the stock of a great corporation was offered to the public at a price remarkably low, considering the fact that dividends were then being paid and rumors of their permanency were being circulated. Here is the actual experience of one investor in that stock. She,—for this particular person was a dressmaker in a small town, who had saved a few hundred dollars,—did not know what the word stock signified. But she did see, thanks to the "tips" of well-meaning friends, that the purchase of this particular stock meant an income of about 9 per cent.

Therefore, this woman, attracted by an extraordinary income, invested her savings in a mere possibility. The earning capacity of the stock was practically untested. Still, she bought in small amounts as it advanced in market price. Suddenly it began to decline, for, as the wise ones knew, its rise had been due to skillful manipulation. The woman, inspired still by well-meaning friends with "tips," continued to buy as the stock went down. When it had reached a point at which the income was about 20 per cent. on the investment the directors decreed a suspension of dividends for an indefinite period. Immediately the stock fell to something less than 10 per cent. of its par value. The poor dressmaker's savings were wiped out. She could not even borrow money, offering her comparatively worthless shares as collateral. No one wanted them.

Had this woman bought the bonds of the same company she would have had an assured income of about 5 per cent. per annum, and principal unimpaired. She could not watch the markets and buy and sell as speculators do, risking all for great profit or utter ruin. What she needed was safety of principal and peace of mind.

## PAY FOR STOCKS AND KEEP THEM.

The folly of trying for quick "turns" in the stock market,—selling out for the first small profit possible,—is strongly emphasized by no less a person than a stock broker himself in *The World To-Day*. Of course, nobody should buy stocks anyhow who cannot take risks, but depends on the income. And here comes "A member of the Chicago Stock Exchange," who, against his own interest, advises the small purchaser of stocks to pay cash for them, take them away, and keep them a year or two:

Is the present a favorable time for speculation in securities? For what is termed a "long pull," yes. Manipulation, which has been so marked a feature of the speculative market for the past three years, still continues, and the financial strength of these operators is so great that the market may be moved up or down a considerable number of points, even at times directly contrary to the general situation. I therefore believe that in the uncertainty which exists as to financial matters attempts at so-called "quick turns" in the market are not advisable.

One can, however, easily discover high-grade railroad and industrial stocks which, even should these companies be forced by a reaction in mercantile business to reduce their dividends, would still bring a good return on the prices at which to-day they may be bought. With a Presidential year ahead of us we can not expect much expansion, but it is generally conceded that the fundamental conditions of the country are such that we are not apt to have a protracted period of depression.

With fair crops in 1908, and the election out of the way, the country should rouse again to activity in commercial and manufacturing lines, under which condition, coupled with a normal money situation, much higher prices for securities will doubtless be seen.

## THE FIRST TO RISE IN PRICE.

It is the high grade bonds and the preferred railroad stocks that will be the first to rise from panic prices, according to the scientific argument of Byron W. Holt, editor of *Moody's Magazine*. The boom in railroad common stocks and industrials will follow. Mr. Holt's opinion is based on the likelihood of a plentiful money supply during the first half of 1908. Also, this is "what ordinarily happens after a panic. First, the most secure securities rise; then the less secure securities rise; and finally, when earnings are best, the insecure securities rise."

Now the "most secure" are evidently (1) Railroad bonds directly secured; (2) other bonds of sound railroad companies; (3) preferred railroad stocks, whose dividend must be paid before any dividends on the common stock.

Not only will hoarded money be invested in good securities, but large amounts of money will be withdrawn from savings banks and put into these securities. By next June the rise in this class of securities may be pretty well over and the tide of investment will then turn to the less secure grades of securities,—

the common stocks of railroads and the preferred and, in some instances, the common stocks of the industrials.

The following tables of prices and yields of bonds and preferred stocks will give investors an idea of the great bargains now to be had in the "most secure" securities:

## HIGH GRADE RAILROAD BONDS.

Name of bonds.	High price in 1906.	Low price in 1907.	Late prices.	Yield per cent.
Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé guaranteed 4s, 1905.....	104½	80½	96	4.21
Atlantic Coast Line 1st 4s, 1962.....	102½	82	88	4.80
Baltimore & Ohio preferred 3½s, 1925.....	97½	85½	91	4.38
Chesapeake & Ohio consolidated 5s, 1939.....	119½	101	107½	4.41
Chicago, Burlington & Quincy, Illinois Division, 3½s, 1949.....	95½	82½	86	4.41
Missouri, Kansas & Texas 1st 4s, 1990.....	103	89½	94	4.33
Norfolk & Western Consolidated 4s, 1906.....	102½	86	92½	4.41
Reading general 4s, 1997.....	102½	86½	93	4.38
Southern Pacific refunding 4s, 1955.....	97½	82	88	4.78
Union Pacific consolidated 4s, 1946.....	102	78½	84½	5.11
Wabash 1st 5s, 1939.....	119	99½	105½	4.61

## GOOD RAILROAD BONDS.

Name of bonds.	High price in 1906.	Low price in 1907.	Late prices.	Yield per cent.
Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé adjustable 4s, 1995.....	97½	77	83	5.01
Baltimore & Ohio general 4s, 1948.....	105½	88	96½	4.22
Central Railroad of Georgia consolidated 5s, 1945.....	114½	85	98	5.12
Colorado & Southern 1st 4s, 1929.....	96½	75	82½	5.64
Delaware & Hudson consolidated 4s, 1916.....	112½	88	95	4.83
Lake Shore debenture 4s, 1928.....	101½	83	88½	5.04
Northern Pacific general 3s, 2047.....	78½	62½	68½	5.18
Pennsylvania convertible 3½s, 1912.....	105½	86½	91½	5.77
Pennsylvania convertible 3½s, 1915.....	101	83½	88½	5.53
Union Pacific convertible 4s, 1927.....	...	78½	85	5.70

## PREFERRED RAILROAD STOCKS.

Name of stock.	Dividend rate. Per cent.	High price in 1906.	Low price in 1907.	Late prices.	Yield per cent.	Margin of safety.* per cent.
Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé.....	5	108	78½	84½	5.93	13.10
Chicago, Milwaukee, & St. Paul.....	7	218	130	125½	5.56	21.78
Chicago & North Western.....	8	240	126	137½	5.81	63.52
Colorado & Southern 1st.....	4	73½	41	41½	7.73	18.50
Great Northern.....	7	348	107½	117½	5.94	7.55
Missouri, Kansas, & Texas.....	4	76	53	56½	7.05	24.33
Reading 1st.....	4	96	78	78	5.13	25.60
Southern Pacific.....	7	120½	100	106½	6.58	27.49
Union Pacific.....	4	99½	75	78	5.00	31.02

\* This means the ratio of the surplus earnings (after paying the preferred dividend) to the amount of the preferred stock. Thus the Missouri, Kansas & Texas has sufficient earnings to pay its preferred dividend six times more; the Chicago, Milwaukee, & St. Paul three times more, etc.

## THE VALUE OF A BANKER.

GO to your banker as you go to your doctor or your lawyer,—before things happen. If you wait till after you invest, it may be too late. It is nothing to be ashamed of, that the average busy man or woman may lack the professional training to distinguish a legitimate opportunity from an unscrupulously offered fraud.

An anecdote to this effect is told by George Carey in *The Outlook* under the title "Investing Money":

In a small Western town there lives to-day a young widow whose husband, a physician, died a few years ago, leaving her a home and some \$40,000 in life insurance. It so chanced that this young woman was wholly unfamiliar with financial matters. A friend of her husband, a man

destined to become later a great financier and world-builder, called upon her. To him she confided her perplexities. Then this man, simply, as great men speak, made clear to her the essential principles of investment. Doubtless he was all unconscious of laying down rules. Yet this is what he said: "Mrs. Blank, you must place your money where the safety of your principal is assured. That is the first consideration. You should also be able to exercise control over your principal,—that is, to convert it, or at least a part of it, into cash with readiness should occasion arise. Finally, we must find for you securities that will return the largest possible income consistent with the first two requirements, and that promise to increase in market value, under normal conditions."

These principles are fundamental. They should be applied to the selection of any form of investment whatsoever.

## BANKER AND INVESTOR INTRODUCED.

It is even more important for the small investor than for the capitalist to get into touch with the right kind of a banking-house. An introduction of some sort was helpful to the average stranger who came into Wall Street last winter, to choose among the many stock and bond bargains.

"In a good many cases," says an article in the *World's Work*, "he made the mistake of sending his money by mail to some widely advertised, clever, alluring brokerage house with no reputation except the one it gave itself by advertising in untrustworthy newspapers and equally untrustworthy periodicals. But in the large majority of cases he made no mistakes. He knew what he wanted: he knew what he would pay: he found out the right place to go. In a very large proportion of cases he came himself, bringing his money on his person."

If he had been in the Street before, he came with a letter of introduction from his banker. Without it he found the best and most satisfactory houses in Wall Street closed to him. For, strange as it may seem, many houses demand such an introduction even from the man who carries specie or bills with him to pay for what he buys. In times of panic, such as the first week or so in November, checks on out-of-town banks were not accepted in payment unless certified. Dozens of men came into town to make purchases and went back without them, merely because they had failed to realize the necessities of the case.

Every small investor intending to buy stocks or bonds should see to it that these little preliminaries are observed. If he has a connection with a good banker, then he is all right. His checks need not be certified except in actual panic, when banks are under suspicion. But if

he has to make a connection, he should first select his banker with the most minute care; then bring or send a good introduction; then clinch the argument of good standing by paying for his purchases in certified checks or in cash. Under such circumstances he will be a welcome and honored customer in any good banking-house.

## THE BANKER OR THE TIPSTER?

Sharp and bitter is apt to be the correction of those who spend their capital at the bidding of any but a responsible banker. An amazing case in proof is the actual record of the most brilliant and powerful of all advertising tipsters, Thomas W. Lawson, of Boston. In *Success*, Frank Fayant writes:

Lawson has traded in copper shares for thirty years; he has bought and sold more copper shares than any other man in the world. He has bought and sold copper mines; he has investigated 2000 copper-mining propositions; he has sold many millions of dollars of copper shares to the public; and he has put the bulk of his own fortune into these shares. He is a recognized copper authority in Boston, the home of the copper industry. "If there is one thing I know," says he, "it is copper."

The actual price per share of Amalgamated, a stock largely dealt in by the outside public on Mr. Lawson's say-so, rose from \$43 a share in 1904 to \$121 in January, 1907,—and dropped to \$41 by October. But "Mr. Lawson cried 'Sell!' all the way up, and, turning at the very top of the copper boom, cried 'Buy!' all the way down. It is probably the worst record any prophet has ever made."

In justice Mr. Fayant explains that Mr. Lawson was himself deceived, through expecting a new invention to lower the price of copper. The invention didn't work.

## SIGNS OF THE TIMES.

**E**XACTLY what is happening to American business, now that the panic has passed, is plainly pointed out by those national news items which financiers always watch keenly as signs of the times. Just now, business men, and investors generally, find them of peculiar importance. Below the latest of them are summarized and compared with former periods,—pig iron output from *The Iron Age*; bank clearings and railroad gross earning from the *Financial Chronicle* and the *Wall Street Journal*, and business failures from *Dun's Review*. Taken together, they look as if the worst was over.

## PIG IRON.

Pig iron production is at its lowest for seven years past, excepting only one period at the beginning of 1904. In December it sank nearly one-third below November, and nearly one-half below December, 1907.

	Dec., 1907.	Nov., 1907.	Dec., 1906.
Total tons for United States .....	1,234,279	1,828,125	2,236,153

## BANK CLEARINGS.

As far as may be judged from the falling off in bank clearings compared with last year, the nation is cutting down its trade by about



one-fifth. New York City clearings, in the table below, appear to have shrunk much more than a fifth, but part or all of this shrinkage is accounted for by the slackness in speculation on the New York stock exchanges,—not by any contraction in real industry.

	New York City.	All other cities.
Decrease from 1907 figures.	Per cent.	Per cent.
Week ending January 4, 1908.....	37.2	19.9
Week ending January 11, 1908.....	37.2	16.6
Week ending January 18, 1908.....	19.7	18.4

The situation becomes plainer if one glances at the latest detailed figures obtainable, which follow. They show that so far from falling off one-fifth, or 20 per cent., Chicago and St. Louis show losses of less than 6 per cent. and 9 per cent., respectively. Only Boston and New Orleans lost as much as New York.

	1908.	1907.	Decrease.
Week ending January 18.			Per cent.
New York.....	\$1,468,736,052	\$1,828,621,307	19.7
Boston.....	149,483,388	199,956,201	25.1
Philadelphia.....	107,249,313	124,457,769	13.8
Baltimore.....	22,069,619	25,103,766	12.1
Chicago.....	189,933,377	201,210,340	5.9
St. Louis.....	54,137,823	59,410,667	8.9
New Orleans.....	17,560,669	22,040,714	20.3
Seven cities, 5 days.....	\$2,008,610,241	\$2,560,500,764	21.6
Other cities, 5 days.....	352,076,298	426,748,294	17.5
Total all cities, 5 days.....	\$2,360,686,539	\$2,987,249,058	21.0
All cities, 1 day (estimated.).....	450,118,926	455,820,669	1.3
Total all cities for week.....	\$2,810,805,465	\$3,443,069,727	18.4

## RAILROAD EARNINGS.

Railroad earnings are falling off very badly. Although the "gross" figures below for December are only 4.37 per cent. behind those of a year before, the actual loss to the railroads in net income will be more than 10 per cent. during December, since operating expenses are eating up about 10 per cent. more of the gross earnings this year.

Month of	1907.	1906.	Per
December,			cent.
Gross earnings.			
(50 roads).....	\$67,856,800	\$70,953,201	\$3,096,401 4.37

Even more depressing is the record for the first week of January. The first thirteen roads reporting earned 14 per cent. less than they did in the same period of 1907. The wise railroad management meets this slackening by cutting down expenses, laying off crews, and postponing improvements, until passengers and freight stir more actively.

## COMMERCIAL FAILURES.

Commercial failures made 1907 a bad year, but there have been worse. Many more firms went under than during 1906, but not as many as in 1904, 1903, or in any one of the six years ending with 1898. The total amount of money lost, however, was less than in 1893 or 1906. Another cheerful fact is that the final sources of our wealth,—farm products,—are valued for 1907 at 10 per cent. more than in 1906. Most of the 1907 trouble seems to have come from too much manufacturing; \$106,000,000 was lost this way, as against only \$45,000,000 during 1906.

## COMMERCIAL FAILURES FOR FIFTEEN YEARS.

Year.	No.	Liabilities.	Average.
1907.....	11,725	\$197,385,225	\$16,134
1906.....	10,682	119,201,515	11,159
1905.....	11,520	102,676,172	8,912
1904.....	12,199	144,202,311	11,820
1903.....	12,069	155,444,185	12,879
1902.....	11,615	117,476,769	10,114
1901.....	11,002	113,092,376	10,279
1900.....	10,774	138,496,673	12,854
1899.....	9,337	90,879,889	9,733
1898.....	12,186	130,662,899	10,722
1897.....	13,351	154,332,071	11,559
1896.....	15,088	226,036,134	14,992
1895.....	13,197	173,196,060	13,124
1894.....	13,885	172,992,856	12,458
1893.....	15,242	346,779,889	22,751

## STARTING THE WHEELS SLOWLY.

Although at last business men are able to borrow the money they need to run their wheels of manufacturing and trade, they are not starting up with a rush. *Bradstreet's* of January 11 says that "Industry is, as a whole, on short time."

On January 18, the reports to this journal show "improvement in collections. A survey of the entire situation, financial, commercial and industrial, indicates improvement along conservative lines, although it is probable that a relatively smaller volume of spring trade will be done."

Many important cases are reported of resumption: the American Tin Plate Company mills at Newcastle, the Pittsburg Steel Company plant at Glassport, a number of factories in Cincinnati, and some mills in Buffalo. In Chicago, the steel, wire, brass, wood, and leather working concerns generally have reopened.

These instances are significant. Collections are better than in December. But, on the whole, "jobbers report trade quiet, and merchants disposed to reduce stocks rather than anticipate requirements."

## THE NEW BOOKS.

### NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

#### NEW VOLUMES OF HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY.

A new history of the United States and its people is projected by the Harpers. Five volumes of the twenty-six which will complete the enterprise have already been issued. The series is entitled "The American Nation: A History, from Original Materials by Associated Scholars." The editor of the series, Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart, declares in the introduction to the first volume that the work is to treat "the people combined into a political organization, with a national tradition, a national purpose, and a national character." Each volume is to be written by an expert for laymen, and to contain a portrait of some man especially eminent within the field covered. The titles of the volumes already issued will indicate the general viewpoint of the entire series. The first is "European Background of American History," and is written by Dr. Edward Potts Cheyney, of the chair of history in the University of Pennsylvania. Professor Cheyney, assuming that American civilization is a transplanted growth, believes it necessary to a true understanding of our national history to consider European conditions. "The Basis of American History" is the title of the second volume, by Dr. Livingston Farrand, professor of anthropology at Columbia. It consists of a review of the physical features of North America as influencing the history of our people. Volume III. is entitled "Spain in America," and is by Dr. Edward Gaylord Bourne (history, Yale). It includes not only an account of the discovery and exploration of our continent by the Spaniards, but a full consideration of the entire Spanish colonial system. Volume IV., "England in America," is by President Lyon Gardiner Tyler, of William and Mary College. It treats of the early, formative period in our national history. Volume V. is by Dr. Charles McLean Andrews (history, Johns Hopkins), and is entitled "Colonial Self-Government."

"The New Harmony Movement" is the somewhat ambiguous title given to a volume by George B. Lockwood (Appletons). In the interest of clearness we can assure the reader that the work has no reference to any new movement in the direction of sociological harmony, but is entirely concerned with the history of two important communities which had their seat at the village of New Harmony, Ind. The first of these was the settlement of the Rappites, early in the nineteenth century, which after ten years gave place to the society founded by Robert Owen. Both of these were exceedingly interesting social and industrial experiments. In connection with the Owen community especially there were educational features of unusual interest. It is claimed for the New Harmony community that it was a pioneer in the establishment of infant schools, kinder-

gartens, trade schools, and industrial schools as a part of the free public-school system.

A noteworthy contribution to American scholarship has just appeared in the posthumous history of "The Mongols" (Little, Brown & Co.), by Jeremiah Curtin, with a sympathetic introduction by President Roosevelt. The late Jeremiah Curtin, one of the most remarkable of modern linguists and a deep student of Asiatic as well as eastern European history, de-



THE LATE JEREMIAH CURTIN.

voted a great portion of the last years of his life to a study of the origin, development, history, and disappearance of the Mongols as a world power. He had just completed his work when death terminated his career. In the work just issued, which is one of two in which the sum of his studies on this subject will be published, he considers the campaigns and conquests of Jenghis Khan and his successors in China, Russia, Arabia, and Persia, bringing the narrative down to the first part of the fifteenth century. A second book, to be entitled "Russia Under the Mongols," will appear later. Besides his translations of the great novels of Henrik Sienkiewicz, it will be remembered that Mr. Curtin was author of a number of works with early historical, mythological, and folk-lore subjects, including: "The Myths and Folk-Lore of Ireland," "Hero Tales of Ireland," "Myths and Folk-Tales of the Russians, Western Slavs, and Magyars,"

"Creation Myths of Primitive America," and others.

A new edition of Dr. Lewis H. Morgan's "Ancient Society" has been brought out in clear, readable type by Holt.

Appropos of the centennial anniversary of Fulton's successful application of steam to navigation and also of the coming celebration of the tercentenary of Henry Hudson's discovery of the great river which bears his name, a little volume entitled "Old Steamboat Days on the Hudson River," by David Lear Buckman, has

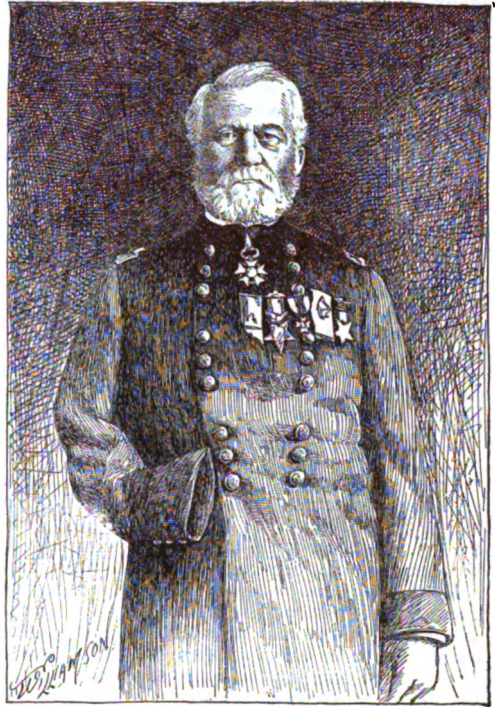


ROBERT FULTON.

(First of the Hudson River steamboat men.)

been issued by the Grafton Press, of New York. This volume is full of entertaining reminiscences and anecdotes relating to the development of steam navigation, with full descriptions of the various mechanical improvements that have been introduced in recent years. Although these improvements have been noteworthy, it is somewhat surprising to the reader who has never before investigated the matter that boats of fifty years ago had records for speed that are only slightly surpassed by their successors of to-day. Steamboating in those days was a far more exciting calling than it is to-day, and the 150 miles of river between New York and Albany had its full share of romance.

A scholarly history of "The Navy of the American Revolution" has been prepared by Dr. Charles O. Paullin (Cleveland: The Burrows Brothers Company). In all other histories of our Revolutionary navy the narrative is practically confined to the movements of the ships at sea and the details of the naval battles. In the present work the point of view adopted is



GEN. O. O. HOWARD.

that of administration. It was truly a task worthy of modern historical scholarship to bring into our view the actual administrative machinery of the Revolutionary navy. To do this it was necessary to review and analyze the work of naval committees, secretaries of marine, navy boards, and naval agents. In this volume Dr. Paullin has narrated not only the history of the continental navy, but has included in the scope of his history the separate navies of the individual States.

The autobiography of Oliver Otis Howard, in two volumes (New York: The Baker & Taylor Company), contains, besides the personal experiences of Major-General Howard, a full account of many of the most important military movements of the Civil War, together with narratives of a number of Indian campaigns in the West. General Howard's personality has for many years been a familiar one in this country outside of military circles because of his wide and active interest in religious and philanthropic movements. His autobiography embraces much material bearing on these various lines of endeavor.

"The Life and Correspondence of James McHenry," by Dr. Bernard C. Steiner (Cleveland: The Burrows Brothers Company), gives the life record of a surgeon upon Washington's staff who in later years served as Secretary of War under both Washington and Adams. Dr. McHenry was never characterized either by his contemporaries or by more recent historians as one of the great men of the Revolutionary period, but he enjoyed an intimate personal acquaintance with Washington, Hamilton, Lafayette, and

many other leading spirits of that era. His correspondence, most of which now sees the light for the first time, contains many important references to persons and events that have long since become historic. A striking feature of the book is its frontispiece, which is a reproduction in color of a miniature painting of George Washington now owned by the heirs of Dr. McHenry.

A biography of the second Napoleon, which has been properly entitled "The King of Rome," comes to us from the Knickerbocker Press. It is by Victor von Kubinyi, and is a historical study of the brief career and historic background of the unfortunate child of the great Napoleon. The volume is made additionally interesting by a number of supplements, which include a genealogy of the house of Bonaparte, tracing the descent to the Hon. Charles J. Bonaparte, at present Attorney-General of the United States. A number of other portraits are added.

#### SOCIOLOGY AND ECONOMICS.

Principal Booker T. Washington, of Tuskegee, has written an informing book on "The Negro in Business" (Chicago: Hertel, Jenkins & Co.). In his travels through the country Mr. Washington has become acquainted with many colored men and women engaged in various lines of business and illustrating in their careers the opportunities and possibilities open to that people in their various lines of endeavor. In this book he enumerates many of these instances for the purpose of encouraging other men and women of the race to win success in similar business channels. Some of the industrial communities organized by negroes in the South are described at length, and there is a helpful discussion of the general subject of industrial education and of the negro's commercial and social relations with the South bearing directly on his business activity.

Chancellor James Roscoe Day, of Syracuse University, in a volume entitled "The Raid on Prosperity" (Appletons), attempts a defense of the Standard Oil Company and other corporations charged at the present time with unethical practices in their methods of conducting business. Chancellor Day believes that the Government at Washington has been guilty of acts "unwarranted by our Constitution and in their tendency destructive to our liberties and the progress of our commerce." "A lawmaking, court-controlling executive department, a government by commissions, a personal construction of the Constitution," he declares, "is not a republic."

In the series of prize essays in economics which owes its existence to the generosity of Messrs. Hart, Schaffner, and Marx, of Chicago, one of the most timely monographs is that contributed by Dr. Albert N. Merritt on the subject of "Federal Regulation of Railway Rates" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Dr. Merritt believes that federal control of rates is necessary in this country and presents a rational plan for such control. Another topic treated in this series is "Ship Subsidies." Mr. Walter T. Dunmore, instructor in the Western Reserve Law School, has investigated the policy of subsidizing merchant marines. A good bibliography accompanies Mr. Dunmore's essay.

In the "Citizen's Library" (Macmillan) a

very useful handbook on "International Commercial Policies" has been compiled by Prof. George M. Fisk, of the University of Illinois. This volume covers the whole range of tariffs, customs, reciprocity, trade promotion, and navigation. The material is arranged upon a wholly new plan, which has special reference to the needs of the student and the general reader.

#### MUSIC.

Two recently issued histories of music approach the subject from different view-points. The notes for a philosophical music left by the late John K. Paine (Harvard), bringing the subject down to Schubert, have been collected and edited by Albert A. Howard and brought out in a volume (Ginn) entitled "The History of Music to the Death of Schubert." It is much to be regretted that Professor Paine did not live to carry out his scholarly idea of what a history of music should be. Dr. Waldo Selden Pratt, who occupies the chair of music and hymnology in the Hartford Theological Seminary, on the other hand, has made his "History of Music" (G. Schirmer, New York) a handbook and guide for students. It contains helpful illustrations, and is so arranged typographically as to make the information it contains very accessible.

Three new numbers in the Musician's Library, being issued by Oliver Ditson, are "Twenty Piano Compositions by Franz Joseph Haydn, edited by Xaver Scharwenka; "Wagner Lyrics for Baritone and Bass," edited by Carl Armbruster, and "The Piano Compositions of Johann Sebastian Bach," in two volumes, edited by Ebenezer Prout.

Two little descriptive and interpretive volumes on music of recent issue are "The Appreciation of Music," being a course of study for schools, colleges, and the general reader, edited (Novello) by Thomas Whitney Surette and Daniel Gregory Mason, and "Half-Hour Lessons in Music" (in the Music Student's Library, issued by Ditson), by Mrs. Hermann Kotschmar.

Volume III. of the "Music-Lover's Calendar," edited by Henri J. van den Berg, comes to us from Breitkopf and Härtel. This number is pleasantly illustrated with portraits and other illustrations.

A useful handbook for the opera and concert goer is Lawrence Gilman's "Stories of Symphonic Music" (Harper), offering in book form information which will conduce to the intelligent hearing of orchestral and other music. Mr. Filson Young, also, has prepared a suggestive volume of "The Wagner Stories" (McClure, Phillips), while Mr. S. H. Hamer has treated the same subject from a more strictly musical viewpoint in his little volume with colored illustrations, "The Story of 'the Ring'" (Dodd, Mead).

#### REFERENCE BOOKS.

The development of the work of reference to its highest form of usefulness is one of the characteristics of modern publishing. Many valuable text-books of reference are appearing constantly from presses of this country and Europe. Among the less pretentious works of this kind, but eminently useful in their character, are two works of historical tabulation and a fine monograph on the commercial plants of the world. From Holt we have the "Atlas of European



History," compiled by Earle W. Dow, junior professor of history in the University of Michigan. This excellent work gives a history,—for the first time in English, we believe,—almost exclusively by maps and charts, of the different peoples of Europe. The most authoritative of the larger special atlases, Dr. Dow tells us, were consulted in the preparation of this volume. A new edition of Mr. George Palmer Putnam's "Tabular Views of Universal History" (Putnam's) consists of a series of chronological tables presenting in parallel columns a record of the noteworthy events in the world's history from the earliest times down to 1907. The new edition contains a number of important features. "The World's Commercial Products" is the title given to a handsome illustrated, descriptive account (391 pages in quarto) of the economic plants of the world and their commercial uses. The work is compiled by Mr. W. G. Freeman and Mr. S. E. Chandler, of the Imperial Institute, London, and brought out by Ginn & Co. The title would indicate that the world's commercial products of a mineral and animal nature will be treated in later volumes.

The second volume of the Catholic Encyclopedia (New York: Robert Appleton & Co.), including articles in the first two letters of the alphabet, tends to confirm the impression as to the scholarship and conservatism of its editors made by the first volume. It is a valuable work of reference for all matters of Catholic doctrine, discipline, and history, and although Protestants will be inclined to take issue with some of its statements of fact, there is slight ground for fault-finding with regard to the spirit in which matters of controversy are treated. The use of this work should tend to dissipate erroneous opinions held by non-Catholics and to break down unwarranted prejudice. The work has a value not only for Catholics, but for the general reader of whatever religious belief.

A useful work which is in some danger of being mistaken by the layman for a technical law treatise because of its sheep binding and legal title, "Commercial Precedents" (Hartford: American Publishing Company), is made up of the replies and decisions printed from time to time in the *New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin* under the editorship of Mr. Charles Putzel, of the New York bar, who is one of the tax commissioners for Greater New York. Mr. Putzel has accomplished the difficult task of compiling a work on this subject which is applicable to conditions in all the States of the Union. It is an indispensable work of reference for every business man. Every-day law questions, such as could not from the nature of the case be conveniently submitted to an attorney, are here answered clearly, fully, and authoritatively.

A new legal work of more than ordinary importance is "A Treatise on the Law of Naturalization of the United States," by Frederick Van Dyne, American consul in Jamaica (Washington: published by the author). Recent sweeping changes in our laws, which practically revolutionize the methods of naturalization and place the matter under the control of the central bu-

reau in the Department of Commerce and Labor at Washington, have rendered necessary a work of this character. Mr. Van Dyne's treatise is strongly commended by Prof. John Bassett Moore, of Columbia University, and by other eminent law authorities. Mr. Van Dyne is the author of a work on "Citizenship of the United States" and an accepted authority on the subject.

#### BOOKS OF VARIED INTEREST.

Two volumes of particular interest to students of biology are: "The Nature and Origin of Life" (A. S. Barnes & Co.), being a translation by Stoddard Dewey from the French of Prof. Felix le Dantec, who is a member of the faculty of the Sorbonne; and "Plant Breeding" (Open Court Publishing Company), being comments on the experiments of Nilsson and Burbank, by Dr. Hugo de Vries, professor of botany in the University of Amsterdam.

The result of the investigations in psychological research made by European savants during the past decade has been summarized and graphically set forth by that poetic French astronomer, Camille Flammarion, in a large volume entitled "Mysterious Psychic Forces" (Small, Maynard & Co.). A number of diagrams and other illustrations supplement the text.

A pleasantly told "literary journey" by Katharine Lee Bates (professor of English at Wellesley College) appears from the press of T. Y. Crowell & Co., under the title from "Gretna Green to Lands End."

Three brochures recently issued by Susanna Cocroft are: "Ideals and Privileges of Woman," "Growth in Silence," and "Character as Expressed in the Body." The last title gives the keynote to the three, which are styled the "Know Thyself" series. These brochures are published by the Physical Culture Extension Society (Chicago).

The really remarkable dramatic work of Gabriel d'Annunzio which created, a year or so ago, such a commotion in Italy,—*"The Daughter of Jorio,"*—has been translated from the Italian by Charlotte Porter and brought out by Little, Brown & Co. It is a tragedy of the country of Abruzzi, that corner of Italy to which "ever clings an elemental savor of the savage blood of the ancient race."

The poems of Robert Bruce, complete in three volumes,—under the titles "Leaves of Gold," "Wanderers," and "Scottish Poems,"—have been brought out by the Bryant Union Company in New York.

A collection of touching and impressive "Stories of Jewish Home Life," translated from the German by S. H. Mosenthal, has been brought out by the Jewish Publication Society.

Mr. John L. Given's "Making a Newspaper" (Holt) is a detailed account of the business, editorial, reportorial, and manufacturing organization of a large city daily. Mr. Given was recently a member of the staff of the *New York Evening Sun*, and has run the gamut of all he tells us. Some anecdotes and actual experiences add to the interest of the volume.

## OTHER BOOKS RECEIVED.

- Abnormal Christians. By Charles Roads. Jennings & Graham.
- Alarcon's El Sombrero de Tres Picos. Edited by Benjamin F. Bourland. Holt.
- American Jewish Year Book, 1907-1908. Jewish Publication Society.
- American Liberal Education. By Andrew F. West. Scribners.
- American Scene, The. By Henry James. Harpers.
- Andrew Jackson. By William G. Brown. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
- Aristocracy of Health, The. By Mary F. Henderson. Harpers.
- Automobilist Abroad, The. By Francis Miltoun. L. C. Page & Co.
- Bible for Young People, The. Century.
- Black Trail of Anthracite, The. By S. R. Smith. Kingston, Pa.
- British Colonial Policy, 1754-1765. By G. L. Beer. Macmillan.
- British State Telegraphs. By Hugo R. Meyer. Macmillan.
- By-Ways of Virginia History. By R. H. Early. Everett Waddey Company, Richmond, Va.
- Campaigning with Grant. By Gen. Horace Porter. Century.
- Captain Lettarblair. By Marguerite Merington. Bobbs-Merrill.
- Carrier Crisis, The. By Augustine Gallagher. F. J. Heer, Columbus, Ohio.
- Cathedral Cities of France. By Herbert Marshall. Dodd, Mead & Co.
- Causes of the Panic of 1893. By W. Jett Lauck. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
- Chemistry of Commerce, The. By Robert K. Duncan. Harpers.
- Christianity and Modern Culture. By Charles G. Shaw. Jennings & Graham.
- Chronological and Alphabetical Record of the Engagements of the Civil War. By Charles R. Cooper. Caxton Press, Milwaukee.
- Confessions of a Monopolist, The. By Frederic C. Howe. Public Publishing Company, Chicago.
- Conflict and Victory. By William S. Cochrane. Jennings & Graham.
- Currency and Coin. By Richard B. Pullan. New York.
- Darwinism To-day. By Vernon L. Kellogg. Holt.
- Declaration of Independence, Its History. By John H. Hazelton. Dodd, Mead & Co.
- Documentary History of Reconstruction. (2 volumes.) By Walter L. Fleming. Arthur H. Clark Company, Cleveland.
- English Patents of Monopoly. By William H. Price. Houghton, Mifflin.
- Englishwoman in the Philippines, An. By Mrs. Campbell Dauncey. Dutton.
- Enterprise and the Productive Process. By Frederick B. Hawley. Putnam.
- Factory Legislation in Pennsylvania. By J. Lynn Barnard. John C. Winston Co., Philadelphia.
- Familiar Letters of James Lowell. (2 volumes.) Houghton, Mifflin.
- Fitz Randolph Traditions. By L. V. F. Randolph. New Jersey Historical Society.
- Florence and Northern Tuscany. By Edward Hutton. Macmillan.
- Franklin Year Book, The. By Wallace Rice. A. C. McClurg & Co.
- French Syntax and Composition. By W. U. Vreeland and William Koren. Holt.
- Friendly Chat About Mind Reading, A. By Page A. Cochran. Essex Junction, Vt.
- From Poverty to Power. By James Allen. Science Press, Chicago.
- Gaining Health in the West. By George B. Price. Huebsch.
- Gettysburg and Lincoln. By Henry S. Burrage. Putnam.
- Handy Book of Card Games. By Belle M. Walker. Crowell.
- Handy Book of Synonyms. Crowell.
- Herbert and Froebel: An Attempt at Synthes's. By Percival Richard Cole. Teachers' College, Columbia University.
- Heritage of Life, The. By James Buckham. Jennings & Graham.
- History of Ancient Civilisation. By Charles Seignobos. Scribner.
- History of Modern England. (Vol. V.) By Herbert Paul. Macmillan.
- Houses for Town or Country. By William Herbert. Duffield.
- Industrial Conflict, The. By Samuel G. Smith. Revell.
- Industrial Education. By Harlow S. Person. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
- Introduction to the English Historians. By Charles A. Beard. Macmillan.
- Labor and Capital. By Goldwin Smith. Macmillan.
- Law: Its Origin, Growth and Function. By J. C. Carter. Putnam.
- Life of Chief Justice Ellis Lewis. By Burton A. Konkle. Campion & Co., Philadelphia.
- Limit of Wealth. By Alfred L. Hutchinson. Macmillan.
- Lord Randolph Churchill. By Lord Rosebery. Harpers.
- Maine's Ancient Law. (Fourth edition.) Holt.
- Many-Sided Roosevelt, The. By George W. Douglas. Dodd, Mead & Co.
- Nature's Own Gardens. By Maud U. Clarke. Dutton.
- New Creations in Plant Life. By W. S. Harwood. Macmillan.
- New Method for Caesar, A. By Franklin H. Potter. B. H. Sanborn, Boston.
- One Hundred and One Desserts. By May E. Southworth. Paul Elder & Co.
- One Hundred and One Oyster Recipes. By May E. Southworth. Paul Elder & Co.
- Oxford and the Rhodes Scholarships. By R. F. Scholz and S. K. Hornbeck. Henry Frowde, New York.
- Paradoxes of Nature and Science. By W. Hampson. Dutton.
- Pathways to the Best. By Charles L. Goodell, D.D. Funk & Wagnalls.
- Peace Given as the World Giveth. By John Bigelow. Baker & Taylor Co.
- Personal Forces in Modern Literature. By Arthur Rickett. Dutton.
- Personal Hygiene. By Walter L. Pyle. W. B. Saunders Company, Philadelphia.
- Pestalozzian Movement in the United States. By Will S. Monroe. C. W. Bardeen, Syracuse, N. Y.
- Physiology and Hygiene for Children. By Robert Eadie and Andrew Eadie. University Publishing Company, New York.
- Powers of the American People, Congress, President, and Courts. By Masuji Miyakawa. Wilkens-Shelby Company, Washington.
- Practical Guide for Authors, A. By William S. Booth. Houghton, Mifflin.
- Progress in the Household. By Lucy M. Salmon. Houghton, Mifflin.
- Public Ownership and the Telephone in Great Britain. By Hugo R. Meyer. Macmillan.
- Quest of the Colonial, The. By Robert and Elizabeth Shackleton. Century.
- Racial Integrity. By A. H. Shannon, Nashville, Tenn.
- Railroad Situation. By L. W. Serrell. Moody Corporation, New York.
- Re-birth of Religion. By Algernon S. Crapsey. John Lane Company.
- San Francisco and Thereabout. By Charles Keeler. A. M. Robertson, San Francisco.
- Sixty Years with Plymouth Church. By Stephen M. Griewold. Revell.
- Spring Fortnight in France, A. By Josephine Toxier. Dodd, Mead & Co.
- Stars and Stripes and Other American Flags. By Peleg D. Harrison. Little, Brown & Co.
- Training of the Human Plant, The. By Luther Burbank. Century.
- Wage-Earners' Budgets. By Louise B. More. Holt.
- White Hyacinths. By Elbert Hubbard, East Aurora, N. Y.
- Wireless Telegraphy. By Thomas M. St. John, New York.
- Women of the Confederacy, The. By J. L. Underwood. Neale Publishing Company, Washington.
- Worth of a Man, The. By John P. D. John. Jennings & Graham.
- You and Some Others. By Agnes G. Foster. Paul Elder & Co.
- Young in Heart, The. By Arthur Stanwood Pier. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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KING MANUEL II. OF PORTUGAL, THE YOUNGEST KING IN EUROPE.

Manuel, second son of the late King Carlos I. of Portugal, was born November 15, 1889. He ascended the throne on February 1 of the present year, immediately after the assassination of his father and brother. He continues the dynasty of Braganza, which dates from the end of the fourteenth century. His mother, Queen Maria Amalia, was a French princess, daughter of Philip, Duke of Orleans, Count of Paris. The young King is very popular and has begun his reign with evidences of a manly and progressive spirit.

# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

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No. 3

## THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*Ten Years  
Since the  
Spanish War.*

We are coming into the period of ten-year anniversaries of the events of our short war with Spain. The destruction of our battleship, the *Maine*, in the harbor of Havana, occurred on February 15, 1898. History moved very rapidly in the following days and weeks. Both countries concerned appointed courts of inquiry on the disaster, the Spanish cruiser *Vizcaya* visited New York Harbor meanwhile, and our cruiser *Montgomery* went to Havana. On March 7, 8, and 9 a special appropriation of \$50,000,000 was proposed at Washington, carried through both houses, and signed by the President. The War Department began to mobilize the army, and on March 12 the battleship *Oregon* sailed from San Francisco to make her memorable solitary voyage around the coasts of South America to join the Atlantic squadron. We rightly considered her a wonderful engine of naval warfare in those days, but the navy has quite grown away from her, and she is not included in the fleet of sixteen battleships now making the reverse journey and advancing far up the western coast of South America.

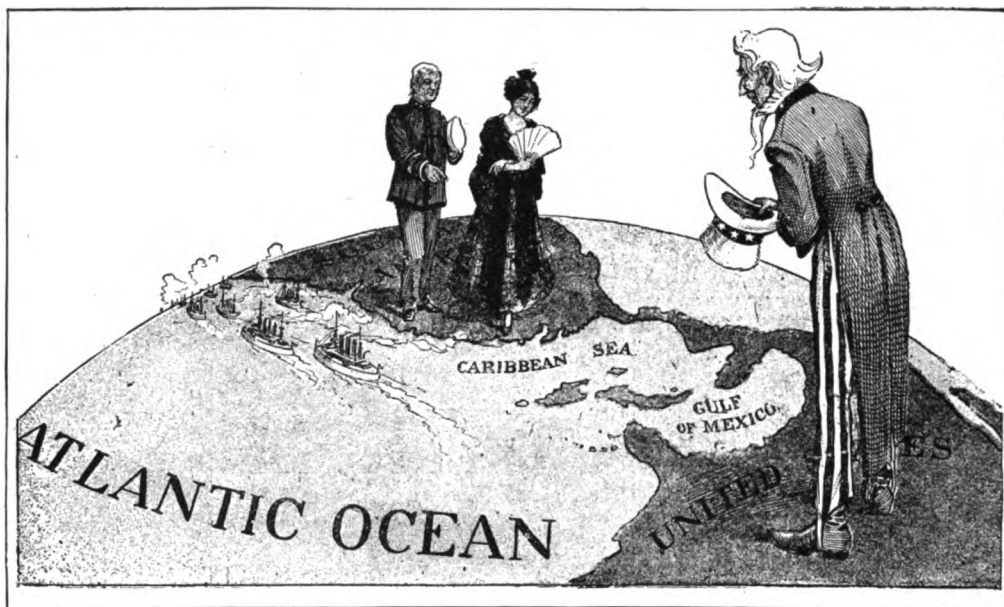
*Some Dates  
to Be  
Noted.*

The Spanish fleet sailed from Cadiz for the Canary Islands on March 14. On the same date American public opinion was further stirred up by Senator Proctor's report on the reconcentrado policy and other atrocities perpetrated against the Cubans by the Spanish forces under General Weyler. The question of war and peace hung in the balance for another month, when, on April 19, Congress adopted resolutions declaring Cuba to be independent, and directing the President to use the forces of the United States to maintain the authority of the Cuban Republic against

Spain. The President signed these resolutions on the following day, and an ultimatum to Spain was cabled to our Minister at Madrid, Gen. Stewart L. Woodford. On the same date the Spanish Cortes assembled and the Queen Regent sent to it a message that meant war. On the following day, April 21, the Spanish Government sent Minister Woodford his passports, and this was regarded as the technical beginning of a state of war. On the 22d President McKinley announced the outbreak of war to the neutral powers, and Admiral Sampson's fleet sailed from Key West, the blockade of Cuban ports beginning immediately. On the 25th Dewey's fleet sailed from Hong Kong for the Philippines. The Spanish fleet at Manila was destroyed on May 1. General Shafter's army sailed for Santiago, Cuba, just before the middle of June. The battle of San Juan marked the opening of July, and Admiral Cervera's fleet, in trying to escape from Santiago, was destroyed by our navy on July 3. Before the end of the year the treaty of peace had been signed by the United States and Spain, resulting in our acquisition of Porto Rico and the Philippines, and in the recognition of the independence of Cuba under the auspices of the United States.

*A Period  
of Great  
Progress.*

The period that has elapsed since 1898 has been a very remarkable one in the development of the United States at home and in the advances this country has made in influence and power throughout the world. It is not boastful or inaccurate to hold that this development has been beneficial rather than harmful. The events of the year 1898 wonderfully cleared the international atmosphere in so far as this country is concerned. In no period of American history have we been upon terms so cordial and



GETTING BETTER ACQUAINTED.

Admiral Evans makes the Spanish lady understand that Uncle Sam is not a bad fellow.  
From the *Saturday Globe* (Utica).

so free from petty dispute or misunderstanding with other nations as in this past decade. At the present moment it is the general opinion that even between Spain and this country there is a more cordial and practical friendship than had existed at any previous time. From the period when South America and Mexico broke away from Spain until the inevitable loss of Cuba occurred there was always some strain between Washington and Madrid, because of present or prospective troubles in the West Indies. Spain could no longer advantageously hold either Cuba or the Philippines.

*The United States as a Spanish Power.*

Meanwhile the United States has become to a great extent a Spanish power. And this, in the end, will be much to the advantage of Peninsular Spain. That is to say, (1) the United States has acquired and is developing Porto Rico, which will remain a Spanish-speaking country. (2) Our capital, influence, and energy are transforming Cuba, and that also will remain a Spanish republic. (3) The progress of the Philippines under our direction is bound to be very great, and yet the Philippines will probably remain more Spanish than American for generations to come. (4) Our acquisition of the Panama Canal Zone and our efforts there, together with our influence

throughout Central America, will count almost beyond calculation for the upbuilding of Spanish-speaking regions adjacent to the Caribbean Sea. (5) Our peculiar relations toward Mexico will continue to count for the advancement of that republic. The best Spanish minds begin to perceive that the future greatness of Spain is not to lie in the direction of political empire, but rather in that of the intellectual, artistic, and social leadership of the Spanish-speaking world. The Spanish-speaking countries of the Western Hemisphere are coming very rapidly into a new and favorable recognition from other countries. This has been largely due to the friendly attitude and policy of the United States under the leadership of Mr. Roosevelt and Secretary Root. The Spanish-speaking world is destined to rank next to the English-speaking in point of population. The Spaniards of the Peninsula perceive that the strength of the United States is the best possible guaranty of the future greatness of the Spanish-speaking peoples.

*Protector of the "Greater Spain."*

But for the strength and the declared policy of "Uncle Sam,"—as he is known throughout Latin America,—the aggressive states of Europe would by this time have seized portions of South America for colonial dominion. Un-

cle Sam's position protects the Spanish-speaking republics as they steadily move toward maturity and stability on their own account. Even if the slender political bonds that unite Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa to the British Islands were completely severed, the general growth of the English-speaking world would continue to reflect glory and many sorts of leadership and prosperity upon the British Isles. In like manner, Spain must, if worthy, reap continuing and ever-growing benefits from the progress of the Spanish-speaking regions of the world. The United States has now become the one great guarantor of the security and progress of the Spanish world. This is a somewhat new idea, and yet the best minds in Barcelona and Madrid doubtless appreciate it.

*The  
World's  
Good-Will.*

Ten years ago we destroyed two Spanish fleets. Europe looked on with a new kind of respect for Yankee energy and power, but with considerable apprehension as to the imperial aims of the statesmen at Washington. The respect for American power has not diminished, but the apprehension as to American aims has almost wholly passed away. It was necessary for us to build the Panama Canal upon a strip of ground under our own control. But nobody now supposes that we intend to use the canal as a vantage point for conquest. We do not wish to acquire any territory lying to the southward. We do wish, on the other hand,

to acquire such prestige and influence for peace, good order, and financial responsibility as will quite transform the Central American states, and will in due time set Venezuela and Colombia upon new lines of advance. Already the feeling against us in Colombia on account of our part in the establishment of the Republic of Panama is fast disappearing as the work progresses in swift and orderly fashion on the isthmus. The day is near at hand when every intelligent man in Colombia will see that we are conferring unspeakable benefits upon his country by spending several hundred millions for a waterway to unite the two coasts of the only South American country that lies upon both oceans. With the great republics of Brazil, the Argentine, and Chile we are establishing the most harmonious relations upon a basis of mutual appreciation and good-will such as has never existed before.

*Our Mission  
of Peace in  
Cuba.*

Our mission in Cuba ten years ago was one of peace. Revolutionary trouble had been chronic there for three-quarters of a century, and a devastating war had been in progress for three years. Spain had nearly 200,000 men in Cuba, and could neither conquer the insurgents nor withdraw from the islands without creating revolution at home. The Cubans could not drive the Spaniards from Havana or their other strongholds, yet could keep up their own kind of harassing warfare for an indefinite period. It was a deadlocked situation. The intervention of the United States was justified in principle, and doubly justified by its merciful results. It relieved Spain of an intolerable burden, and it gave Cuba the basis for a normal and hopeful future. Already the change in Cuba is wonderful. The recent difficulty that resulted in our sending Governor Magoon to act temporarily as chief magistrate has only served to illustrate the statesmanlike wisdom of the plan upon which the Cuban Government was established. There is no longer any oppression of the individual in Cuba. Everybody is secure in the personal and social rights that the Cubans have always wanted but never before possessed. So long as they can carry on the higher affairs of state in an orderly way their independence is absolute. But as against revolution and disorder, the United States, with its great navy and its adequate army, will intervene so promptly as to guarantee all legitimate interests as against loss or danger, just as it would in any part of



UNCLE SAM HAS YET TO TEACH VENEZUELA TO TREAT FOREIGN INTERESTS WITH FAIRNESS.

From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



this country. Such an arrangement is of incalculable value to a young republic like Cuba, with the long tradition of turbulence and insurrection. To have brought about such a situation as now exists in Cuba within a decade after the retirement of Spain is a brilliant triumph.

*Porto Rico  
as Another  
Instance.*

Ten years of administration of the affairs of Porto Rico have brought us beyond the experimental stages, and solid results are already apparent. Another ten years will have witnessed changes for the better that might reasonably have called for half a century. The British Government, generally speaking, is a beneficent one, and it is very capable and well served in its colonial affairs. But our brief record in Porto Rico and Cuba will challenge comparison with anything the English have done in Jamaica and their other West Indian possessions. Spain had administered Porto Rico and Cuba for centuries, with results too well known to all the world. Our first decade shows a greater transformation than the most sanguine could have ventured to expect. It would be easy to present particulars as regards education, the public health, railroads, highways, municipal reconstruction, harbors, public works in general, agriculture, public administration, and provi-

sions for trade and commerce, and, most important of all, safeguards for the daily guaranty of personal rights and liberty.

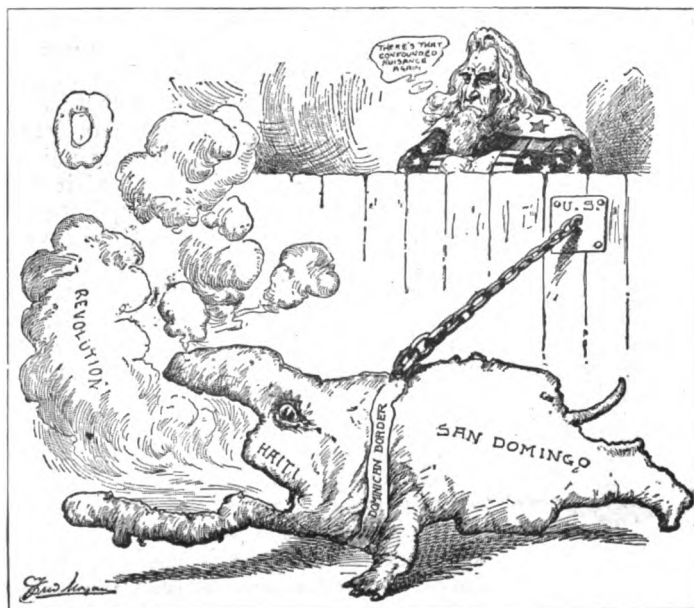
*Progress  
in Santo  
Domingo.*

Our success in Cuba and Porto Rico has been followed by the one great step of a century toward setting in order the decayed affairs of Santo Domingo. Our policy toward Santo Domingo and Haiti must and will lead to such a guaranty of financial prudence, and of abstention from political revolution as a habit and an industry, as will give this richest island of the West Indies its opportunity to find a place in the procession of civilized nations. Mr. Root and the present Administration, supported by the Senate, have achieved great things already in Santo Domingo. The population of Santo Domingo is about 500,000, with Spanish as the prevailing language, and with a strain of negro blood generally diffused throughout a population of mixed Indian and European origins. Haiti has 1,500,000 people, all of them negro or mulatto, with French as the prevailing language. The future of these two republics occupying the one island of Haiti is very uncertain, but it is reasonable to believe that it is to be shaped largely by the new influence that the Government of the United States has begun to exert. Educated American ne-

groes may in the future find opportunities in Haiti and Santo Domingo to make fortunes for themselves, and at the same time to help the cause of civilization.

*Taft's Report  
on the  
Philippines.*

As to a decade's results in the Philippine Islands, the Special Report of Secretary Taft to the President comes to hand at an opportune moment. It was transmitted to Congress on January 27, and it gives a sweeping survey of conditions in the islands in a compact and readable volume of about 175 pages, including documents and appendices. In his letter of transmittal the President says:



UNCLE SAM IS A LITTLE DISGUSTED, BUT IS KEEPING A WATCHFUL EYE ON REVOLUTIONARY RAMPADES IN SAN DOMINGO AND HAITI.

From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



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HON. WILLIAM H. TAFT, SECRETARY OF WAR.

I transmit herewith the report of Secretary Taft upon his recent trip to the Philippines. I heartily concur in the recommendations he makes, and I call especial attention to the admirable work of Governor Smith and his associates. It is a subject for just national gratification that such a report as this can be made. No great civilized power has ever managed with such wisdom and disinterestedness the affairs of a people committed by the accident of war to its hands.

If we had followed the advice of the misguided persons who wished us to turn the islands loose and let them suffer whatever fate might befall them, they would have already passed through a period of complete and bloody chaos, and would now undoubtedly be the possession of some other power which there is every reason to believe would not have done as we have done,—that is, would not have striven to teach them how to govern themselves or to have

developed them, as we have developed them, primarily in their own interests. Save only our attitude toward Cuba, I question whether there is a brighter page in the annals of international dealing between the strong and the weak than the page which tells of our doings in the Philippines.

I call especial attention to the admirably clear showing made by Secretary Taft of the fact that it would have been equally ruinous if we had yielded to the desires of those who wished us to go faster in the direction of giving the Filipinos self-government, and if we had followed the policy advocated by others, who desired us simply to rule the islands without any thought at all of fitting them for self-government. The islanders have made real advances in a hopeful direction, and they have opened well with the new Philippine Assembly; they have yet a long way to travel before they will be fit for complete self-government, and for deciding, as it will then be their duty to do, whether this self-government shall be accompanied by complete independence.

It will probably be a generation, it may even be longer, before this point is reached; but it is most gratifying that such substantial progress toward this as a goal has already been accomplished. We desire that it be reached at as early a date as possible for the sake of the Filipinos and for our own sake. But improperly to endeavor to hurry the time will probably mean that the goal will not be attained at all.

*A  
Gratifying  
Document.*

Mr. Taft's report is a luminous review of all that has happened for the advancement of the Philippines since we took possession. It is a marvelous story, told in a fascinating way. This little paper-covered volume issued by the Government Printing Office ought to be read by every thoughtful citizen and by every youth in school or shop who takes an interest in the affairs of his country. It is a great pity that the Government has never provided an easy and direct way for the distribution of such documents. Any reader who cares to write to his Congressman would doubtless receive a copy as long as the supply holds out. It is enough to say that the report justifies the President's eulogy. If Mr. Taft should be nominated for the Presidency, this review of what has been done for the Philippine Islands would properly be issued as a campaign document. But, after all, there is nothing partisan about it, and it ought to be read with pride and gratitude by Democrats as well as Republicans.

*Taft's Development as a Statesman.*

Mr. Taft himself has played a great part in the splendid history that this country has been making during the past ten years. He had risen rapidly at the bar, had been a judge of the Superior Court of Ohio for several years, and

Solicitor-General of the United States for two years, when in 1892 he was appointed a United States Circuit judge, at the age of thirty-five. As a judge on the federal bench he justified all expectations, and was happy in a congenial life position. It was no light matter for him, at President McKinley's urgent request, to leave the bench and go out to the Philippine Islands as president of the Philippine Commission and first Governor. Judge Taft accepted the appointment not as a promotion or as a desirable thing in itself, but as a serious public duty, pressed upon him in a real emergency. We had undertaken a novel if not a questionable responsibility, and the success of our experiment depended very largely upon the initial steps to be taken. A great lawyer and a great humanitarian was needed, and President McKinley felt that Judge Taft combined the desirable qualifications in a higher degree than any one else he could find. The Filipinos were bitterly disaffected, and it was necessary to win their confidence. William H. Taft convinced them absolutely of his own good-will toward them, and of his determination to administer the affairs of the islands for the benefit of the inhabitants. Many another man might have been quite as solicitous for their welfare, but few could have been so endowed with genial and sympathetic qualities, together with poise and firmness, as to have made the strong impression in the Philippines that Mr. Taft was able to make. Furthermore, his ability and experience as a great constitutional lawyer were of inestimable value in the reshaping of the political institutions of the islands and in the adjustment of legal relationships between them and the United States.

*Three Great  
Statesmen of  
the Decade.*

While the greater task of constructive statesmanship in the affairs of our new insular possessions fell to the lot of Secretary Root at Washington, no one would be so eager as Mr. Root himself to show how large was the part taken by Mr. Taft at Manila in the work both of creation and practical adaptation. When Mr. Root left the War Department Mr. Taft was his natural successor, and he entered upon his duties at Washington four years ago last month. He has been kept incessantly busy during these four years, and he has performed many tasks of first-rate magnitude with conspicuous success. A war always in every country either brings some new personalities into light as



men fitted for emergencies, or else shapes the careers or enlarges the personalities of men already known. Thus the Spanish-American War was the great turning point in the public careers of the three best-known members of the present Administration. President Roosevelt thought it his duty, when the call for volunteers was issued, to join the army and go to the front. There was no calculation of any sort in this action, yet it led to his election as Governor of New York and to his subsequent elevation first to the Vice-Presidency, and then to the Presidency. When the exigencies of the War Department needed a clear, cool head and a quiet, strong hand, Mr. McKinley found the Hon. Elihu Root in 1899. Mr. Root reorganized the army with a masterly grasp upon its affairs, established the present Republic of Cuba with its constitutional dependence upon the United States, organized Porto Rico, and established the main lines under which we have made our success in the Philippines. It was under Mr. Root's department in the following year that Mr. Taft was sent to Manila.

*Filipino Representatives at Washington.*

To have reached the point, within a brief ten years, of the election and assembling of a native Legislature for the Philippines, in view of all the circumstances, is without precedent in the history of the world. To have proceeded more slowly might have had its advantages. But, on the other hand, experience is the great school in self-government; and we are training the Filipinos to a sense of consciousness as a political entity. Finally, in the working out of this policy we have authorized the Filipino Assembly to select two Commissioners to represent the islands at Washington. The two men named by the Legis-



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Benito Legarda.

Pablo Ocampo.

THE FIRST DELEGATES FROM THE PHILIPPINES TO THE UNITED STATES CONGRESS.

lature are Mr. Benito Legarda and Mr. Pablo Ocampo. They are now in Washington and were last month accorded seats by Congress. Mr. Taft says of these two Commissioners:

Mr. Legarda is one of the founders of the Federal party and a Progresista; he has been many times in the United States and speaks English. He is one of the most prominent and successful business men in the islands, and a public-spirited citizen of high character. Mr. Ocampo was an active sympathizer with the insurrection and acted as its treasurer. He was deported to the Island of Guam by the military authorities in the days of the military government. He is a prominent and able member of the bar of the islands and a man of high character.

*Indications of Good Feeling.*

It is significant of the improved feeling that has come about that Mr. Ocampo is just as welcome at Washington as Mr. Legarda. These Commissioners have no status fixed by law

and are entitled only to such courtesies as the House may see fit to extend to them. Their position is like that of the Commissioner from Porto Rico, as provided for in the act of April 12, 1900. Hawaii, by act of April 30, 1900, was given the organization of a Territory of the United States, and its delegate is on the same basis as that of Arizona or New Mexico, as prescribed in the appropriate section of the Revised Statutes of 1862,—that is to say, the Hawaiian Delegate has a seat in the House of Representatives with the right of debating but not of voting. As a matter of fact the House extends by courtesy the like privileges to the Delegate from Porto Rico, and will doubtless treat the Commissioners from the Philippines in the same liberal way. The presence of these gentlemen in Washington will doubtless aid Mr. Taft in his unceasing efforts to obtain from Congress legislation favorable to Philippine conditions, commerce, trade, and industry. The conduct of the Assembly at Manila has, upon the whole, been conservative, and it would show the purpose of the Filipinos to win commendation. The *Manila Times*, commenting upon the general situation and Secretary Taft's report in particular, says: "As an outcome of the statesmanlike policy of the Secretary of War we have quietude where before there existed discontent, and, above all, we have that harmony so essential to progress."

*Our Fleet  
in the  
Pacific.*

Our interest in the Philippines and in matters of the Pacific and the Far East acquires fresh prominence just now from the presence of our great battleship fleet in the Pacific. The long journey thus far has been made without accident, and with great *éclat*. The manifestations of feeling along both coasts of South America have been those of genuine sympathy and friendship. Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Root have succeeded in making the principal states of South America understand that good relations with us are for their advantage from every standpoint. The visits made by our fleet have been regarded as a compliment and not as a menace. It is perceived by the leading South American statesmen that the naval strength of the United States is for the stability, order, and advancement of the entire Western Hemisphere. Nor is there any government in Europe or in Asia that has shown the slightest disposition to regard the movements of our great fleet as other than appropriate and

useful. If we had possessed a much larger fleet ten years ago we should not have had our war with Spain. We should have saved some hundreds of millions of dollars, not to mention many other considerations. The development of our naval strength has more recently saved Venezuela from seizure by European powers, and has in various ways been a makeweight for peace.

*Japan  
and  
America.*

Certain sensational journals and certain unscrupulous elements in the speculative stock market have been constantly disseminating rumors of war between the United States and Japan. Wall Street had even fixed the precise date for the outbreak a few weeks ago. Meanwhile Japan has some very definite work on her hands, and the last thing in the world she has in mind is a war with the United States. She is going through a period of financial and industrial embarrassment such as often follows a great but costly war. She is much engaged with the problems that confront her in the development of Korea and in her relations to Manchuria and the Chinese Empire. She is having even a harder task in the settlement and development of Formosa than we have had in the Philippines. Great preparations are under way for the Japanese exposition to be held at Tokio in 1912. This fair will probably be one of the finest, most artistic, and most original ever held, inasmuch as the Japanese have a great genius for things of this kind, and will naturally wish to make the occasion illustrative of their amazing progress. Congress is promptly making an initial appropriation to have this country well represented, and our transportation and commercial interests would do well to unite in making the American exhibits contribute toward the large growth of American trade in the Orient. Although she is in treaty relationship with England for the maintenance of the general *status quo* in Asia, Japan still counts the United States as her first and best friend among the nations. We have absolutely no grievance against Japan, and she has none whatever against us. It is natural and entirely right that the Japanese Government should take notice of the treatment of Japanese subjects in California or elsewhere in this country. But Japanese statesmen understand perfectly the general good-will of America, and do not for a moment dream of regarding a local riot or an instance of race friction as amounting to a cause for war. Our existing treaties with



CONGRESS REFUSES TO APPROPRIATE WHAT THE PRESIDENT RECOMMENDS FOR NEW SHIPS, AND THE CARTOONIST ATTRIBUTES A SMILE TO JAPAN.  
From the *Evening Telegram* (New York).

Japan give us the right to exclude Japanese coolie labor. We do not wish to exercise this right in definite form, and Japan desires that we should leave it in abeyance. Japan prefers to use her own methods of restraint in order that we may have no cause of complaint on the score of a large influx of coolie labor. The subject is in the hands of men of great wisdom and ability on both sides, and those who spread rumors of ill-will and possible war are either extremely silly and credulous, or else belong in the class of malicious makers of mischief.

*Value of Our  
Naval  
Power.*

We are now the richest and, inherently, the most powerful nation in the world. We are perfectly aware of our own peaceful intentions. Our strength and readiness to do international police duty are for our own benefit and for that of the world at large. Mr. Roosevelt has asked the present Congress to appropriate money for the construction of four large battleships. The House and Senate naval committees are disposed to limit very sharply the appropriations for new construction. As a matter of statesmanship, the Roosevelt naval policy is sound and is not extravagant when regarded as an insurance

for our own peace and for that of our neighbors. Just now there is a great deal of agitation in England on the subject of the maintenance of the British navy on its old-time basis, which requires strength at least equal to that of the two greatest navies of other European powers. Mr. Stead, who has been so conspicuous throughout Europe in recent years as a leader of the peace movement, is now the foremost advocate in England of the building of warships and the maintenance of the great British navy. Many of Mr. Stead's friends and associates in the peace movement are grieved and puzzled at what seems to them his inconsistency. Mr. Stead, in our judgment, is able to give a very good account of himself in his present position. It will be a good while before the world powers will have developed an international method for settling disputes, maintaining the mandates of arbitration tribunals, and keeping the peace. Until that time comes the two greatest factors for the maintenance of peace and the normal development of an industrial world are the governments of Great Britain and the United States. And these governments, as their chief instrumentality, must maintain their naval power. England with her fleets must be able to preserve the position of the British Islands, of Africa from Egypt to Cape Colony, of Australia, and of Asia from the Persian Gulf to the Yellow Sea. The British fleet must also be strong enough to keep the European balance of power undisturbed. With King Edward as a great peacemaker, and the fleet as ready to support peace policies, every country in Europe is in better position than it otherwise would be. Japan is entitled to a strong and effective fleet, and it also in its way will help to keep the world's peace.

*Our Ships  
Under  
Criticism.*

As for the current criticisms of a drastic sort upon the construction of our battleships, the common-sense of the country will not be deeply impressed by critics who attempt to prove altogether too much. Thus far, when subjected to test, our warships have fought well and sailed well. Admiral Converse, in his recent report to the President, makes a good general answer to the drastic condemnation that has appeared in certain magazines and newspapers. The stirring up of the subject can do no harm, however, and may do some good, if it does not create practical distrust in the efficiency of what, upon the

whole, is a remarkably capable navy, both as regards its men and its materials. Probably the naval-bureau system at Washington could be reorganized with benefit to the service; and the test of experience, as for example in the present cruise of the battleships, may help to improve the designs of our ships in various details.

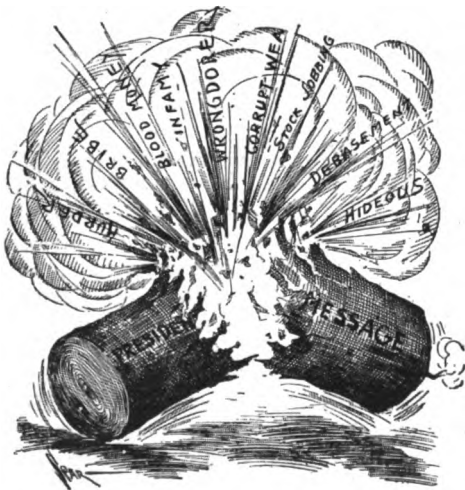
*A Philippine from the President.*

On the last day of January President Roosevelt communicated to Congress a special message which aroused great attention, and caused a more animated discussion than his regular annual message at the opening of the session nearly two months earlier. The occasion of the message was the urgent need, in the President's opinion, of legislation relating to labor and capital and the great corporations. The Employers' Liability law had been found unconstitutional by the Supreme Court because it had not distinguished between men engaged in commerce wholly within a State and those in interstate commerce. The re-enactment of the law, with this distinction properly marked, is advocated. The President also advises the passage of an act to compensate all employees injured in the Government service, and states the reasons for it with convincing arguments. A special bill to provide compensation for injured workmen on the Panama Canal is also urged. Furthermore, the President asks Congress to take action to limit the abuse of injunctions in labor cases. He states the need at some length, but does not suggest the nature or extent of the desired

legislation. Advancing from labor questions, the President takes up those relating to corporations. He advises that the Interstate Commerce Commission should be empowered to pass upon any rate or practice on its own initiative. He explains that he does not assume that railroad rates are too high, or that in some cases they should not be advanced. But he would have the commission clothed with power to make a physical valuation of any road, and to consider the rate question as bearing somewhat upon the actual investment. He also advises again very strongly that the federal Government should supervise financial operations of railroads, in order to prevent further over-capitalization. He proceeds to repeat his former recommendation that railways be permitted to form traffic associations and to agree upon rates and various other matters of common interest. Taking up the Sherman Anti-Trust law, he calls attention to former messages and asks that Congress shall modify that portion of the existing act which prohibits all combinations, whether reasonable or unreasonable.

*As to Great Corporations.*

But this, he declares, should be done as a part of a general scheme to provide "government supervision of all the operations of the big interstate business concerns." The President says that these various laws that he advocates, if enacted, "would represent part of the campaign against privilege, part of the campaign to make the great class of property-holders realize that property has its duties no less than its rights." Proceeding from his discussion of stock-watering and over-capitalization, the President takes up what he calls "the grosser forms of gambling in securities and commodities, such as making large sales of what men do not possess and cornering the market." This question is brought up rather for consideration than for any specific advice. Next, the President takes up and quotes certain statements issued by the Bureau of Corporations and by the Standard Oil Company in respect to recent prosecutions and court decisions, and also deals with the subject of rebating on the Santa Fé Railway system. The sensational part of Mr. Roosevelt's message begins with his comment upon these topics. Alluding to the seemingly concerted efforts of certain great corporations to make widespread use in their own behalf of newspapers and other means of publicity, the President says:



A SENSATION AT WASHINGTON.  
From the *Globe* (New York).

Certain wealthy men of this stamp, whose conduct should be abhorrent to every man of ordinarily decent conscience, and who commit the hideous wrong of teaching our young men that phenomenal business success must ordinarily be based on dishonesty, have during the last few months made it apparent that they have banded together to work for a reaction. Their endeavor is to overthrow and discredit all who honestly administer the law, to prevent any additional legislation which check and restrain them, and to secure if possible a freedom from all restraint which will permit every unscrupulous wrongdoer to do what he wishes unchecked, provided he has enough money. The only way to counteract the movement in which these men are engaged is to make clear to the public just what they have done in the past and just what they are seeking to accomplish in the present.

*A Drastic  
Indict-  
ment.*

The message sweeps on in this vein through several thousand words of the most drastic arraignment of corrupt business methods, and of those who have endeavored to mislead public opinion, that has ever been presented in any state paper. It is not a careless, or reckless, or flippant document, although that has been asserted by some newspaper critics. It is simply a scorching and terrible philippic, like parts of Burke's arraignment of Warren Hastings. The utterance is so extraordinary that one must have a care in discussing it. In financial and newspaper circles belonging to or influenced by Wall Street the message was condemned in the most unsparing terms. Many of the President's supporters and friends believed that it was a mistake for the President to allow his enemies to assert that he was showing temper, and that he was irritated into violence of expression by their malignant attacks upon the Administration. In the West and South, as in the halls of Congress, the message was generally applauded.

*It Means  
a Real  
Fight.*

It must be remembered that the attempt to regulate the great corporations has been involved in fierce controversy. Not only has the Government been prosecuting the Standard Oil Company, for example, on thousands of indictments in many States, but it is seriously engaged in attempts to break the company to pieces by an action directed against its central organization as a monopolistic trust. One of these numerous suits against that company has resulted in a fine of \$29,000,000. It is not to be supposed that an organization of such vast power and wealth, with its ramifications spread throughout the entire country, would accept in a spirit of meekness

the assaults upon it of the Government and of the public in general. And what is true of that company may be asserted of other large trusts or business interests more or less intimately banded together through the focusing of their financial control in the vicinity of Wall Street.

*Bitterness  
Against the  
President.*

Those who live in distant parts of the country and have no direct means of finding out for themselves would be astonished if they could but know the state of mind that has now for some time prevailed in the financial district of New York City. President Roosevelt is one of the most wholesome and normal personalities in public life. He is temperate and abstemious to a marked degree. With sound physical health and a clear conscience, he never worries, he always sleeps well, and he faces his day's work with a clear eye, an unexhausted fund of vitality, and a ready zest. Yet Wall Street has persuaded itself that Mr. Roosevelt, of all men, is an inebriate, and that his messages and public utterances are inspired by alcoholic potations. Furthermore, Wall Street has circulated this story all over the country. The small fry in the financial district of New York, being of limited mentality and easily gullible,—and also being emotional and mercurial, as belongs to the speculative temperament,—have been readily persuaded into believing that Mr. Roosevelt is a drunkard, an insane man, a victim of nervous prostration, and a malevolent demagogue. The New York mood against Roosevelt is like nothing except the "Copperhead" bitterness against Lincoln in 1863 and 1864. There are many excellent men in New York business circles who would like to be fair, and who are much surprised to be informed that Mr. Roosevelt does not drink, is not nervous, and does not write his speeches and messages in a spirit of wrathful ebullition.

*An  
Open  
Fighter.*

The simple fact is that there is a great controversy pending, and that the President of the United States is so placed that he has almost countless avenues of information, both official and private, as to what is going on in the camp of the enemy. For a great many years past the politics of almost every State in the Union has been more or less completely controlled by railroads and other large corporations, or else by political bosses using money contributed from corporate sources. In the

great fight for the public regulation of railroads and industrial corporations the Government has been very active through the Department of Justice, the new Department of Commerce, and the Interstate Commerce Commission. It would be too much to expect that the great corporations, commanding control of thousands of millions of dollars of capital, and ably served everywhere in the country by legal, political, and business agents, should not have been very actively at work to withstand the attempts of Congress, the Administration, and the courts to bring them under regulation and restraint. But, as every one knows, the political methods of the railroads and corporations have always been mysterious and secretive rather than open. Mr. Roosevelt's method, on the other hand, is always that of the open attack and the frank appeal to public opinion. His message was evidently intended to arouse the interest and curiosity of the country, and to subject to suspicious scrutiny, in all localities, the political methods employed by corporate interests. The newspapers in this country that are directly or indirectly controlled by the great corporations are of considerable number, and their attitude toward the Administration is one of the things the President evidently wishes the public to understand.

*Trying to  
Create Public  
Opinion.*

It must not be supposed that the present hysteria of opposition to Mr. Roosevelt in and about New York City is wholly due to the reading of certain newspapers, or to the disseminated bitterness of certain directors of great corporations. At various public dinners of note recently held in New York the sentiment against the Administration has been expressed in rude and insulting ways. But this has not always been representative of even a strictly local feeling; for occasions of this sort can readily be manipulated, and it is easy to pack banquet halls with an aggressive claque, where thousands of dollars are available to buy dinner seats. The great corporations of this country are for the most part engaged in carrying on legitimate business in very valuable ways; but they are so big and so powerful that they must needs come under reasonable restraint and regulation. And since they do business all over the country, some sort of federal regulation seems to be the only kind that will ever work. Mr. Roosevelt is not merely a man of words; although it is possible that he preaches over-

much. Even that is a question of opinion. Preaching is not for the man who does not need it, and he may not always be the best judge. From the standpoint of the editor of a newspaper, familiar as he is with what is going on, the President's "line upon line and precept upon precept," with frequent quotations from his own past utterances, would seem a useless multiplication of words. But the President himself understands all this, and his preachments and pronouncements are not for the sophisticated, but for the arousal of the country at large. And their success is to be judged by their effects. Meanwhile the corporations would serve their stockholders much better if they were not persuaded by their lawyers and political agents to go out of their sphere in an attempt to control public opinion, legislative action, and administrative policy. For all their shrewdness and cunning, they are not successful in politics and never will be. One blast from the President's trumpet counts for more in politics than all their subtle schemes. Yet the big corporations are made up, after all, of American business men, of the same average motives and methods as the less wealthy men about them. Systems can be improved, while attacks upon individuals are of small avail.



WALL STREET HEARS RUMORS AND FALLS INTO HER CUSTOMARY HYSTERICS.

From the Press (New York).

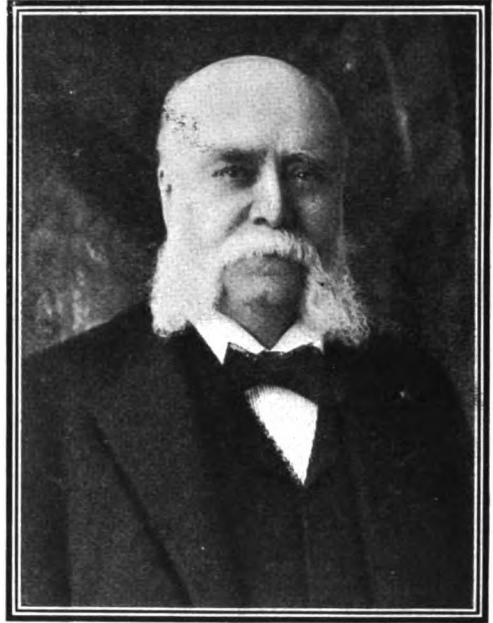
*Corporation  
Failure in  
Politics.*

Four years ago the corporations tried to control the Presidential choice of each of the great conventions. Their failure in the one instance, and the sad results of their success in the other, must surely have shaken somewhat their confidence in their own political sagacity. Just now they do not know precisely whom or what they want, but they are endeavoring by all sorts of efforts,—some of them amusing and some of them desperate,—to mix the situation up, in the hope of being able to promote the selection of a Republican candidate who would be opposed to the general line of policy supported by the present Administration. But even if they could turn the balance in the Chicago convention they would be confronted by the fact that they could never elect an anti-Roosevelt Republican, as against Mr. Bryan, for example. And if it should come to a mere choice among individuals supposed to be supporters of the Roosevelt policies, the game would be hardly worth serious effort. Mr. Roosevelt's message was not conventional, for it was a fulmination and an appeal to the country rather than a real message of advice to Congress about matters of necessary lawmaking. But Mr. Roosevelt is doing important things in his strict capacity as Chief Executive; and as a practical administrator no one in the history of the Presidency has ever shown such a wide range of effectiveness. When it comes to his utterances, he is a law unto himself; and naturally he does not present a message like that of January 31 without expecting it to be sharply criticised even by many of his friends.

*Is Federal  
Patronage  
Used for Taft?*

Mr. Roosevelt is still consistently favoring the nomination of Secretary Taft as his successor. He has been accused not only of influencing the federal organization throughout the country to use activity in Mr. Taft's cause, but also of making appointments to public office with reference to the same object. In answer to these charges he wrote a long letter to Mr. William Dudley Foulke, of Indiana, last month, reviewing the whole subject and denying in general and in detail the statements that had been made. As a simple matter of fact, it is probably true that there are certain newspaper writers who have been giving more time and thought to the daily charge that the President is using the power of his office to name his successor, than the

President himself has given to the whole subject. Mr. Roosevelt is not only naturally scrupulous about these things, but his average appointments for years past have been such as to lift the federal services to a higher plane, so that they are far less partisan and political than at former times. Mr. Roosevelt has long allowed it to be known that he regarded Mr. Taft as upon the whole the most available candidate. Apart from that



GENERAL STEWART L. WOODFORD.  
(Head of the Hughes National League.)

he has shown no unfriendliness, as far as we are aware, toward the candidacy of any other leading Republican.

*The  
Hughes  
Movement.*

Just as soon as it became evident that New York was disposed to present a candidate of its own, Mr. Taft instructed his friends and supporters in that State to cease from all efforts to secure district delegates. On the day when the President's message was made public there also appeared in the newspapers Governor Hughes' speech before the Republican Club of New York, in which for the first time he discussed national issues broadly, and in effect allowed himself to appear before the country as a Presidential candidate. The Hughes League of the United States is now organized, with Gen. Stewart L. Woodford actively and sincerely at its





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GOVERNOR HUGHES, OF NEW YORK.

head. Ten years ago General Woodford was in a critical position as our Minister at Madrid. Just fifty years ago he began law practice in New York. He is still vigorous, active, and influential. The Hughes movement is thus supported by a host of men of conscience, intelligence, and character. Governor Hughes has put himself quite in line with the Roosevelt policies, as indeed he did in his campaign speeches when running for Governor. He has spoken sensibly and ably upon national affairs, and has said as much as it was reasonable to expect from him at the present time. As we have often remarked, Mr. Hughes is a very able man, of

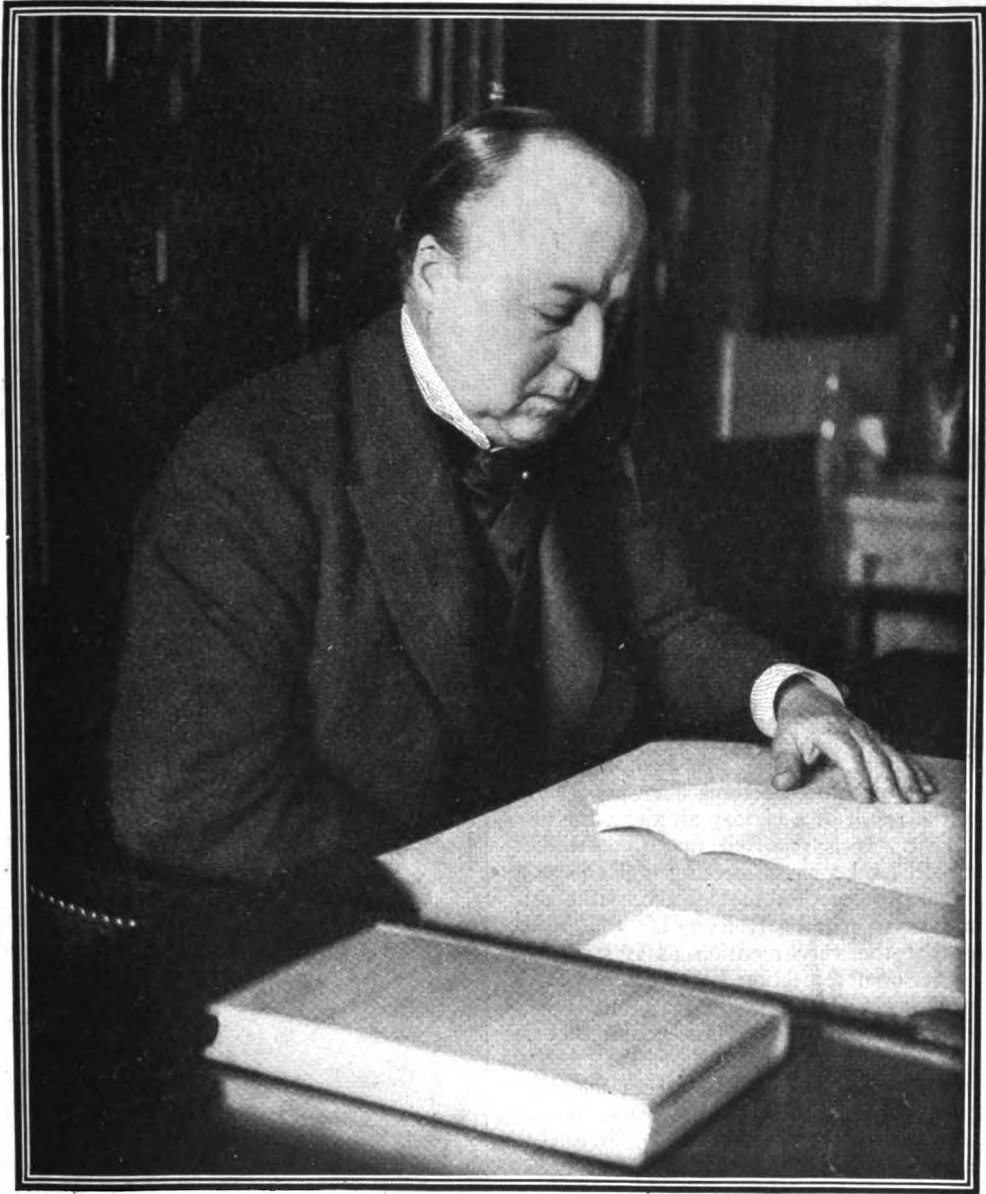
high character, and fit for such burdens of responsibility as may be placed upon him. If he should not be nominated for first place at Chicago, he might be very much wanted for second place; and in view of the precedents set by Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Fairbanks, he could not properly decline. But as a matter of cold fact, the people of New York need him for several years yet to come in the office of Governor, where there is work of the highest importance to be done, that he of all men is the best fitted to accomplish. The lawmaking and administration of the Empire State have a powerful bearing upon the course of affairs throughout the Union, and the governorship of New York is a very high office. Mr. Hughes will have the full support of the great New York delegation at Chicago, and doubtless many delegates from New England and elsewhere will favor his nomination.

*The  
New York  
Delegation.*

The personnel of the New York delegation will be scrutinized with much interest, for the reason that a great fight is going on beneath the surface for the control of the State Republican machine. It is charged that leaders like Mr. Odell, once in full control, and lately superseded, have been using the name of Hughes as a rallying cry for the sake of recovering their own control. And it is further suggested that if the district delegates are personally selected by these leaders, their support of Hughes at the Chicago convention might not be wholly sincere, and that a nominal Hughes delegation might in fact be used for purposes of ultimate combination against Taft or some other representative of the progressive wing of the Republican party. Mr. Hughes himself, of course, belongs to the progressive wing.

*Senator  
Knox in  
Evidence.*

Recent speeches made by Senator Knox, of Pennsylvania, bring to public attention again the remarkable intellectual grasp and lucid gift of exposition that belong to the gentleman who will have the unanimous support of his great State at the Chicago convention. On Lincoln's birthday Mr. Knox made a speech in Michigan on "The People, the Railroads, and the National Authority." This speech embodies what is perhaps the finest and ablest summing up that has yet been made of the achievements of the present Administration in completing the work of extending the "national authority over interstate inter-



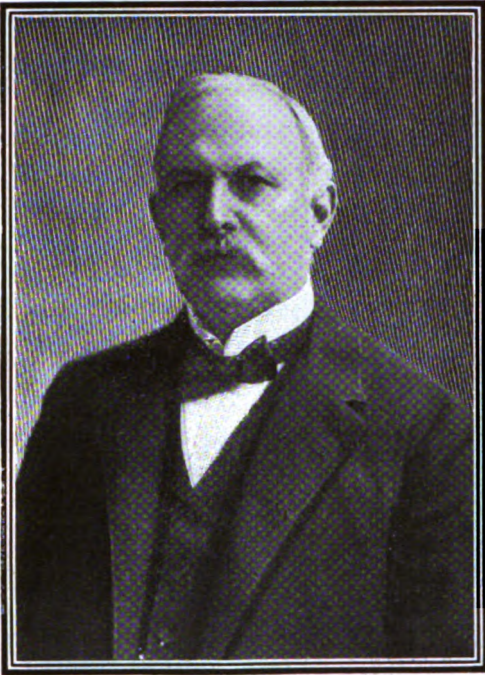
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HON. PHILANDER KNOX, SENATOR FROM PENNSYLVANIA.

course and its instrumentalities." Mr. Knox, like Mr. Root and Mr. Taft, is one of the great lawyers whom the exigencies of the past decade have transformed into statesmen of commanding ability and undoubted patriotism. Another speech at Pittsburg on "The Future of Commerce" deals especially with the question of waterway improvement as related to the Ohio River and the interior of the country. It also is a notable speech both in substance and in distinction of manner.

*Other  
Political  
Notes.*

Vice-President Fairbanks has received unanimous support from the Republicans of Indiana, recently assembled, and his friends are hoping that with their present nucleus they may secure his nomination as a compromise candidate. It is reported, furthermore, that Speaker Cannon finds growing favor in various directions and may show considerable strength in the convention, with his own State of Illinois behind him. The chief pre-



HON. JOSEPH B. FORAKER, OF OHIO.

liminary fight thus far has been in Ohio, where the primary elections have been held, with the result of a victory all along the line for Taft. It is reported that the Foraker men will hold a mass meeting and choose a contesting delegation to Chicago. But this would be so manifestly irregular and insincere that the very mention of it seems to carry its own refutation. At present Secretary Taft seems to have the lead, but it does not as yet follow that his nomination is probable. There are no foregone conclusions discernible on the Republican side, and the one thing that seems quite well established is the nomination of Mr. Bryan at Denver. Governor Johnson, of Minnesota; Judge Gray, of Delaware; the Hon. Judson Harmon, of Ohio, and one or two other able Democrats continue to be named from time to time, but their boomlets make no headway as against the compact strength of the gentleman from Nebraska.

*Phases of  
the Great  
Game.*

Quadrennial politics as a great national game is now fairly under way, with diverting incidents in almost every State and County. Thus far it bids fair to be an earnest but fairly good-tempered contest. An article prepared for us by Mr. Victor Rosewater, editor of

the *Omaha Bee*, and National Republican Committeeman for his State, contains much useful information on the great conventions and their structure and methods. In the scramble for Republican delegates the South is generally a much-traveled hunting ground. Mr. Frank Hitchcock, who was Mr. Cortelyou's assistant in the management of the last campaign, resigned his post as First Assistant Postmaster-General last month in order to aid in the preliminary conduct of the Taft movement. Mr. Hitchcock is supposed to be especially conversant with conditions in the South, while Mr. Vorys will remain in charge of the Taft forces in Ohio and the West. Naturally the Brownsville affair is expected to militate somewhat against Mr. Taft with the colored people, and in favor of the anti-Administration forces. Republican



Photograph by Underwood &amp; Underwood, N. Y.

HON. WILLIAM J. BRYAN.



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

SPEAKER CANNON AND SENATOR ALDRICH, WHO LEAD THE TWO HOUSES OF CONGRESS.

conventions will never be fairly representative until they are based upon effective party strength. The necessity of placating groups of negro politicians and federal office-holders in the Southern States does not lead to the best ethical results.

**Business Questions.**

Our readers will find elsewhere in this number various articles and data referring to the current business and financial conditions. Mr. Watson's article on the commercial outlook is based upon the most complete information. General Nettleton presents the arguments for the governmental insurance of bank deposits with great cogency. He was Assistant Secretary of the Treasury under Secretary Windom. Dr. Kinley makes note of the conservative objections to such a change. An article on Mr. Frank A. Vanderlip recounts the career and deserved success of one of our ablest and most scholarly financiers. Mr. Arthur P. Kellogg, of *Charities and the Commons*, writes with the best available knowledge concerning the extent to which men have been thrown out of work by the business recession. Brief articles upon investment and finance will be found at the end

of our "Leading Articles of the Month." In Congress the Aldrich bill for providing emergency currency is making progress, and Senator Aldrich has expounded it in a very strong and able speech. Speaker Cannon is regarded as supporting this measure, which also has the President's approval; and when Senator Aldrich, Speaker Cannon, and Mr. Roosevelt agree about a matter of legislation something is likely to be done. Senator Beveridge, on February 5, made his strong and able speech favoring an expert tariff commission to prepare data and material for the work of Congress next year. In a sober fashion the people of the country are bending themselves to bring about better business conditions. As Mr. Watson shows, progress will be sure even if somewhat slow. The one thing most to be desired is to get the wheels moving again so that deserving men may not be lacking employment. The greatest single source of our wealth is the cotton crop, and it will probably be larger this year than ever; while the very slackness of manufacturing and railroad improvement will provide farm labor and stimulate agriculture. With the harvesting of another crop the country will have attained once more a moderate prosperity.



*The Progress  
of Our  
Fleet.*

All reports from our battleship fleet and from those who have watched its steady progress from the Brazilian capital around through the Straits of Magellan into the Pacific Ocean agree that the voyage has been in every way highly creditable to the American ships and sailormen. In the words of the *Brazilian Review*, published in Rio de Janeiro, "the American fleet is a truly magnificent machine and it has been magnificently engineered." Leaving Rio on January 22, the battleships paid their respects to the honorary guard of Argentine vessels which left Buenos Aires to welcome the fleet, the American ships not finding it possible, because of shallow water, to stop at the Argentine capital. On the afternoon of the last day of January the ships anchored in Possession Bay, near the beginning of the first half of the Magellan Straits. On the following day Punta Arenas, the southernmost city in the world, was reached, and the vessels were officially welcomed into Chilean waters by several warships containing high officials of the Chilean Government. After a few days' stay in Punta Arenas, during which there were a great many festivities and ceremonies, the ships left, on February

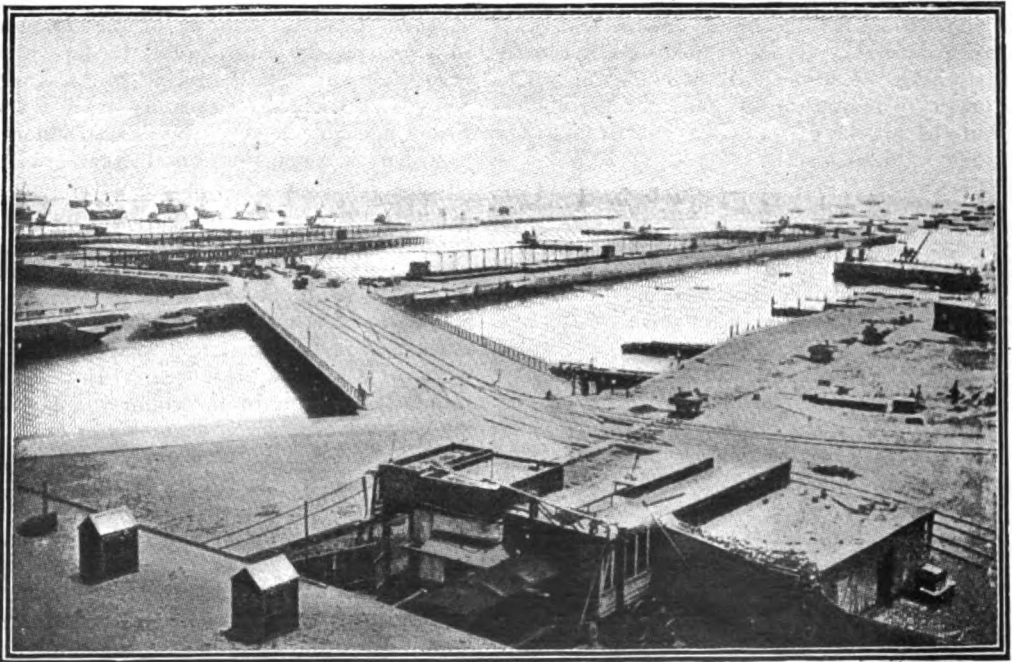


BRAZIL'S WELCOME TO ADMIRAL EVANS AND THE FLEET.

PRESIDENT PENNA: "I assure you, Admiral Evans, your fleet has found an anchorage in the heart of all Brazilians."

From *O Mahlo* (Rio de Janeiro).

7, under escort of a Chilean cruiser, passing through the longer and more difficult



THE GREAT DOCKS OF CALLAO, PERU.

(In which the United States fleet spent ten days last month exchanging courtesies with the governments and peoples of Peru and Ecuador.)

stretch of the Straits and reaching the waters of the Pacific on the morning of the 8th. Sailing northward along the west coast of Chile, the fleet passed in review the fine harbor of Valparaíso on February 14, convoyed by three Chilean warships. At Callao, Peru, where the ships were due to stop on the 19th, a great reception, in which not only Peruvian but Ecuadorian officials participated, awaited the warships. The fine dock at the Peruvian port afforded an excellent anchorage and resting place for the American vessels. They will probably be leaving this port as this issue of the REVIEW reaches its readers.

*Canada and  
Japanese  
Immigration.*

When the Canadian Parliament reassembled after the winter intermission it found among the questions pressing for consideration three of particularly urgent character: the necessity of the western farmers for funds to make up for the failure of their crops, the negotiations with Japan over immigration to the Dominion, and a number of differences, chiefly commercial, with the United States. The western agricultural problem was met by the decision of the Dominion Government to lend to the farmers of the new provinces of Al-



HON. RODOLPHE LEMIEUX.

(Canadian Postmaster-General and Minister of Labor, who has just returned from a successful diplomatic mission to Japan.)



LOVE—AT LONG RANGE.

JAPAN: "Lady, I recognize that my advances are distasteful to you; but I trust I may still regard myself as a friend of the family?"

CANADA: "If you'll promise to let me see as little as possible of you, I don't mind being a sister to you, for mother's sake."

From Punch (London).

berta and Saskatchewan funds to purchase seed corn, amounting in all to some \$4,000,000. Upon his return from his mission to Tokio the Hon. Rodolphe Lemieux, who is Postmaster-General and Minister of Labor, presented to Parliament a letter from Baron Hayashi, Japanese Minister of Foreign Affairs, in which, after expressing the most friendly feelings toward the Dominion, Baron Hayashi declared that hereafter all emigration of contract laborers, artisans included, would be prohibited by the imperial government "unless they come from Japan at the request of the Dominion Government." This declaration has convinced the ministry at Ottawa of the sincerity of Japan's intentions. The Dominion Japanese policy was then considered in open Parliament (January 29) and upheld by a vote of almost two to one.

*Mr. Bryce's  
Visit to  
Ottawa.*

Ambassador Bryce's visit to Ottawa, late last month, to take up with the Canadian administration the details of the negotiations affecting Canada and the United States, will,

it is hoped in both countries, result in embodying in a treaty all the points of difference and dispose of them entirely. Mr. Bryce's work will be made easier by the visit of Secretary Root to Ottawa some months ago. Of course the question of Newfoundland fisheries is among the most important, but it is being reported that the various questions which are to be made the basis for the treaty may be summarized as follows:

(1) Transit free of duty of merchandise across portions of American and Canadian territory; (2) transit of merchandise without payment of duty until arrival at points in the interior; (3) the application of the alien labor laws to citizens of the United States and Canada; (4) reciprocal mine-owning rights; (5) conveyance of American prisoners through Canadian territory and vice versa; (6) reciprocal salvage and wrecking rights; (7) the disposition of certain pecuniary claims; (8) the exemption of Canadians coming temporarily to the United States from payment of head tax; (9) distribution of power from Niagara Falls.

*Britain's  
Economic  
Problems.*

In King Edward's speech opening the winter session of the British Parliament, on January 29, the following measures, as well as many others, are promised consideration and probable enactment: a licensing law, primary and secondary education reform, old-age pensions, Irish university education, improvement of the port of London, valuation of English land, housing reform, town planning, the provisions for Scottish small holdings, and the fixing of an eight-hour day for labor in mines. The speech was perhaps most remarkable for what it did not say about some of the pressing problems of the empire, including the discontent in India and the racial problems of Canada and the Transvaal. More than one Parliament, and at least one preceding session of the present Parliament, have been wrecked on the licensing and education questions. It is probable, however, that attempts will be made in these directions during the present term. Something surely will be done toward solving the housing problem and the settlement of the small-holdings question in both Scotland and England. Mr. John Burns, as President of the Local Government Board, in full concurrence with the rest of the ministry, is endeavoring to push to a successful conclusion the proposals of the National Housing Reform Council. These advocate the establishment of a strong central authority responsible for carrying out the provisions of the Small Holdings act of 1907. They will aim to improve and supervise the sanitary condi-

tions and sites of buildings throughout England and Scotland, and will ask for power and money to build workingmen's cottages on municipal land.

*Is English  
Agriculture  
to Revive?*

The popular verdict of the nation appears to be constantly going against the Liberals, each by-election showing a government defeat. This has not, however, deterred Premier Campbell-Bannerman from again challenging the House of Lords. Two of the Scottish land bills passed by the lower house last session and rejected by the peers are to be revived, the Premier announces, passed by the Commons, and sent unaltered to the Lords for their reconsideration. This is the first time in the history of England that a bill has been resubmitted to the House of Lords within the life of a single Parliament. The Socialist and Labor strength has been increased during the present session. The question of whether agriculture will be revived in England is also a pressing and significant one, particularly as the time approaches,—January 1, next,—when the Agricultural Holdings act of 1906 will go into effect. Agriculture has declined greatly in England during the past century, but it is evident that the government is conscious of this decline, since a large proportion of the measures now before Parliament and under discussion by the political leaders deal with the reallocation and redistribution of public and private lands. A number of government measures are advocated with this in view, including an agricultural parcels post.

*A  
Dutch  
South Africa.*

In less than a decade since the close of the Boer War we find the Dutch Afrikaner element in complete triumph in Britain's South African dominions,—triumph, it should be noted, through the legal and orderly channels of constitutional government. Late in January the general election was held in Cape Colony, and the result showed a strong victory for the opposition,—that is, for the Afrikaner Bond. Dr. Jameson, the famous Transvaal raider, who has been Premier since 1904, at once resigned. His successor, Mr. J. X. Merriman, leader of the Bond, is a strong advocate of the federation or union of the five colonies, insisting, however, that each colony shall have the right to make its own tariff. The sweeping victories of Het Volk and Orangia Unie in the Transvaal and the Orange River Colony, taken with this vic-





MULAI HAFID.

(The brother of the reigning ruler of Morocco, who has been proclaimed Sultan. From a portrait redrawn from a photograph by Señor M. Alcazon, the artist of the *Ilustracion Española y Americana*, Madrid.)

tory at the Cape, indicate the existence of a strong spirit of South African nationalism. This national consciousness will serve to unify and consolidate the interests and life of all the British dominions in South Africa, and eventually, it is believed, result in a new nation. Just now the burning question in the Transvaal and the Orange River State is what to do with the Asiatic labor which is arriving in such vast numbers, particularly when it comes from India and other parts of the British Empire.

*The Interminable Problem of Morocco.* France's problem in Morocco is not made easier by the advance of the cause of Mulai Hafid.

The new Sultan, who was proclaimed by the Ulemas on January 11 at Marakesch, appears to be surely winning the support of the people. Mulai Hafid is now practically in possession of the whole interior of Morocco, and of the coast town of Saffi, while Abd-el-Aziz holds the other coast towns alone. France, however, is practically bound by the treaty of Algeciras to support Abd-el-Aziz, still the official head of the distracted Moorish Empire. The future is uncertain indeed. In the meanwhile the bandit chief Raisuli has actually released Sir Harry MacLean,

the British commander of Abd-el-Aziz's bodyguard. During his seven months' captivity, which Raisuli consents to terminate for a consideration of \$100,000, payment guaranteed by the British Government, the fate of the Kaid MacLean was the subject of concern throughout the civilized world.

*Ex-Minister Delcassé Makes a Speech.* A new interest was added to the Moroccan question from a European standpoint by the speech in the French Chamber of Deputies on January 24 by M. Delcassé, the first public utterance of this statesman since his retirement in 1905 from the ministry of foreign affairs. M. Delcassé defended his Moroccan policy, characterized the attitude of Germany throughout the entire Moroccan dispute as a "bluff" to break the circle of France's international friendships, and closed with these words:

Thirty-seven years ago, while France was prostrated and isolated, Germany, her conqueror, was building up the Triple Alliance. At last our present chain of alliances and understandings, forged after infinite pains, guarantees our security for the future. The whole world recognizes that the Anglo-French agreement prevented a universal outbreak during the Russo-Japanese war. Our greatest peril now lies, not abroad, but in internal dissensions at home. If we stand true to our alliances France will remain the mistress of her destinies.

It is interesting to note in passing that on February 11 an arbitration treaty between the United States and France was signed at Washington by Secretary of State Root and Ambassador Jusserand, and submitted for ratification to the Senate on February 17. It provides for the arbitration of all questions that may arise between the United States and France. The signing of this document by our State Department, following so closely upon the successful negotiation of the tariff agreement with France (signed January 27), is gratifying evidence of our cordial friendly relations with the great republic across the Atlantic.

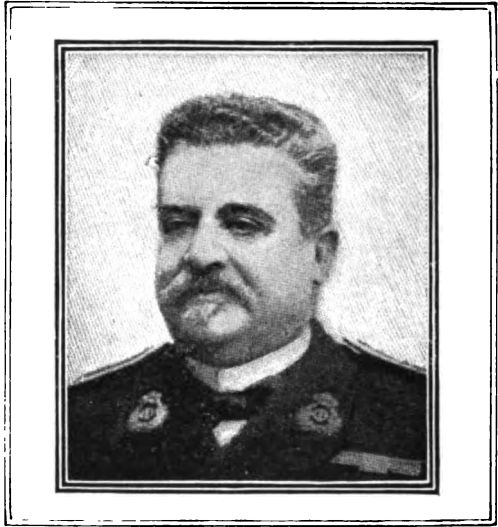
*The Lisbon Tragedy.*

One of the most terrible and inexcusable crimes in the history of political assassination was committed on the morning of February 1 on the streets of the Portuguese capital. While driving through the streets of Lisbon King Carlos I. and his son, Prince Luiz Filipe, were shot by a number of men (variously stated at from three to ten), and the second son, Prince Manuel, seriously wounded. Queen Amalia

narrowly escaped with her life. The assassins, most of whom were apprehended at once, are alleged to be anarchists, although the anarchist leaders repudiate them, as do also the Radical Republicans, who for months have been suspected of plotting for the overthrow of the monarchy. Lisbon was at once put under martial law and the Spanish frontier guarded. Senhor Franco, the former Premier-Dictator, against whose life it is believed the assailants were also plotting, immediately fled to Spain and thence to Paris. The full details of what has been happening in Portugal have been slow in reaching the rest of the world, owing to the rigorous censorship, and also to our unfamiliarity with social, economic, and political conditions in the little Iberian kingdom. We call the attention of our readers to Miss Moore's article on another page this month, which gives an excellent general idea of Portugal and Portuguese conditions since the fifteenth century, when the little kingdom was at the zenith of its power and glory.

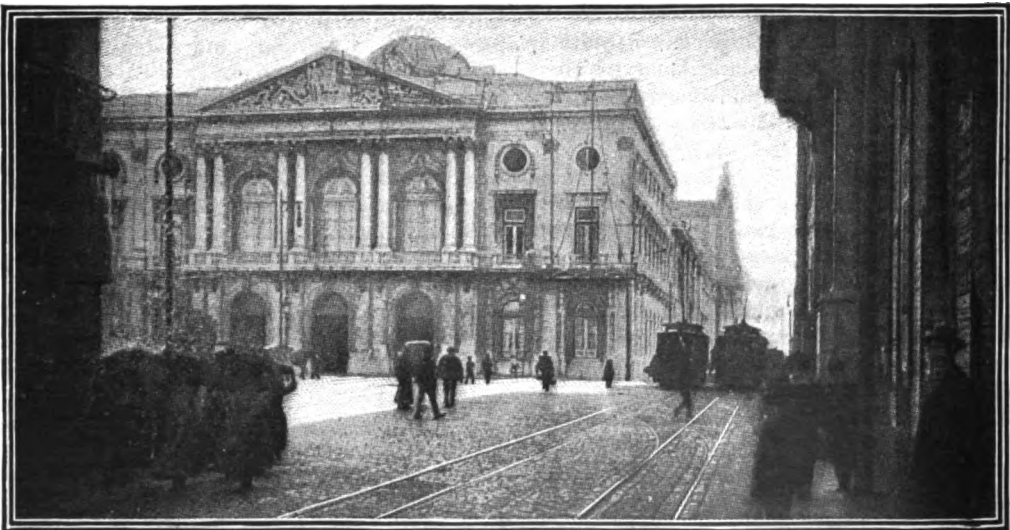
*Political  
Conditions in  
Portugal.*

As has been pointed out more than once recently in these pages, political conditions in Portugal have been deplorable for years. One of the Radical leaders, writing in the new magazine, the *International* (edited in London by Dr. Rodolphe Broda), declares that during the past half-century the Portuguese monarchy has constantly and flagrantly vio-



REAR-ADMIRAL FERREIRA DO AMARAL.  
(The new Portuguese Premier.)

lated the constitutional rights of the Portuguese people. Parliamentary government has been a farce, and "the Premier, the King, and the entire royal house have been guilty of the greatest extravagance and corruption as well as attempted despotism." For more than a year the constitutional guaranties have been suspended. There can be no doubt that Premier Franco's vigorous, honest methods were beginning to tell in the direction of cleaner, more modern government. This



A VIEW OF THE PRAÇA DO COMMERCIO IN LISBON.

(The Palace in the Portuguese capital in front of which,—where the trolley cars show in the illustration,—King Carlos and his elder son were assassinated on February 1.)

masterful man determined to clean out the government regardless of the constitution. Under his rule, great economies were effected, dishonest officials were turned out, and the morale of the public service was greatly improved. His régime, however, was probably too arbitrary, and the suspension of the constitution was opposed by all parties. There is a strong Radical Republican party in Portugal which has never hesitated to plot revolution. Another political group, known as the Miguelists, has been supporting the claims of Dom Miguel, pretender to the throne. Personally, King Carlos was extremely popular, an easy-going, pleasure-loving monarch of the best of intentions. The murdered Crown Prince was also popular and a young man of fine qualities.

*The New  
Boy King,  
Manuel II.*

The surviving son, who was at once proclaimed King as Manuel II., is a fine, manly youth, in his nineteenth year, and has already commended himself not only to the sentiment but to the good sense of the Portuguese people by his modest, manly words upon his accession. In a proclamation issued immediately after the assassination the new King declared that it was his intention to retain Premier Franco and the existing ministry. He at once also commended himself to the good offices of the cabinet by addressing them in these words: "I know nothing of science or kingcraft. I place myself in your hands, needing and counting on your wisdom and patriotism." The strong popular opposition to Premier Franco and the charge openly made by the bereaved Queen that he was really responsible for the royal tragedy led to the resignation of the dictator and his entire cabinet. A new ministry was at once chosen, headed by Rear-Admiral Ferreira do Amaral, a high-minded man of liberal but monarchical sentiments. The new administration repealed the more obnoxious of Franco's measures, restoring all the constitutional guaranties and releasing many political prisoners, and the new Premier announced that elections for the Cortes will be held early in May. Meanwhile Europe is watching the leaders of the Republican party in Lisbon. The proclamation of a Portuguese republic may be an event of the not far-distant future.

*Germany's  
Peaceful  
Intentions.*

Persistent newspaper reports asserting that the Berlin foreign office had declared Germany's intention of detaching herself from the European concert in the Balkans and sup-

porting Turkey's scheme for Macedonian police and that the Kaiser's government was also intriguing, over Austria's shoulder, in the Balkan railway matter to discredit Russian prestige and gain undue influence in the Near East, has at last called forth an emphatic denial from the German Ambassador at Washington, Baron Speck von Sternburg. On February 17 the attitude of the German Government concerning both the Balkan question and the North Sea question was set forth by Baron Sternburg in an explicit statement which is a gratifying indication of the desire of the Kaiser's government to possess the good opinion of the people of the United States. Baron Sternburg denies that Germany has refused to support the "Muerzsteg Program" for reform in Macedonia agreed upon some years ago between Austria and Russia and indorsed by the rest of the European concert. Instead of seeking to embroil Austria with Russia over the proposed new railroad which will connect Vienna and Salonika, Germany, says the Ambassador, is striving to relieve the tension between these two powers. She favors the railroad only as an extension of progress in the Balkans.

*The  
North Sea  
Question.*

The recent publication (made by the French foreign office on February 12) of the terms of the treaty signed some months ago by France, Great Britain, Germany, and Russia, guaranteeing the integrity and neutrality of Norway, has revived again the question of the North and Baltic Seas, which had apparently been settled. This problem concerns the balance of power in the two northern seas. As formulated by this treaty, which assures Norway against a seizure by Sweden or Russia of a harbor on its North Sea coast, it raises the question whether the three other states bordering on that sea and one on the Baltic as well,—Denmark, Holland, and Belgium,—ought not also to receive international guaranties. The security of Denmark's position, commanding as she does the entrance to the Baltic, is of great international importance. If her neutrality and integrity be guaranteed by the great powers, which seems a reasonable and desirable future political event, it would follow apparently that the future national existence of Holland and Belgium be also assured. Indeed, France and England are practically committed to this last. Would the German Emperor, however, willingly become party to an agreement that would extinguish a hope he has always been

believed to cherish,—that of eventually absorbing Holland and the Dutch East Indian Empire? Ambassador Sternburg's protestations on this point in the statement already referred to are unmistakable and vigorous. The German Empire, he declares, "laid special importance on the participation of Holland in this agreement [the guaranty of Norwegian integrity], as the idea of an annexation of Holland by Germany has recently been spread by a portion of the western European press. The Dutch Government has taken part in the negotiations from the very beginning and has expressed its high appreciation with regard to the German proposal." Germany's policy with regard to Belgium, also, he declared, is "clear and peaceful."

*Russo-Turkish Relations.*

Possibilities of armed warfare face Russia from two new quarters: from Finland in the north and from Turkey in the south. When the Finnish Diet began its sessions, on February 12, the program and speeches of the leaders indicated that the reactionary Russian campaign for the "reduction" of Finland would meet with the most vigorous opposition. If, as it is being currently reported, the St. Petersburg government is really contemplating an early restoration of the hated Bobrikov régime in Finland, armed revolution is again imminent on the shores of the Baltic. The Finns are loyal to the Emperor, but remain convinced that the maintenance of their present constitution is absolutely necessary for a proper development of their national life. The strained relations between the empires of the Czar and the Sultan have their origin in two apparently remote occurrences,—the unchecked Turkish raid over Armenia into Persia, and the reported acquiescence on the part of the Sublime Porte in the Austrian plan for the construction of several new railway lines in the Balkans. The Russian foreign office looks upon these two occurrences as indications of German intrigue to dominate, through Austria, and the much-discussed Bagdad Railway project, not only the Balkans, but the entire Near East. Although it has been frequently announced that the Turkish Government had declined the offer of Austrian capital to build a railroad ultimately connecting Vienna with Salonika, it is being currently reported in Russia,—particularly since the retirement of Prince Ourousov, Russian Ambassador to Vienna,—that Turkey, relying on German support, has been preparing for months for a war with

Russia, which, say some of the well-informed journals of central Europe, will break out before summer.

*An Indiscreet Ambassador.*

Meanwhile the third Duma proceeds on its rather uneventful career, disappointing both friends and enemies. A comparison of the work of this Duma with that of the two preceding sessions of the Russian Parliament is presented on another page of this issue. A rather sensational development of the financial situation in Russia last month was the recall of the French Ambassador Bompard from St. Petersburg at the request of the Czar's government. M. Bompard, it appears, in a private letter to one of his banker friends in France some months ago strongly advised against loaning any more money to Russia. Comparing the present political and economic condition in the empire to that in France before the Revolution, the ex-Ambassador wrote that he believed the Russian revolutionists would eventually win, and said further:

I do not think the Russian people will ever repay the loans which the present government is floating. France did not pay the old debts of the Bourbons after the Revolution, and I am quite sure the Russian people will never pay the old debt made by the Romanovs. I shall strive to prevent the French Government from lending any more money to Russia as long as I am Ambassador at St. Petersburg.

This letter was secured and photographed by the Russian police and the evidence of M. Bompard's improper conduct presented to the Clémenceau cabinet. His recall followed, but that he still retains the confidence of the Paris government is evident from his immediate elevation to the rank of Grand Officer of the Legion of Honor.

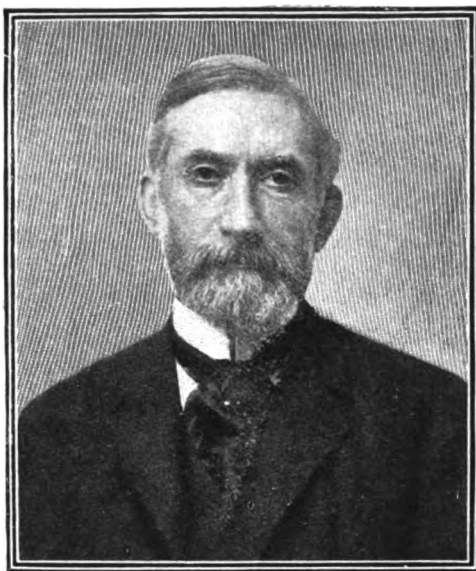
*The Troubles of Persia.*

Constitutional government does not seem to be working very well in Persia. It is believed that the new Shah, Mohammed Ali Mirza, is secretly reactionary in sentiment, and would gladly, if he were able, withdraw the constitutional privileges conceded by his father, the late Muzaffar-ed-din. A number of revolutionary outbreaks in widely separated sections of the country indicate national dissatisfaction, chiefly, it is true, with the exactions of the tax-gatherer. It should not be forgotten that in Persia the clergy, unlike their brethren in almost all the rest of the world, are liberal, even radical. It was the Mollahs of Persia who really brought about the new reforms. They have been stirring the peasantry to de-

mand full constitutional rights. Centuries of misgovernment, however, have brought Persia to a bad plight. There is famine in almost one-half of the country, insubordination in the army, an empty treasury, revolt in the two capital cities, Teheran and Ispahan, and corruption in the civil service,—all of which do not make good soil upon which to grow constitutional government. Moreover, the unceasing efforts of British, Russian, and German political and commercial interests to secure dominating influence in the land of the Shah have combined to make the Persian problem a very serious one for the peace of the world. The invasion of Persian territory by Turkish marauding bands, and even regular armed forces, more than once during the past few months, while officially attributed to differences over boundary claims, and disavowed from Constantinople, is believed to have been the result of a deliberately planned intrigue to involve Russia and Turkey in a conflict which might retrieve some of the prestige lost by the Czar's empire in her war with Japan. The entire problem of the Near East in all its phases,—Egypt, the Balkans, Turkey, Persia, and India,—has become more involved since that great conflict.

*Japan's Singularity in the Emigration Matter.*

According to an interview published on January 24 in one of the leading daily newspapers of Tokio, the Japanese Foreign Minister, Baron Hayashi, publicly announced that if existing regulations to prevent the influx of coolies to the United States are not effective the Japanese Government will not hesitate to prohibit emigration to Hawaii, Mexico, and any other section of the globe from which illegal entrance to the United States might be possible. On the whole, the interview, the tone of which was borne out later by official replies to interpellations in the Japanese Diet, shows entire willingness on the part of Japan to remove the greatest danger to the friendly relations between the two countries. The consideration of Japanese commercial interests alone, Baron Hayashi is reported to have said, would "justify our policy as to foreign relations, and the misconception of politicians is disadvantageous to the state. Our present policy is fully justifiable from the standpoint of the fundamental principles of our international relations."



Photograph by the Mises Selby, New York.

HON. THOMAS J. O'BRIEN.  
(American Ambassador to Japan.)

The Foreign Minister announced the intention of the imperial government to investigate thoroughly the question of Japanese so-called students, who go to the United States and then show their real character as coolie laborers. Baron Hayashi's statement had a quieting effect on more than world capital. These concessions were outlined in the official communication of the Tokio government handed to Ambassador O'Brien on February 19, in reply to his note of January 26. Meanwhile domestic troubles of Japan continue to disturb the Mikado's statesmen. By a very narrow majority last month the government's financial measure was approved in the lower house of the Diet, only nine votes saving the ministry from censure. The measure provides for considerable increase in taxation on sugar, alcohol, beer, and petroleum. The Japanese capital is busy preparing for the international exposition which Japan will hold from April 1 to October 30, 1912. The exhibition, which will be opened in one of the parks in the outskirts of Tokio, is not to commemorate any historical event, but to show to the people of the world the political and economic development of the Japanese people.

# RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From January 21 to February 17, 1908.)

## PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

January 21.—In the Senate, Mr. Teller (Dem., Colo.) introduces a bill providing for the purchase of \$100,000,000 in silver for subsidiary coinage.

January 22.—Both Senate and House discuss the Penal Code bill.

January 23.—In the Senate, Secretary Cortelyou's policy in distributing government funds in the recent financial disturbance is discussed. .... In the House, Chairman Tawney of the Appropriations Committee states that the deficit for the current fiscal year may amount to \$100,000,000.

January 24.—The House, in considering the Urgent Deficiency Appropriation bill, debates political topics.

January 27.—The Senate discusses the alleged existence of slavery in the Philippines. .... In the House, Mr. Fowler (Rep., N. J.) speaks in support of his credit currency bill.

January 30.—In the Senate, the Finance Committee's report on the Aldrich bill is presented. .... The House passes the Urgent Deficiency Appropriation bill.

January 31.—A special message from President Roosevelt is read in both branches. .... The Senate considers the bill revising the criminal laws. .... The House begins consideration of the Indian Appropriation bill.

February 3.—The Senate passes a bill providing for a new immigrant station at Philadelphia. .... The House passes a bill granting a pension of \$12 a month to all soldiers' widows.

February 4.—The Senate passes the Urgent Deficiency bill carrying about \$24,000,000. .... The House debates the President's special message.

February 5.—In the Senate, Mr. Beveridge (Rep., Ind.) urges the passage of his bill for the creation of a tariff commission. .... In the House, Sereno E. Payne (Rep., N. Y.) predicts that the next Republican national platform will contain a tariff-revision plan.

February 6.—The Senate passes a bill appropriating \$700,000 for the Yukon Exposition in Seattle in 1909 and a bill placing Major-Gen. O. O. Howard on the retired list with the rank of lieutenant-general. .... In the House, an amendment to the Indian Appropriation bill aimed at the Carlisle and Hampton schools is defeated.

February 7.—The Omnibus War Claims bill is passed by the House; a currency bill representing the views of the Democrats is introduced by Mr. Williams, of Mississippi.

February 10.—In the Senate, Mr. Foraker (Rep., Ohio) speaks in reply to President Roosevelt's denial that federal patronage had been used to aid Secretary Taft in Ohio; Mr. Aldrich (Rep., R. I.) speaks in support of his currency bill; Mr. Depew (Rep., N. Y.) defends Secre-

tary Cortelyou's policy in the recent panic. .... The House considers the Indian Appropriation bill.

February 11.—The Senate debates the Aldrich Currency bill. .... In the House, Mr. Tawney (Rep., Minn.) questions the power of the President to appoint the Inland Waterways Commission.

February 12.—In the Senate, Mr. Rayner (Dem., Md.) discusses the Currency bill and condemns the present banking system. .... The House passes the Indian Appropriation bill.

February 13.—The Senate debates the Aldrich bill and the Penal Code. .... The House closes the debate on the Legislative Appropriation bill.

February 14.—In the Senate, Mr. Lodge (Rep., Mass.), Mr. Aldrich (Rep., R. I.), Mr. Clay (Dem., Ga.), Mr. Teller (Dem., Colo.), and Mr. Hopkins (Rep., Ill.) take part in the debate on the Aldrich Currency bill. .... The House considers the Legislative Appropriation bill.

February 17.—The House passes the Legislative Appropriation bill.

## POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

January 21.—The North Carolina Legislature meets in special session, having been called by Governor Glenn to make a change in the Railroad Rate law. .... The Mississippi Legislature elects John Sharp Williams (Dem.) to the United States Senate to succeed H. D. Money. .... The Rhode Island Legislature elects George Peabody Wetmore (Rep.) United States Senator. .... John Franklin Fort (Rep.) is inaugurated Governor of New Jersey, and Edmond F. Noel (Dem.) as Governor of Mississippi.

January 22.—The Public Service Commission for the Second District of New York State makes its first annual report to the State Legislature, promising an investigation of passenger rates.

January 23.—Governor Joseph W. Folk (Dem.) of Missouri formally announces his candidacy for United States Senator to succeed William J. Stone (Dem.). .... Secretary Taft, in a letter to Representative Parsons, of New York, says he does not wish to make a contest with Governor Hughes for the New York delegates to the Republican National Convention.

January 26.—Secretary Taft transmits to Congress a special report on the Philippines based on personal observation.

January 27.—The first five cases of the Pennsylvania capitol prosecution begin in Harrisburg.

January 29.—Governor Hughes is indorsed by the New York Republican County Committee as a candidate for the Presidency.

January 30.—The Kansas Legislature passes a bill for the insurance of bank deposits under the general supervision of the State Charter Board (see page 340). .... It is announced that Comp-

troller Metz, of New York City, will make a public offering of \$50,000,000 4½ per cent. city bonds.... Mayor McClellan of New York appoints Dock Commissioner Bensel to succeed J. Edward Simmons as a member of the Board of Water Supply.

January 31.—Governor Hughes of New York, speaking before the Republican Club of New York City, defines his national policies.

February 1.—Governor Joseph K. Toole (Dem.) of Montana resigns because of ill health.... The federal Government files a bill in the United States District Court at Salt Lake City charging the Harriman railroad lines with restraint of trade and asking an injunction against them.

February 3.—A convention held at Manila unanimously indorses the candidacy of Secretary Taft for the Presidential nomination.

February 5.—Charles A. Stillings, chief of the Government Printing Office, is suspended by President Roosevelt.

February 7.—The members of the Republican Congressional Campaign Committee are elected at a caucus of Senators and Representatives held at Washington.

February 9.—President Roosevelt characterizes as "false and malicious" the accusation that he had made federal appointments with a view to furthering the Presidential candidacy of Secretary Taft.

February 10.—In a speech at Kansas City, Secretary Taft makes a general defense of the Republican party and especially of the policies of the present Administration.... The Postal Commission created by Congress one year ago submits a preliminary report advocating a long term of service for the head of the Post-Office Department.

February 11.—The Ohio primary elections result in a sweeping victory for Secretary Taft.... Governor Hughes of New York sent a message to the State Senate demanding the removal of Superintendent of Insurance Kelsey; he also designates Attorney-General Jackson to bring action against the American Ice Company at New York City.

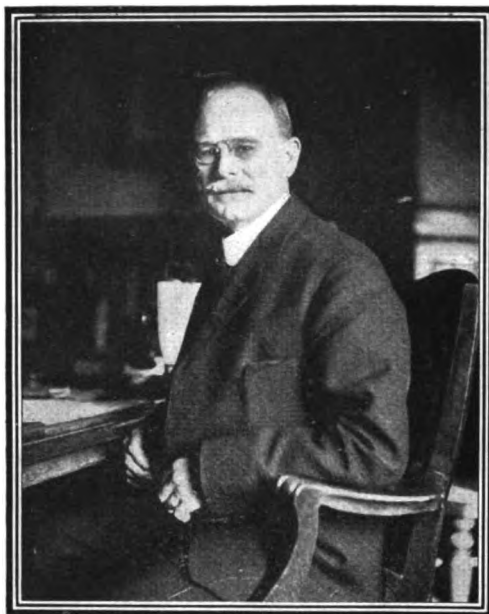
February 12.—Senator Knox (Rep., Pa.) speaks in favor of a system of national waterways.... A movement in favor of Judge George Gray (Dem.), of Delaware, for President of the United States is launched in Pennsylvania.

February 14.—The New York bond issue of \$50,000,000 is heavily over-subscribed.

February 15.—It is announced in Washington that the Government will prosecute the Southern Pacific Railroad Company on the charge of giving rebates to shippers.... Congressman Theodore E. Burton (Rep., Ohio) is renominated and also made a delegate from Cleveland to the Republican National Convention and instructed for Taft.... Secretary Taft speaks on national politics at New Haven, Conn.

February 16.—Rear-Admiral Converse, U. S. N., in a report made public at Washington, answers the recently published criticisms of the American navy.

February 17.—President Roosevelt accepts the resignation of Frank H. Hitchcock, First As-



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DR. CHARLES P. GRANDFIELD.

(Who succeeds the Hon. Frank Hitchcock as First Assistant Postmaster-General.)

sistant Postmaster-General, who is succeeded by Dr. Charles P. Grandfield.

#### POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

January 21.—The Russian Duma resumes its sessions and passes some minor bills; strong opposition to the naval program is shown on all hands.... Premier Laurier, of Canada, advocates the reform of the Dominion Senate on United States lines.

January 22.—The British Labor party at Hull adopts by 514,000 to 469,000 votes the resolution declaring that socialism is the definite object of the party.... The Chilean Congress passes a bill for a railway running from north to south.

January 23.—The police in Lisbon discover a plot to overthrow the Portuguese monarchy.... The defeat in the lower house of the Japanese Diet of a motion to censure the government is held to insure the retention of the cabinet and the probable passage of the budget.

January 24.—The French Chamber of Deputies discusses the policy of France in Morocco.... The Portuguese Government issues a statement saying that it believes the maintenance of order to be assured.

January 25.—The Haitian Government announces the occupation of Gonaives and the capture and execution of Jean Jumeau, the leader of the insurgents.

January 26.—President Alcorta closes the session of Congress at Buenos Aires, and orders the adoption of a budget.

January 27.—A conference of New South Wales labor delegates reject by a vote of 118 to 27 a motion in favor of collective ownership, and of a means of production, distribution, and



exchange... The Canadian Government holds a conference at Ottawa to arrange a loan for western farmers... The Republicans of Portugal issue a manifesto.

January 28.—An imperial ukase sanctions a Russian internal loan of \$83,000,000 at 4 per cent... Sir W. S. Robson is appointed British Attorney-General to succeed the late J. L. Walton; Samuel Thomas Evans is appointed Solicitor

for Ireland, makes an attack on the present Irish policy of the government.

January 31.—Dr. Jameson resigns as Premier of Cape Colony because of the victory of the Dutch in the Parliamentary elections.

February 1.—King Carlos of Portugal and the Crown Prince are assassinated.

February 2.—Manuel II. is proclaimed King of Portugal.

February 3.—Premier Franco of Portugal resigns office, and a new cabinet is formed under the premiership of Admiral Ferreira do Amaral... Mr. Asquith, speaking in the British House of Commons, says that the government has decided not to reintroduce the Irish Council bill.

February 6.—Freiherr von Stengel, Secretary of the Germany Imperial Treasury, resigns on account of financial questions which remain unsettled.

February 9.—Financial trouble in Denmark is averted by the government and leading banks of Copenhagen uniting to guarantee obligations.

February 10.—A bill providing penalties for the sale of cigarettes to persons under sixteen, establishing juvenile courts, and punishing drunken parents who accidentally kill their children, passes its first reading in the British House of Commons.

February 11.—The British peers issue an appeal for a large fund to carry on the campaign against Home Rule... The police repel an attempt of woman suffragists to storm the British House of Commons and make forty arrests.

February 12.—The Finnish Diet meets at Helsingfors.



MR. T. L. LEWIS.

(Chosen to succeed John Mitchell as president of the United Mine Workers of America.)

tor-General... Delegates from three Basque provinces meet at Bilbao and decide to demand from Spain full restoration of rights granted in 1830... The French Chamber of Deputies, by a vote of 428 to 92, sustains the French Government's policy in Morocco... Count Hayashi outlines the foreign policy of Japan in a speech before the lower house of the Diet... At the first public sitting at Calcutta of the factory labor commission evidence is given as to the conditions under which child labor is employed in the cotton mills.

January 29.—The third session of the present British Parliament is opened by King Edward... A new Bulgarian cabinet is formed under M. Mahnoff... Many persons are shot in a political riot in Lisbon, Portugal... Germany's naval program providing for the expenditure of \$100,000,000 annually for ten years passes its first reading in the Reichstag.

January 30.—In the British House of Commons a hostile amendment on the subject of unemployment is rejected by a vote of 195 to 146... The Marquis of Londonderry, former Vice-



THE LATE JAMES R. RANDALL.  
(Writer of "Maryland, My Maryland.")

February 13.—There is a riot in the Japanese House of Representatives over the financial budget.

February 15.—Nicholas Gerhard, Governor-General of Finland, is removed and General Boeckman appointed to the post.

#### INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

January 21.—Mr. Lemieux explains to the Canadian House of Commons the arrangements made with Japan on the immigration question; all contract laborers are excluded under the agreement....The Congo Reform Association, at a meeting in London, adopts resolutions denouncing the proposed treaty of transfer....It is announced that the claim of the French Government against the new Panama Company and Colombia for \$2,800,000 has been compromised, the company paying \$1,600,000, of which Colombia contributes \$300,000....It is decided at Washington to send the cruiser *Des Moines* to Haitian waters to protect American interests.

January 22.—A Brazilian squadron accompanies the American battleship fleet to sea from Rio de Janeiro.

January 25.—The French Government takes rigorous measures to prevent the introduction of cholera from Mecca into French territory.

January 27.—A conference is held in London by the Balkan Committee to affirm the responsibility of Great Britain and other European powers for the restoration of order in Macedonia....The Tibetan envoy to Great Britain pays the last installment of the Tibetan indemnity at the British foreign office....M. Pichon, the French Minister of Foreign Affairs, outlines France's policy in Morocco before the Chamber of Deputies.

January 28.—President Roosevelt issues a proclamation announcing the conclusion of the Franco-American reciprocity arrangement drawn under the Dingley act....The Japanese Government announces that the Canadian immigration question is definitely settled.

January 29.—The Tibetan indemnity having been paid, the Government of India orders the evacuation of the Chumbi Valley.

February 1.—France decides to recall M. Bompard, the Ambassador to Russia.

February 2.—Negotiations are opened for the appointment of a Turkish diplomatic agent accredited to the Vatican to deal directly with the Papal officials on the protection of Catholics in Turkey.

February 4.—The Congo treaty is withdrawn and returned to the plenipotentiaries in order to prepare a text and conditions regarding the crown domain which will insure speedy ratification.

February 5.—China informs Japan that offices for the collection of customs have been opened on the western Manchurian frontier under the agreement made with Russia.

February 10.—An arbitration treaty between the United States and France is signed by Secretary Root and Ambassador Jusserand at Washington.

February 11.—Russia and Austria reply unfavorably to Sir Edward Grey's proposal re-

garding the establishment of order in Macedonia.

February 17.—It is announced that Turkish reserves have been called to the colors in Asia Minor and have been moved to the Persian frontier.

#### OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

January 21.—Demonstrations of 50,000 unemployed are held in Berlin, Germany....The intercontinental railway which unites the Pacific with the Atlantic is opened in Guatemala.

January 22.—The will of Morris K. Jesup leaves \$1,000,000 to the American Museum of Natural History, New York City.

January 23.—The Bank of England reduces the rate of discount from 5 to 4 per cent., while the Bank of France announces a cut of from  $3\frac{1}{2}$  to 3 per cent....A so-called "march of the unemployed" through the streets of Chicago to the City Hall is broken up by the police (see page 336).

January 24.—The cotton-mill workers at Manchester, England, accept the terms of the employers, thereby averting a great lockout....A fire in the city of Portland, Maine, results in a loss of \$1,000,000, destroying the official city and county buildings....A movement is begun in Chicago to raise a fund of \$100,000 for the city's unemployed....Andrew Carnegie offers \$200,000 to Berea College, Kentucky, on condition that a like amount be raised.

January 25.—The worst storm in fifty years is reported at Nantucket, with thousands of dollars' damage.

January 26.—The American torpedo-boat flotilla, escorted by Argentine vessels, arrives at Buenos Aires....The National Bank of North America, of New York City, goes into the hands of a federal receiver.

January 27.—An Income Tax Reduction League is organized in London, England....It is announced that the American expedition into the interior of the Congo Free State, led by R. Dorsey Mohun, has been attacked by natives and compelled to withdraw....The United States Supreme Court declares unconstitutional the law prohibiting discrimination against members of labor organizations by common carriers engaged in interstate commerce....Fire in the business district of Portland, Maine, causes a loss of \$830,000.

January 28.—An imperial edict is published in China granting Sir Robert Hart leave of absence for two years....A conference of prohibition leaders is held at London, England, with the object of forming a world's confederation....An "army of unemployed" marches on the City Hall at Detroit, Mich.; the Mayor promises to urge the hastening of city work as a measure of relief.

January 30.—Representatives of the American Civic Association submit to President Roosevelt a plan for the preservation of Niagara Falls....The Mechanics & Traders' Bank and the New Amsterdam National Bank, of New York City, suspend.

January 31.—The American battleship fleet enters the Strait of Magellan....The Oriental Bank of New York City closes its doors.

February 1.—The American battleship fleet arrives at Punta Arenas....Federal Judge Thompson hands down a decision at Cincinnati against the United Typothetæ of America in the litigation to force the International Printing Pressmen's and Assistants' Union to live up to an alleged nine-hour agreement....After having been acquitted of the murder of Stanford White, Harry K. Thaw is taken to the New York State Asylum for Criminal Insane....The Home Bank of Brooklyn, N. Y., is closed by the New York State Superintendent of Banking.

February 3.—T. L. Lewis is chosen president of the United Mine Workers of America, to succeed John Mitchell.

February 4.—The American torpedo flotilla arrives at Punta Arenas.

February 6.—Kaid Sir Harry MacLean is set free by the bandit Raisuli after seven months' captivity.

February 8.—The funerals of King Carlos and Crown Prince Luiz are held at Lisbon, Portugal.

February 10.—Two indictments are found against Charles W. Morse, the New York banker.

February 11.—The one hundredth anniversary of the discovery of the combustibility of anthracite coal is celebrated at Wilkes-Barre, Pa....Heinrich Conried resigns as director of the Metropolitan Opera House, New York City, and is succeeded by Julio Gatti-Casazzo.

February 12.—Six automobiles, one of which is an American-built car, start from New York City on a tour to Paris by way of Alaska, Siberia, and Russia.

February 13.—Six bronze tablets in memory of American soldiers and sailors are unveiled at Tien-tsin, China....One hundred and seventy Japanese immigrants are detained at Victoria, B. C....Ex-Governor Foster M. Voorhees, of New Jersey, is indicted in connection with the investigation of the Bankers' Life Insurance Company of New York City.

February 14.—The American battleship fleet arrives off Valparaiso, Chile....A tornado destroys three towns in Mississippi, causing the loss of a score of lives....The American ship *Emily Reed* founders off the coast of Oregon; twelve lives are lost....Deputy Chief Kruger of the New York Fire Department is killed while fighting a fire.

February 15.—Oxford and Cambridge universities, England, decline the challenge of American colleges and universities for a track and field contest....Floods in the Ohio River do great damage.

#### OBITUARY

January 21.—Dr. Mary Wood-Allen, author of popular hygienic books....Walter M. Ferriss, contributor to cyclopedias and dictionaries, 82.

January 22.—Morris K. Jesup, the New York banker and philanthropist, 77....Sir David Brand, chairman of the Crofters Commission, 70....Ex-Congressman George W. Bowdon, of Virginia, 55....Franklin C. Cornell, eldest son of the founder of Cornell University, 71.

January 23.—Edward Mac Dowell, the composer, 46 (see page 301)....Gen. Jules Louis Lewal, French Minister of War in 1885, 85.

January 24.—Auguste Wilhelms, the noted violinist and concert master, 62.

January 25.—"Ouida" (Louise de la Ramee), the novelist, 68....Brig.-Gen. Anthony Hager, U. S. A., retired, 80.

January 26.—Rev. John Alexis Edgren, D.D., founder of the Swedish Baptist Theological Seminary at Chicago, 69....T. Tschigorin, the chess master, 58.

January 27.—Gen. Charles H. Howard, of Chicago, 70.

January 28.—Cardinal Richard, Archbishop of Paris, 89....Ex-Congressman John Coburn, of Indiana, 83....Prof. Gustav E. Karsten, of the University of Illinois, 49....Daniel C. Heath, head of the well-known publishing house, 64.

January 29.—Capt. Jules Bailly, osteologist at McGill University, Montreal, 77.

January 30.—David Johnson, the American landscape painter, 81....Arthur W. Fergusson, secretary to the Philippine Commission, 48....Burr Robbins, an old-time circus man, 70.

February 1.—King Carlos I., of Portugal, 44, and Crown Prince Luiz Philippe, 20.

February 2.—Associate Justice John S. Wilkes of the Tennessee Supreme Court, 67....Raphael Guastavino, the architect who devised the arch used in the New York subway, 55.

February 3.—Judge Thomas Mellon, of Pittsburgh, 95....Col. T. G. Lawlor, former commander-in-chief of the G. A. R., 64....Ferdinand Meldahl, the Danish state architect, 83.

February 4.—Ex-Congressman George B. Wise, of Virginia, 77.

February 6.—James W. Pinchot, philanthropist and art patron, 77.

February 7.—Prof. Albert Harrison Mixer, of the University of Rochester, 85.

February 9.—John W. Oliver, the veteran editor of the *Yonkers Statesman*, said to be the oldest active editor of a daily newspaper in the United States, 92.

February 10.—Ex-Congressman George Augustus Jenks, of Pennsylvania, 72....George Herbert Sass, lawyer and writer of Charleston, S. C., 62....Justice George B. Abbott of the New York Supreme Court, 57.

February 11.—Ex-Chief Justice Franklin J. Dickman of the Ohio Supreme Court, 80.

February 12.—James D. Layng, former president of the "Big Four" Railroad, 74.

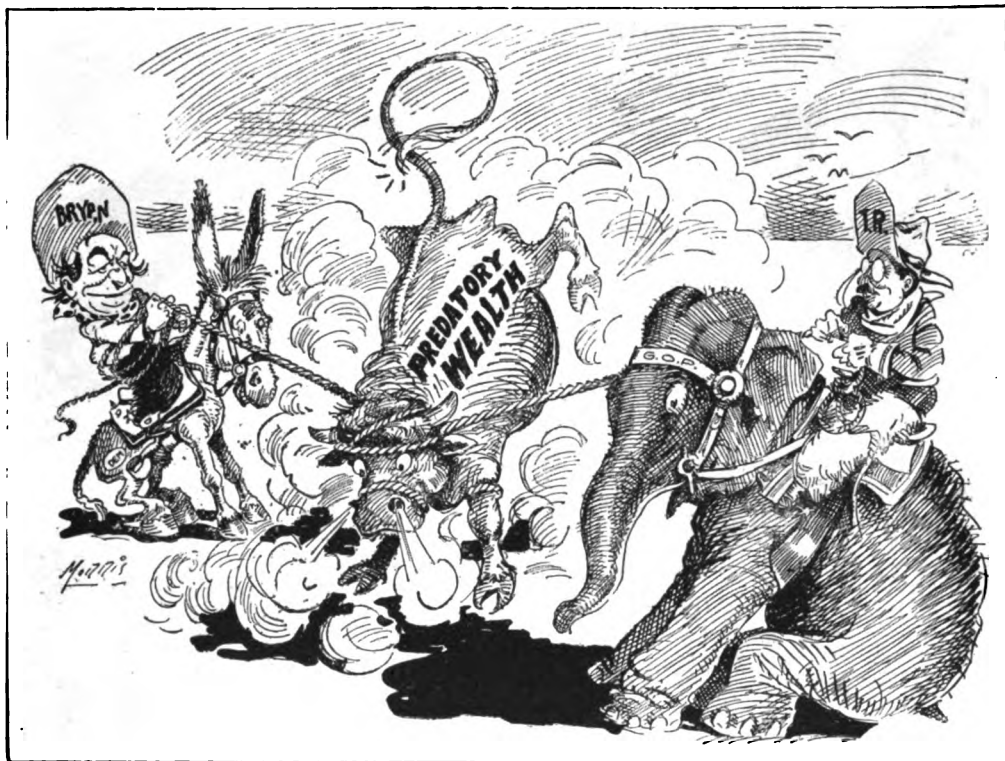
February 13.—David Parish Barhydt, at one time treasurer of the Republic of Texas, 92....Sir James Knowles, founder, proprietor, and editor of the *Nineteenth Century*, of London, 77.

February 14.—Deputy Fire Chief Charles W. Kruger, of New York City, 57.

February 16.—Thomas K. Bruner, for twenty-one years head of the North Carolina Department of Agriculture, 54.

February 17.—Austria's oldest statesman, Ignaz Edler von Plener, 98.

## SOME OF THE RECENT CARTOONS.



ROPED.  
From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane).



THE WATER'S FULL OF 'EM.  
From the *Globe* (New York).



HANDS ACROSS THE SEA! AS CONGRESS SEES IT!  
From the *Constitution* (Atlanta).





THE IRATE INDIVIDUAL: "Teddy did it."  
From the *Journal* (Detroit).



"THE WORLD IS MINE."  
From the *Post* (Cincinnati).



THE SAME OLD THING.  
From the *Constitution* (Atlanta).



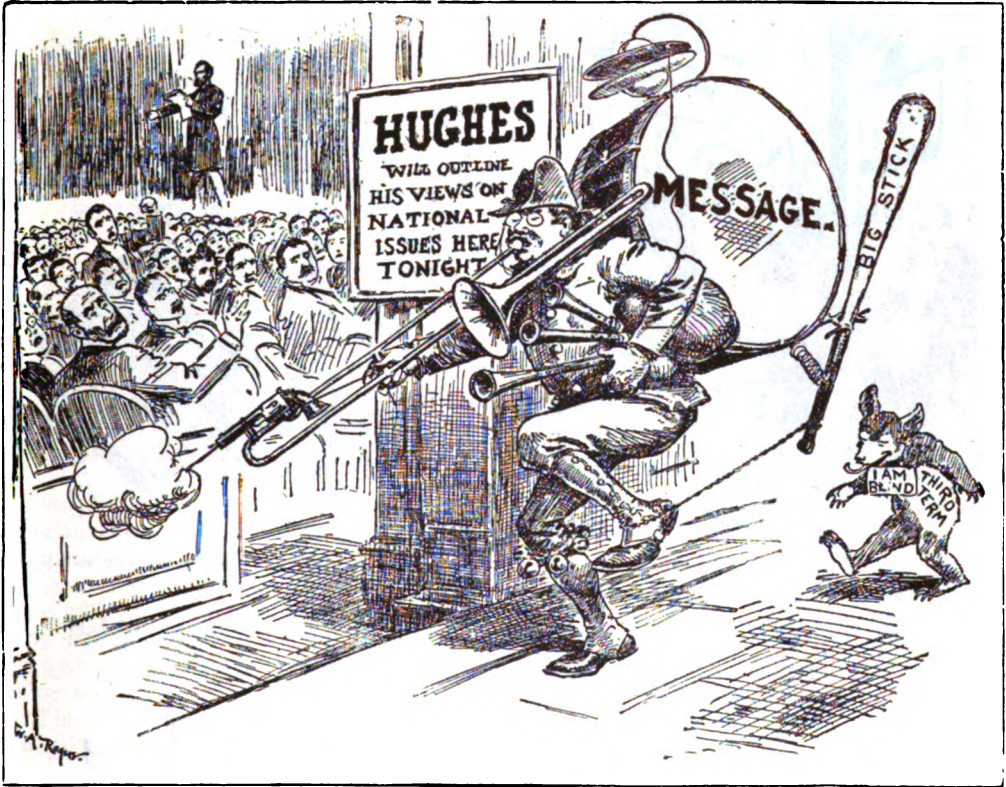
VICE-PRESIDENT FAIRBANKS' FIRST FULL BAG.  
From the *Inter-Ocean* (Chicago).



CAN HE SURVIVE THEIR ATTACKS?  
From the *Herald* (Washington, D. C.).



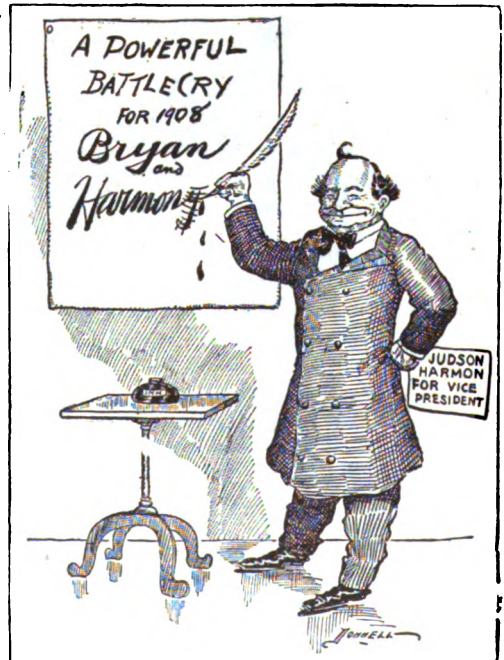
ARMY AND NAVY BILLS KEEP JAPAN HUSTLING.  
From the *Leader* (Cleveland).



"ME TOO!" (See papers of February 1.)  
From the *Herald* (New York).



HE FINDS IT EASY TO JUGGLE OHIO.  
From the *Herald* (Boston).



SOMETHING IS ALWAYS HAPPENING TO THAT LAST WORD.

From the *Globe-Democrat* (St. Louis).



SECRETARY TAFT WOOLING MISS MICHIGAN.  
"Two is company; three is a crowd."

From the *Journal* (Detroit).



THE CURRENCY QUESTION IS A HARD NUT FOR UNCLE  
SAM TO CRACK.

From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane).



GENEROUS BILL TAFT: "Now, remember, Hughie, just one little bit off the end."

From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland).





# FRANK A. VANDERLIP, BANKER-JOURNALIST.

BY CHARLES F. SPEARE.

THE most amazing, and certainly the most difficult, situation in which he has ever been placed was the one in which Frank A. Vanderlip found himself in the summer of 1901. He had come over from Washington, where he was Assistant Secretary of the Treasury under Lyman J. Gage, to take the position of vice-president of the National City Bank of New York. A desk was given him in a very good location in the parlors of the bank and possessing a pleasant outlook on Wall Street. But no duties were assigned. Here he was, a high-salaried officer of a \$25,000,000 institution, surrounded by men his senior in years and in experience, in the midst of tremendous energy, a part of one of the smoothest-running machines of the sort in existence, but with no apparent obligation to make this machine go.

The experience was unique. It sounds rather unreal and imaginary, and like the sinecures of bankers which comic papers portray.

But Mr. Vanderlip was not expected to sit and indefinitely twirl his thumbs. He was not of the mold to do so if he might. He knew that he had not been picked as an ornament to the bank, but must soon find his place as a working unit in its manifold affairs. He realized also that James Stillman, the silent and crafty president, had enough honest conceit in the success of his bank not to wish his work of organization criticised. So Vanderlip let the rôle of critic alone. There was danger of treading on other people's toes, so infinite tact, good nature, and diplomacy were required. What he realized most forcibly was that he had been given a chance to find himself, and that the highest premium paid by the business world into which he had been transplanted was for ideas. Therefore he looked around to see where he could broaden the scope of the bank's undertaking. Its routine affairs were splendidly managed and required no change.

Mr. Vanderlip is a man of broad-gauge interests. He is such by reason of temperament, his early environment, his training, and as a result of his later experience. Obviously Mr. Stillman recognized this fact,

though he had only seen his new officer twice before he offered him a position. The Stillman ambition was to make his bank of international reputation and importance; to give it something of the character of the great credit institutions of Europe. It already held first rank in capital and surplus and in the size of its deposits, and was the largest government depository in the United States.

This dream was the only cue, if any, that Mr. Vanderlip had to work from. He responded to it quickly enough, for it fitted in with his preconceived ideas of what a great American bank should be. So, without altering any established policies, he mapped out a campaign carrying him into fields which no national bank had entered, and thereby surrounded his institution with new influences. Soon he began to extract for it the liberal profits to which the pioneer is entitled.

Before he became a banker Mr. Vanderlip was five years in the Treasury service. Prior to that he was eight years a financial writer on a Chicago newspaper. The bent of his mind was critical and toward fundamentals. He was received in New York banking circles as a neophyte, as one of an academic type, a theorist, a pleasant enough fellow and clever, but not cut out for the job into which he had dropped. The banker who had grown up into the routine of the business did not see just where Vanderlip fitted in.

There is nothing very unusual in Mr. Vanderlip's history. We honor and admire the self-made American, but we no longer stand agape at him. He is not an uncommon type among us. Mr. Vanderlip is such a one.

He was born November 17, 1864. His boyhood was passed on an Illinois farm, an hour's ride out of Chicago. His father's death, when Vanderlip was but twelve, may have changed the whole course of his career. It certainly gave him a degree of responsibility early in life which seasoned and stiffened him for the work and the shocks of maturer years. In Aurora, where he lived, there were not many selections to make, for a youth bent upon paying his own way, and he had to take

the sort of position that offered itself. To Vanderlip the best opening seemed to be in a machine shop. There, at sixteen, he became an apprentice. He had no mechanical bent, but even at that time his demand for knowledge of the thing that was closest to his workaday world was a conspicuous quality in his make-up. He was all the time studying his surroundings, studying from machines and from men and from books. One readily sees where his later interest in trade schools originated, and how it is that he speaks to-day with authority on the subject of labor unionism and the discouraging outlook in these times of machine labor for the individual who desires a broad experience in any department of handicraft.

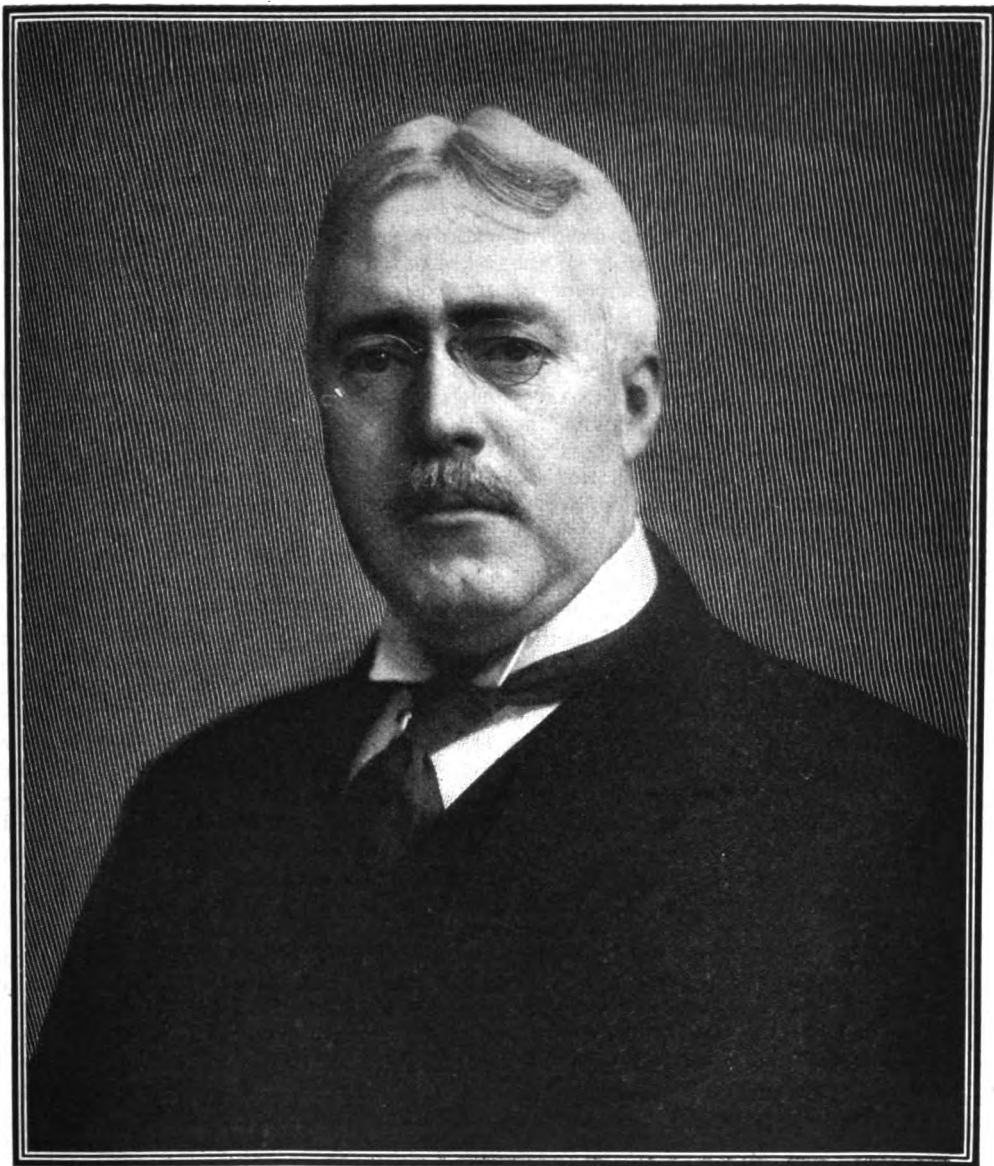
Concerning this experience he wrote two years ago: "Very early in my apprenticeship I was strongly moved to get some intellectual grasp of the work. But, although I was in a community proud of its schools, it had nothing to offer to youths whose days were fully taken up with their regular occupations. With considerable difficulty I found a man who could teach me drafting, another who was willing to give instructions in mathematics. I was not one bit different from my fellows in blue overalls. Much of the money that I spent to pay my own instructors I earned by teaching mathematics, out of working hours, to my shopmates. They were quite as keen as I for an opportunity to get an intellectual outlook on the business in which they were engaged. They had no desire to be mere tenders of machines. But, he says, there was no opportunity to satisfy a "zealous interest in a systematic industrial development" along trade lines that would supplement the common-school curriculum. This is what he advocates in a country where industrialism is so paramount as in our own. Mr. Vanderlip believes that the university course should give the advanced student opportunity to make his learning of practical value. Therefore he has made a strong plea for instruction in commercial subjects. "I believe in the educated man in business," he said, in an address before the Convocation of the University of New York at Albany in June, 1905. "I believe the present college course is not the best that can be devised for the training of men who are to be leaders in commercial and financial life." His interest in the subject of higher education brought to Mr. Vanderlip the honor of a trusteeship of the Carnegie Foundation, the \$10,000,000 fund established for teachers' pensions.

We have seen that the outlook in the machine shop was not bright. Vanderlip's mind turned rather indifferently to electrical engineering as an outlet for his energies. He had been doing considerable tutoring. He was an excellent student in the theory and practice of mathematics. Through economy he saved enough to spend a year in the University of Illinois, and recently his alma mater has recognized his achievements in the gracious tribute of a master's degree. Living within the sphere of Chicago influence, it was inevitable that he would soon drift away from his home town to the Western metropolis.

There is a sequence in nearly all of the events that occurred from the time, in the middle '80's, when he entered the office of a bureau for investors in Chicago to the day, fifteen years later, when he landed in the National City Bank in New York. But the constant promotion, the advance, step by step, from an obscure position to one of national prominence, was not, actually, progress toward the attainment of a preconceived ambition. It was more a matter of accident; perhaps there was something of destiny in it. His path might have led in many directions, but wherever it led he was bound to make the most of its opportunities; for one of the intense qualities of the man is to know all that is to be known of the business in hand. Success with such a person cannot be indefinitely postponed.

Vanderlip began as a stenographer, working with Joseph French Johnson, the present dean of the New York School of Commerce. His office made detailed reports on corporation statements, analyzing them and reviewing their weak and strong features. In this Vanderlip soon became an expert, and the critical and concise character of his argument to-day, both in speech and in writing, has probably grown out of this work of review. He was getting "at the root of the matter" then. He has been getting at it in many different ways since. He owes his success very largely to his complete grasp of the details and of the larger questions of every position he has filled.

From the investors' bureau he followed Mr. Johnson into the newspaper field. He did work as a reporter, but soon his experience in accounts led him to the financial department of the paper. It was not long before he succeeded his former chief as financial editor of the *Tribune*. Working on a morning paper, he had time to study between



Photograph made for the REVIEW OF REVIEWS by Davis & Eickemeyer, N. Y.

MR. FRANK A. VANDERLIP.

hours in the University of Chicago. As a financial writer he set about to master the subjects of the currency, of banking law, and of international exchanges, going at it in the same conquering spirit that he had exhibited in every other place he had filled. It is safe to say that there is not an American banker to-day who has a better knowledge of the laws under which he does business or a broader understanding of the currency question than Frank Vanderlip. It is a deplorable fact that American bankers, as a class, are so deficient in knowledge of fundamental principles of banking. I firmly believe that

our unsatisfactory currency laws, and the fact that so little has been done to correct them, is due to the timidity of bankers in approaching a subject about which they understand so little, and which has for them a more esoteric reputation than it deserves.

During those anxious days of last October, when the financial structure of the country was tottering, Mr. Vanderlip was one of the small company of bankers in almost continuous conference at the home of J. Pierpont Morgan. It was not the first time that he had been called into a consultation when panic was breeding. The circum-

stances surrounding his original experience were rather unusual and illustrated more forcibly than any episode in his newspaper career the confidence in which he was held by the men whose circle he frequently entered in search of news and views.

This incident of which I speak occurred in 1896, at the time of the bursting of the Diamond Match bubble, when a panic of very serious proportions was narrowly averted. The rottenness of the situation was not generally appreciated, but the "high finance" of the Moore Brothers in extravagant stock manipulation, together with the involved state of Chicago traction affairs under the juggling of the late Charles T. Yerkes, had produced a condition which threatened to tear down the results of years of upbuilding.

Sitting in his office in the Tribune Building near midnight in August, Vanderlip was summoned to the telephone. At the other end of the wire was Lyman J. Gage, then vice-president of the First National Bank of Chicago and afterward Secretary of the Treasury.

"Come at once to the house of Philip Armour," he said. "There is an important meeting here and we want your cooperation."

Vanderlip did not need urging. Arriving at the home of the great packer, he was astonished at the gathering he found. Here were a score of the leading bankers of the city, the president and governors of the Stock Exchange, and representative merchants. Very simply the situation was explained. The Moore Brothers would suspend with liabilities of \$20,000,000; the Chicago Stock Exchange would not open the next day; it was quite possible that several banks in the West and East might go under. He was asked to take charge of the news, and, while printing the facts, prevent their undue coloring and exaggeration, since this would simply mean bank runs and endless disaster. Even then men were beginning to appreciate the value of publicity of the right kind.

Vanderlip went back to his office and dictated a column "story" covering the facts. It was a "plain, unvarnished tale" that he told in the early morning hours, and from a literary standpoint not good "copy." Then he called up all of the other Chicago papers, and pledging them to use only what he had written and to even adopt his headlines, he released the matter. At breakfast, a few hours later, all of Chicago read the same

facts, astonishing as they were and like lightning from a clear sky, and realizing that the whole truth had been told and that the worst was known, calmly accepted the situation. Subsequently, when an important bank failed as a sequel to this crash, Vanderlip was again called in by the clearing-house committee and asked to see that the news was conservatively treated. No American newspaper man has ever had a higher compliment paid to his integrity and his ability. Those who understand something of the severe competition for news and the crowning glory in a newspaper man's life of a "beat" will appreciate what this incident meant to Vanderlip.

It was the habit of going to the root of things that attracted Lyman Gage to Vanderlip. When the newspaper man called on the banker the latter always felt that he knew less about the subject discussed than the interviewer. When he was invited to a cabinet portfolio in March, 1897, Gage asked Vanderlip to go along with him to Washington as private secretary. But Vanderlip quickly proved himself too big a man for such a position. Three months later he was appointed Assistant Secretary of the Treasury. He served there until his resignation in the winter of 1901. This covered the war period and the big Spanish war loan. It was Vanderlip's capacity for organization, displayed in this issue, that attracted the attention of James Stillman.

The loan was a popular issue and required an immense amount of detailed labor. In the face of all sorts of discouraging opinion as to the probable success of a popular loan, in which the attempt of Secretary Sherman and its failure were cited, Vanderlip organized a special force of 300 clerks, who worked night and day in eight-hour shifts, handled the 300,000 subscriptions representing over \$1,000,000,000, and was able, on the day the bids were closed, to forward notices to the successful bidders. This was one of the most remarkable achievements of the kind ever performed, and won for the young Assistant Secretary his department spurs. His books on the night the allotment closed did not show a cent's deviation from a proper balance.

There was an interim of several months between the time Vanderlip left the Treasury and took up his indefinite duties at the National City Bank. These were occupied in a tour of Europe, in which he uncovered some of the secrets of European commerce and finance, and the results of which are so

well set forth in his brochure "The Commercial Invasion of Europe." This was very opportunely published, as Europe was frightened at the way the American trade balance was mounting, and even our own people did not appreciate the position in which we stood as a commercial nation. The pamphlet was reprinted in several languages, with two editions in Japanese.

Every one familiar with financial affairs remembers the address that Mr. Vanderlip made before the Wilmington, N. C., Chamber of Commerce in September, 1902. It struck a note that echoed around the world. No one more than the author was surprised at its reception. Short paragraphs were reprinted the next morning in the New York newspapers. The following day longer extracts appeared. Then an enterprising journal published the speech in full in its Sunday edition. The effect of it was cumulative. The nub of the address was in the statement that the country had been traveling at too fast a pace; that there had been too much over-speculation and inflation, and that a slow-down would be beneficial.

The only person who saw the speech before it was delivered was ex-Secretary Gage, with whom Vanderlip was living in bachelor apartments in New York. But Wall Street jumped to the conclusion that it had been edited and revised and probably inspired by James Stillman and his allies, William Rockefeller and H. H. Rogers, composing the so-called Standard Oil stock market group. The consequence was that prices began to tumble and then ran in a riot of selling. The speech really foreshadowed the depression that set in the following summer. At St. Louis in 1904, at the national bankers' convention at Washington in 1905, and at Jamestown last spring, Vanderlip sounded a note of warning against excessive speculation in times of great commercial activity, when legitimate business demands were absorbing the country's money supplies more rapidly than they could be enlarged. Some persons gained the idea that he was an extreme pessimist and forever looking on the reverse side of the picture of national greatness. The report that "Vanderlip is to make a speech soon" has been invariably followed by a market chill and a period of waiting for the text, during which many stockbrokers would be laying all sorts of ingenious schemes to get advance knowledge of what the speech contained.

The theory that Mr. Vanderlip, on all of

these occasions, was simply the mouthpiece of the National City Bank and its affiliations has been quite strongly held. As a matter of fact, I understand that Mr. Stillman has never enthused much over the idea of an officer of his bank going about making addresses. He is the sort of man who never talks in public and is a strong believer in the old homily that "silence is golden." Nevertheless, he could not but appreciate the prestige that was gained by his bank from the speeches.

In broadening the relation between his bank and the Treasury Department, a relation which has always been legitimately carried out, Mr. Vanderlip opened an avenue which had been more or less closed simply through neglect of it. Two events closely coinciding with his advent into New York banking promoted this intimacy. They were, first, the National Bank act of March 14, 1900, which permitted the organization of a large number of new banks in the United States, and, secondly, the necessity, under the operation of inadequate currency laws, of bringing the Treasury into first place as the regulator of the money market,—the substitute as far as it can ever be of a great central bank. An issue of national bank-notes has to be prefaced with the deposit in the Treasury of government bonds. From the time Vanderlip took office in the National City to the end of last year the organization of new national banks was at the rate of thirty to fifty a month,—2700 in all between 1901 and 1908. The value of bonds on deposit to secure circulation has risen from approximately \$300,000,000 in 1901 to about \$650,000,000 to-day. It was, therefore, good business for the National City to be in a position to act as broker for the great number of new institutions that required "governments" in order to legally establish themselves. The bond department which Mr. Vanderlip created has for the past five years dealt in more government bonds than all other dealers combined, buying as many as \$4,000,000 worth in a day.

During Secretary Shaw's administration the United States Treasury first became a direct factor in international banking. Shaw was daring enough to establish precedents which his predecessors did not dream of. He stretched the law to a point where conservative people stood aghast at it, but justified his action in checking panics. While at the head of the department Treasury news was most eagerly sought by Wall Street, always advo-

cating "Treasury relief" for the tight place into which it had fallen through over-speculation. There is no question that the National City Bank knew, among the very first, what Treasury plans or policies were to be promulgated. The explanation is simple enough. Mr. Vanderlip had long enough been a newspaper man to know the value of keeping a good news source constantly covered. His successor in the Treasury Department, Milton E. Ailes, was permanently established in Washington as an officer of a bank which the National City controls. He was constantly on the ground working in co-operation with a corps of agents which the National City maintains at the Capitol to carry on the detail work required by its large number of bank correspondents. I have not the slightest doubt that Vanderlip and Ailes advised Secretary Shaw in many of his relief measures, for no two men are more familiar with Treasury law than the ex-Assistant Secretaries. Altogether what has been charged to preference is really the result of thorough training in Treasury affairs and complete knowledge of Treasury rules, supplemented with constant vigilance and a considerable amount of intuitive sense and versatility.

I have watched with much interest and not a little admiration the many-sided development of Mr. Vanderlip from the day of his entry into the City Bank, a rather awkward, ponderous and somewhat embarrassed official, until now when he is the actual guiding head of the institution six months of the year and in direct line of succession for the presidency. Few men show such changes in so short a time and few keep so well abreast of their opportunities. With Mr. Vanderlip it has been a period of steady growth in knowledge of affairs and of men; of broadening ideals, though perhaps, a substitution of some new ambitions for those early impracticable ones; of a growing conception of the place which the big bank should hold in the life of a community and the relation that a banker of first rank should have, not only to banking, but to the human things of life and a time of replacing the garment of self-consciousness with that of self-command.

It is no one's secret that Mr. Vanderlip will, before very long, succeed James Stillman as president of the National City, the largest, the most powerful, and the best known bank in America. Recently he has replaced his chief on the boards of the Har-

iman railroads. Mr. Stillman is a director or trustee in about three-score corporations. He is wearying of the active detail affairs of life and gradually putting more of his burdens on younger shoulders. Next year he will realize one of the dreams of his life, the establishment of his bank in the finest architectural settings enjoyed by any similar institution in this country. In the old custom-house across the way from its present home the National City will have externally, as it actually has internally, an aspect of strength as great as that of the everlasting hills. Physically it will not be unlike the Bank of England or the Banque de France. If we ever have a central bank in this country, a project to which Mr. Vanderlip gives his heartiest approval, the National City's relation to it will stand about as the Deutsche Bank or the Dresdner Bank to the German Reichbank; the Credit Lyonnaise, or the Comptoir to the Banque de France; or the big joint stock banks in London, as the City and Midland or the Union of London and Smith's, to the Bank of England.

One other quality which Mr. Vanderlip has brought to his bank is a knowledge of the value of favorable public opinion. The National City will never quite live down the scandal of the Amalgamated Copper flotation. It may go on limiting its rate of interest to 6 per cent. while competitors charge 50 and 100 per cent. in times of stress; it may scrupulously observe the law requiring a minimum reserve of 25 per cent., but the taint of former indiscretions will remain. I am convinced, however, that the day of transgression is past and that the Vanderlip influence and opportunity will establish a different sort of relation between the institution and the public. Mr. Vanderlip is extremely catholic in his views; he is, first of all, an optimist in everything that concerns this country, even though there is a strong reflex on his opinion of German ideas. He is positively domestic in his tastes and lives the year around at Beechwood, his country home at Scarborough on the Hudson, thirty miles out of New York, in a bit of country more like rural England than any spot in the East.

Mr. Vanderlip has always measured up to, and beyond, every position he has filled. As the probable head of the most powerful national bank in the country he is likely to bring a new element into the banking affairs of the nation making for dignity and stability.

# THE OUTLOOK FOR BUSINESS RECOVERY.

BY H. C. WATSON.

(Editor of *Dun's Review*.)

COMMERCIAL conditions may be likened to an automobile with a loose clutch; there is almost every indication that a rapid forward movement is imminent, yet progress is slow. Fuel is abundant in the shape of easy money, and the engine is working freely to all appearances, while depleted stocks of goods suggest that the wheels ought to be turning rapidly, but somehow the transmission of confidence is not quite right. However, so much improvement has occurred from the point of greatest depression that there is good reason to anticipate further gradual gains until the wheels of industry hum once more. Convalescence must be slow after so severe an illness, and it is one of the best signs that conservatism dominates the situation.

During the past four months the country has gone through a process of readjustment in nearly every department. Prices of commodities have declined steadily, even the grain and cotton markets sharing in the downward trend to some extent, although relatively less than many other products because of the support received from urgent foreign requirements. Wages have resisted most stubbornly the general tendency, and the army of unemployed has assumed alarming proportions at several manufacturing centers, although wildly exaggerated stories have been circulated for speculative effect. It is announced by the heads of the trade unions that all propositions to reduce wages will be fought, yet labor will not be immune from the effects of the setback, unless, of course, prosperous conditions return very quickly.

While it is possible to discern many evidences of distinct improvement, it would be over-sanguine to hope for a large volume of business until after the nominating conventions in June and July. Political uncertainty is most untimely in conjunction with all that has happened, and it is conceivable that the nominations may not remove that element of uneasiness, although some of the best judges believe that there will be no cause for anxiety after the candidates are chosen. Others are equally confident that uncertainty will continue until election.

Various records are often taken as measures of current business and barometers of

the future, but several artificial elements render these statistics at this time of less value than usual. Pig-iron production has always occupied a position of importance as being representative of the entire trade situation, and the capacity of furnaces in blast on February 1 showed the first increase since October. This is encouraging, so far as it goes, but the gain is very small as compared with the preceding reduction of over 50 per cent. On the other hand, the curtailment was not natural. Had the steel mills delivered finished products according to specifications, or sought new business during the closing months of 1907, a much larger quantity of pig iron would have been required. But doubt of the ability of purchasers to pay for the goods cut down business much more than cancellations, while the same sentiment of caution resulted in instructions to salesmen to make no effort to get business. Expenses had also been abnormally heavy, particularly as to labor, and an opportunity was offered to get back to a more normal cost of production. Yet these were all artificial conditions that made the iron barometer indicate a much heavier contraction in business than actually occurred, and will to some extent reduce its value as a guide in the near future.

## INTERPRETATION OF RAILROAD STATISTICS.

Railway earnings have decreased about 15 per cent. as compared with the returns a year ago, and it is said that the movement of farm staples will soon fall off sufficiently to make the comparison still worse, while great stress is laid upon the 350,000 idle freight cars, and it is suggested that the loss in earnings must at least equal that ratio to the total number. Here, again, it is necessary to look beyond the mere statistics. In the first place, shipments of grain and cotton have been large this season, it is true, but not abnormally so by any means, as the crops were considerably below those of the previous year as to quantity, although higher prices made the value greater. This must not be confounded with tonnage. Movement of that class of freight will show a decrease in coming months, but that is only a seasonable change and will not increase the percentage of loss as compared with last year.



Moreover, the proportion of idle freight cars does not represent the loss in earnings, as terminal facilities were sadly congested a year ago and the business was much more expensive to handle. Recent events enable the roads to operate more economically and promise additional benefits in that respect. Furthermore, encouragement is also to be found in the fact that each weekly return of earnings shows smaller losses than the week preceding, and the confirmed pessimist wholly ignores the fact that comparisons are being made with a year of unprecedented activity. Ten consecutive years of accumulating superlatives have unfitted the American mind for anything but words like "highest," "biggest," and "new record." It is not necessary to go back very far to find lower records for all the statistics under discussion.

#### REAL MEANING OF THE BANK RETURNS.

Bank exchanges tell a story, but must be considered in connection with speculation, which is the most conspicuous feature of the recent crisis. At New York City the latest returns show losses of from 20 to 30 per cent. in clearings, but legitimate business has not fallen off to that extent. A considerable percentage of local bank exchanges is supplied by stock transactions, which have been from 25 to 50 per cent. less than a year ago, and in addition the average of sixty active railway shares is \$24 lower in price, or about 22 per cent. This also contributes to the smaller clearings. At leading cities outside New York many of these features are eliminated, and the reduction of 5 to 15 per cent. in most cases has more significance, while several sections of the country are actually reporting gains as compared with last year's clearings.

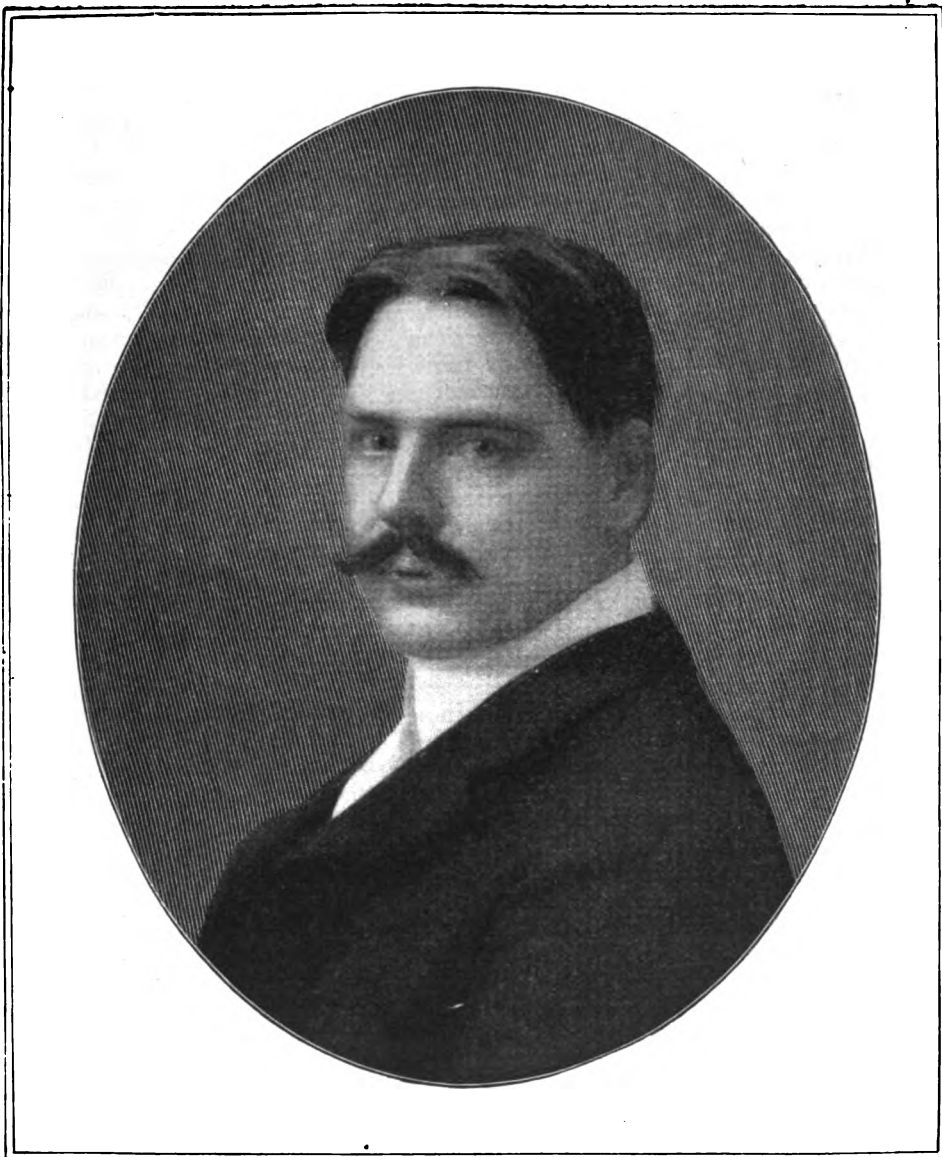
#### THE RATIO OF INSOLVENCY.

Turning to statistics of failures it is found that mortality has indeed been heavy, partly due to the rapidity with which many firms have engaged in business in recent years and also the increase in amount of money involved. In this comparison also there is a natural tendency to ignore the phenomenal expansion that has occurred. As the aggregate number of firms enlarges there might very properly be an increase in insolvencies without any heavier mercantile death rate; that is, the proportion of bankruptcies. Yet there is little allowance made for the growth of business in most comparisons of commercial failures. Detailed analysis of this nature

readily shows that the ratio of total failures to firms in business or the defaulted liabilities to solvent payments through the clearing-houses both make startlingly favorable comparisons with preceding years of special stress. During a period of abnormal prosperity, when prices of everything are ascending and the banks extend credit far beyond the point of safety, there is a disposition to expand that is an obvious menace in a time of pressure. These weak concerns, incompetently managed, are the first to succumb, and the atmosphere is benefited by their removal, conservative houses no longer having to suffer from their competition.

#### GOOD GROUNDS FOR OPTIMISM.

Recapitulation of the comparative statistics that are considered the best measures of commercial and industrial conditions indicates that the memorable crisis of October, 1907, did not unsettle the foundation of things, nor did it produce a situation from which recovery must of necessity be prolonged. It may take a little more time on account of the proximity of election day, and the mental attitude which controls the return of confidence may retard the tightening of the clutch that brings the power of the engine to bear upon the wheels, but there is nothing radically wrong. Nothing is worn out in the American machine. It is comparatively new. This country abounds with natural resources that are only partially developed. The ground has scarcely been scratched in some of the mineral regions, and little of the vast agricultural area has reached the point where any fertilization is necessary beyond scientific alternation of crops. It can easily compete in production of grain with older nations where crops can only be raised by the use of expensive chemical fertilizers. The outside world is dependent upon 8,000,000 bales of our cotton that assures an income of about \$400,000,000 annually for this single product. It is only another evidence of the nation's comparative youth that its currency laws are inadequate, and this difficulty will be remedied as the subject of finance receives more attention. Even now there is a safety about the quality of our money that is far better than elasticity with less solidity. Little tangible excuse exists for pessimism, and it is not stated that any of the croakers have joined the army of aliens who returned to Europe this winter. Most of these aliens will be immigrants again when the snow is off the ground.



EDWARD MAC DOWELL (BORN, DECEMBER 16, 1861; DIED, JANUARY 23, 1908.)

## MAC DOWELL, AN AMERICAN GENIUS.

BY LAWRENCE GILMAN.

**W**ITH the death of Edward Mac Dowell there passes a music-maker whom an apprehending critic called "the most poetic composer in America." The praise is just, so far as it goes. But Mac Dowell was more than that,—he was one of the most spontaneously poetic composers with whose music the world is familiar, irrespective of geographical limitations.

"The fertilization of music by poetry," to employ a luminous phrase of Wagner's, would have meant for him no mere esthetic abstraction, but an intimate and ever-present reality. He was a musician, yet he looked out upon the visible world and inward upon the world of the emotions through the transforming eyes of the poet. The art of music differs from the art of painting, of sculpture,

of poetry, in that it does not in itself suggest any correspondence with reality. A landscape, a piece of sculpture, bears a direct and obvious relationship to the external world,—it is, at bottom, a transcript of reality; so also do words, artfully disposed, evoke the thought of definite objects, experiences, and events. Music, alone and of itself, has no such correspondence, no such relationship; it is not concerned with the events or the aspects of reality; it is, in the literal meaning of the term, the most supernatural of the arts. Yet it may, through an association with words,—as in the opera, in the song, in the symphonic poem, in the program-symphony,—be made to suggest images and evoke definite moods with an eloquence that is beyond the power of paint or molded clay or cunningly ordered words. Liszt makes the orchestra tell the story of Mazeppa far more eloquently than does Victor Hugo; the "Don Juan" of Richard Strauss is far more potent and moving than is the poem by Lenau of which it is an illustration; the "Afternoon of a Faun," as put upon the orchestra by the French impressionist, Claude Debussy, transcends in suggestiveness and poetic glamor the fantastic and famous verses of Mallarmé upon which the music is based. Thus, we see, it is possible for the composer, by allying himself with the dramatist or the poet, to achieve poetry of a truly sublimated kind,—a poetry to which definiteness is given by verbal suggestion, and which possesses a unique eloquence by virtue of the inherent communicative power of music itself. Of this order of tone-poetry,—music quickened and enriched by external suggestion,—we have such examples as the picturesque and imaginative piano pieces of Schumann, the symphonic poems of Liszt, Saint-Saëns, Tchaikowsky, the orchestral mood-pictures and impressions of such gifted men of to-day as Richard Strauss, Claude Debussy, Vincent d'Indy, and the singularly cosmopolitan Charles Martin Loeffler. These men are true tone-poets, commanding an order of musical utterance which, in variety and richness of expressive capacity, has no parallel in the history of musical art. It is among these that Mac Dowell has a place, a place which he occupies alone. His art oversteps parochial bounds; it is an art that has made its way widely in the world; that has worthier and larger claims to consideration than those which are merely patriotic.

Mac Dowell sought always,—or, rather, he was obedient to,—an external poetic stim-

ulus. The art of music-making was for him something more than the art of combining tones for the sake of a beauty sufficient in itself. He wrote, for example, four sonatas for the piano; but they are not merely superb "arrangements" (as Whistler might have called them),—tonal structures whose sole appeal is to the musical sense. He has given them titles,—the "Tragica," the "Eroica," the "Norse," the "Keltic"; and through them he wishes to evoke particular moods, scenes, personalities, events. In one of them he wishes us to feel the especial character and poignancy of the tragedy of King Arthur and Guinevere; in another the wild and bardic spirit of the Scandinavian sagas; in another the stir and movement of the splendid romances of the ancient Gaelic world. The composer has been enthralled and swayed by the dramatic and poetical appeal of these things, and he wishes us to share his emotion; therefore he shapes and colors his music in accordance with a particular trend of events, or at least a particular mood. He thus addresses to us a double appeal,—an appeal to the purely musical sense through the potency of his harmonic and melodic invention, and an appeal to the imagination, to the inner eye, to the poetic and pictorial senses.

#### A NOTEWORTHY LIST OF PIANO PIECES.

In his smaller piano pieces we find Mac Dowell still seeking the same end,—still striving to achieve something more than sheer tone-weaving. Glance at the titles of his shorter compositions for piano as they appear in the list of his works. Here are a set of "Sea Pieces,"—"A Wandering Iceberg," "From the Depths," "In Mid-ocean," "To the Sea," "Nautilus," "Starlight"; here is a sheaf of "Woodland Sketches,"—"To a Water Lily," "A Deserted Farm," "At an Old Trysting Place," "Told at Sunset"; in a later series, the "New England Idyls," are "From an Old Garden," "Mid-Winter," "In Deep Woods," "From a Log Cabin." For orchestra there is an "Indian" Suite; there are two symphonic poems, "Lancelot and Elaine" and "Hamlet and Ophelia," and a suite, the movements of which are called "In a Haunted Forest," "Summer Idyl," "The Shepherdess' Song," and "Forest Spirits." All this, clearly, is the work of a musician peculiarly susceptible to external impressions, and bent upon recording them in tonal form.

No composer since Schumann has displayed



THE MAC DOWELL HOME AT PETERBORO, N. H.

(This property was recently conveyed (subject to the life estate of Mrs. Mac Dowell) to the directors of the Mac Dowell Association. It is one of the objects of this corporation, of which Mr. Richard Watson Gilder is president, to maintain this gift as "a place for work and companionship of students in all the arts.")

a like sensitiveness to the finer stuff of romance. In Mac Dowell, as Mr. James Huneker has aptly and truly said, we find, "not the sham ecstasies of mock medieval romance, but that deep and tender sentiment which we encounter in the poetry of Keats,—in the magic of a moon half veiled by flying clouds; in the mystery and scent of old and tangled gardens." He was exquisitely responsive to the mystery and wonder and beauty of the created world,—its gardens and woods, but also its vast reaches of sea and sky and mountain: in its gentle or brooding or sombre moods he was in touch with it. He had the rapt and transfiguring imagination, in the presence of nature, which is the special possession of the Celt. Yet he was more than a mere landscape painter. The human drama was for him a continually moving spectacle; he was most sensitively attuned to its tragedy and its comedy,—he was never more potent, more influential, indeed, than in celebrating its events. He is at the summit of his powers, for example, in the superb pageant of heroic grief and equally heroic love which is comprised within the four movements of the "Keltic" sonata; and he is almost equally

memorable in the piercing sadness and the transporting tenderness of the "Dirge" in the "Indian" Suite.

#### HIS PLACE IN AMERICAN MUSIC.

To gain a true sense of his place in American music it is necessary to remember that twenty-three years ago, when Mac Dowell sent from Germany, as the fruit of his apprenticeship there, the earliest outgivings of his talent, our native musical art was still little more than a pallid reproduction of European models. Mac Dowell did not at that time, of course, give positive evidence of the vitality and the rarity of his gifts; yet there was, even in his early music,—undeniably immature, and modeled after easily recognized Teutonic masters,—a fresh and untrammelled impulse. A new note vibrated through it, a new and buoyant personality suffused it. Thenceforth music in America possessed an artistic figure of constantly increasing stature. Mac Dowell commanded, from the start, a wholly original idiom, a manner of speech which has been recognized even by his detractors as entirely his own.

His style is as pungent and unmistakable as

Grieg's, and far less limited in its variety. Hearing certain melodic turns, certain harmonic formations, you recognize them at once as belonging to Mac Dowell, and to none other. This marked individuality of speech, apparent from the first, became constantly more salient and more vivid, and in the music which he gave forth at the height of his creative activity,—in, say, the "Sea Pieces" and the last two sonatas,—it is unmistakable and beyond dispute. This emphatically personal accent it was which, a score of years ago, set Mac Dowell in a place apart among native American music-makers. No one else was saying such charming and memorable things in so fresh and individual a way. We had then, as we have had since, composers who were entitled to respect by reason of their expert and effective mastery of a familiar order of musical expression,—who spoke correctly a language learned in the conservatories of Munich, Leipzig, and Berlin. But they had nothing to say that was both important and new. They had grace, they had dexterity, they had, in a measure, scholarship; but their art was obviously derivative, without originality of substance or a telling quality of style. It will thus be seen why the potent and aromatic art of Mac Dowell impressed those who were able to feel its charm and estimate its value.

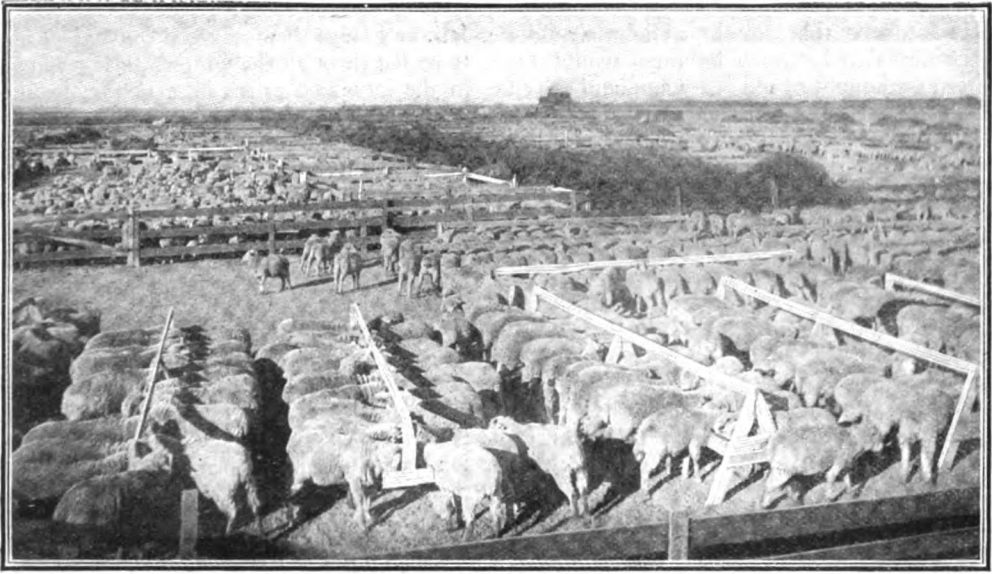
#### HIS "TRANSFORMING IMAGINATION."

An abundance of pregnant, beautiful, and novel ideas was his chief possession, and he fashioned them into musical designs with great skill and unflagging art. He had also, as we have seen, a transforming imagination, a deep and exquisite sense of poetry, a quick and passionate responsiveness to the play of human emotions and to the varied and engrossing spectacle of the natural world. He did not undertake adventures in all of the forms of music. There is no symphony in the list of his works, no opera, no large choral composition, no string quartet. Yet he was far from being a miniaturist,—he was, in fact, anything rather than that. His four sonatas for the piano are planned upon truly heroic lines; they are large in scope and of epical sweep and breadth. His "Indian" Suite is the most impressive orchestral work composed by an American, and its dirge is the noblest and most poignant musical thren-

ody since the "*Götterdämmerung*" *Trauermarsch*. He wrote two piano concertos,—early works, not of his best inspiration,—a large number of the kind of poetically descriptive smaller works for piano which have been discussed above, and almost half a hundred songs of singular loveliness and character. The two symphonic poems, "*Hamlet and Ophelia*" and "*Lancelot and Elaine*"; two "fragments," "*The Saracens*" and "*Lovely Alda*" (portions of a projected "*Roland*" symphony), and the first orchestral suite, opus 42, which he might have entitled "*Sylvan*," complete the record of his output, save for some spirited but not very important part-songs for male voices. The list comprises sixty-two opus numbers and 173 separate compositions,—not a remarkable accomplishment, in point of quantity, yet notable and precious in quality.

#### BUOYANCY, VITALITY, TENDERNESS AND NOBILITY.

What, the casual reader may wonder, is the nature of this quality? What are the distinguishing traits, after all, of Mac Dowell's music? The answer is not easily given. This music is characterized by great buoyancy and freshness, by an abounding vitality, by a constantly juxtaposed tenderness and strength, by a pervading nobility of tone and feeling. It is charged with emotion, yet it is not brooding or hectic, and it is seldom intricate or recondite in its psychology. It is not German in its general aspect, or French, or Italian,—its spiritual antecedents are Northern, both Celtic and Scandinavian. Mac Dowell had not the cataclysmic imagination, the magniloquent passion, the strange sorcery of style, that are Strauss's; his art is far less elaborate and subtle than that of such typical moderns as Debussy and d'Indy. But it has an order of beauty that is not theirs, an order of eloquence that is not theirs, a kind of poetry whose secrets they do not know; and there speaks through it and out of it an individuality that is persuasive, lovable, unique. There is no need to attempt, at this juncture, to speculate concerning his place among the company of the great ones of music; it is enough to avow the conviction that he possessed genius of a rare order, that he wrought nobly and valuably for the art of the country which he loved.



FEEDING SHEEP FOR MARKET IN COLORADO.

## IN THE LAND OF THE SHEEP BARONS.

BY ARTHUR CHAPMAN.

**T**HE cattle barons of the West, who once held undisputed sway over the great public domain, have been displaced, in the last few years, by new lords of wealth and power,—the sheep men.

Travel over the Pecos country in New Mexico, where John Chisum ruled like a lord of old, and where his baronial retainers fought desperate battles with the retainers of rival cattle barons, and what will you find but sheep, and more sheep? To be sure there are plenty of cattle left in the country, but they are split up in tiny herds among the small ranchers, while most of the unfenced range is grazed over by great flocks of sheep, of all grades and values, in charge of Mexican herders in all states of somnolency. In Montana, Wyoming, and Colorado, where the dust of the cattle trails once clouded the blue skies, the old highways of the steer are grass-covered, and,—the mockery of it!—are fed over by dusty-backed herds whose eternal "ba-a-a" brings a curl of contempt to the lips of the cowman. Where the cowboys once faced the storms of the prairie, in their yellow slickers, the sheep herder now crawls into his canvas-covered sheep wagon, where he lives in comfort through the hardest

"norther," and in summer, even to the grassy slopes of the Rocky Mountains, above timber line, one will come upon sheep camps.

### THE SHEEP INTEREST COMING TO ITS OWN.

The metamorphosis of the stock-industry in the West, though it is perfectly natural in the course of events, has not been accomplished without discomfort and loss of life. For twenty years the sheep man has fought for every foot of ground he has gained in the West. He has fought pitched battles with cowmen and ranchers, and has seen his sheep slaughtered by tens of thousands, and his herders killed or driven in ignominy from the disputed territory. But always the sheep owner has come back across the "dead line," until finally his enemy has yielded place. To-day the sheep man is the stronger, instead of the weaker party. A few months ago, when there was a raid on a sheep camp in northern Wyoming, the sheep men offered a large reward for the capture of those who had slain the sheep and burned the sheep wagons. Furthermore, they armed their herders, and, in some instances where danger seemed most threatening, stationed guards about the flocks and announced that any cat-

tle interests that sought a fight would be accommodated. Such boldness would have been unthought of ten years ago, and the case simply shows how the sheep men have grown in power until practically they are the dictators, instead of submitting to the dictation of others.

The sheep man has had many prejudices to overcome. Chief of these has been the theory that sheep destroy a range, trampling out the roots of grass and rendering a feeding ground valueless when once they have passed over it. The folly of this statement has been demonstrated in the West, where the same grazing grounds have been used by millions of sheep for years and are as good to-day as when the sheep first went on them.

#### DECREASE IN THE PAST FIVE YEARS.

A few figures will best emphasize the growth and importance of the sheep industry in the United States. In 1878, according to figures furnished by the Department of Agriculture, there were 35,740,500 sheep in the United States, and on January 1, 1907, there were 53,240,000 sheep. On January 1, 1903, there were 63,964,876 sheep in the country. The decrease from 1903 to 1907 is due to the extraordinary demand for mutton and lamb, leading to the selling and slaughter of a large portion of the total number of sheep. Stockyards reports from Chicago, Omaha, St. Joseph, Kansas City, and Denver in the last few years show a tremendous increase in sheep shipped for slaughter, and still the supply has hardly kept pace with the demand. It is safe to say that the total number of sheep on January 1, 1908, was about 1,000,000 less than the figures of January 1, 1907. There has been a heavy decrease in Montana and Idaho, and an increase in Wyoming. In fact, Wyoming has passed Montana, and is now the foremost sheep State in the Union.

The heavy demand for mutton and lambs has kept down the wool production since 1902. In that year the total number of pounds of wool clipped in the United States was 324,107,462. In 1907 the total clip was 298,294,750, valued at \$78,263,165.

#### FATTENING SHEEP FOR MARKET.

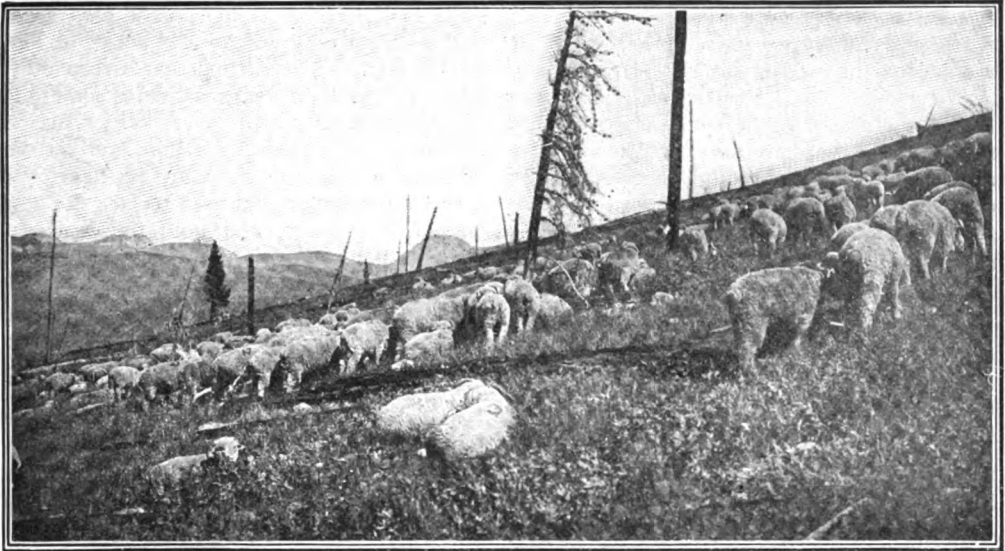
It is estimated that a flockmaster's wool clip will pay the yearly expenses of caring for his sheep, with some profit left over. Thus his sale of mutton and lambs represents clear gain. Of late years a third figure has entered the business,—the sheep feeder. The sheep feeder buys mutton and lambs in the

fall, and ships them to some convenient point to be fed through the winter. His profits are in the increased prices he gets for the sheep in the Chicago market. The greatest sheep-feeding ground is in the vicinity of Fort Collins and Greeley, Colo., a few miles north of Denver. This is the richest agricultural community in the world, producing the highest quality of sugar beets, potatoes, and other farm products. Sugar-beet pulp and alfalfa are fed to the sheep, which fatten rapidly on this diet, and which command top prices when shipped to market. Tens of thousands of sheep are fed in Colorado every winter, and sometimes the profits of the sheep feeders are phenomenal, sheep that are bought for \$5 on the range being sold for \$8 after three months of feeding at the pens.

#### SUMMER FEEDING ABOVE THE TIMBER LINE.

The range question is the greatest problem that confronts the sheep owner, though it is hardly so vexing as it appears in the eyes of the cattle owner, because sheep feed closer than cattle and consequently require less grazing ground. The sheep owners usually have two ranges for their flocks,—a winter range and a summer range. The winter range is usually on the high plateau country adjacent to the Rocky Mountains. There the snows melt fast and do not drift, and the sheep can feed all winter on the bunch grass and sagebrush. In summer the flocks are trailed to the mountains, or are shipped to the summer range by freight, provided the grazing ground can be reached by railroad. Here for three months the sheep feed under ideal conditions. Generally they are taken well above timber line, for the reason that the grasses on the summits of the great mountains are extraordinarily thick and nutritious. To the ordinary observer the mountain peaks are bare, but in reality they are thickly carpeted with grass. It is on this heavy, delicious feed that mountain sheep thrive so well,—and the sheep man has not been long in finding out that his flocks will do just as well as the mountain sheep above timber line. At Tennessee Pass, near Leadville, Colo., from 40,000 to 50,000 sheep are fed every summer, being shipped to this high point by rail. Here are dozens of sheep camps, scattered about, far above timber line, where, in the language of the herders, it rains every day and snows every other day. When September comes the sheep are trailed to the railroad and shipped down to the winter range on the plains, where the grasses





SHEEP GRAZING ON THE MOUNTAIN-SIDE IN THE SUMMER.

will be found in prime condition. The writer has passed over one of the greatest winter ranges in Wyoming in June, and has traveled full sixty miles from the Union Pacific Railroad to the Colorado State line, without seeing any living thing other than an antelope and a coyote. Yet by September this range will be alive with sheep, it being estimated that no less than 1,000,000 are fed on this ideal winter range which is so lonely in summer. The Sierra Madre Mountains, whose tops can just be descried above the plains line, near Rawlins, are filled with sheep every summer, and, in turn, are deserted when the snows begin to drift in winter.

#### THE HERDER'S LIFE AND DUTIES.

Naturally the central figure in the sheep business is the herder. He is the man upon whom the owner depends for the safety of an average flock of from 2000 to 2500 sheep, which may be worth from \$10,000 to \$30,000. It has been the custom to look upon the sheep herder as a man who takes up this employment because he is "locoed" or because he cannot do anything else. Nothing could be further from the truth. No sheep owner could put so much responsibility on the shoulders of an incompetent or irresponsible man. The herders are selected from the best material the labor market has to offer, and are paid from \$50 to \$75 a month and board. The herder is furnished

with everything he needs, and there is no limit to the quantity or quality of his fare. He is given *carte blanche* to order what the market affords, and the "camp tender," who comes with supplies once or twice a week, sees that the order is promptly filled. The sheep wagon, in which the herder lives in winter, is a veritable house on wheels. It is a canvas covered wagon, containing cook-stove, bunk, cupboard, and, in short, everything that can make life bearable for the herder. In one of these wagons a man can remain comfortable while a "norther" rages without. In summer, while in the mountains, he lives in a tent, but this is all a man requires among such ideal surroundings.

In the spring, at lambing time, is the herder's season of responsibility. It is then that a May snowstorm will wipe out the year's crop of lambs, if the flock is caught in a bad place, and it is then that the band must be closely guarded against the dangers from coyotes and wolves. Care must always be exercised in changing feeding ground, lest the sheep get among poison weeds and die. Countless sheep have been lost in this manner, the herder being unaware of any danger until the poisoned animals began to drop by the score.

On the plains, rattlesnakes spice the herder's life with danger, and he must be always on his guard against this enemy. In some localities, where the snakes are numerous, a

rattlesnake a day will be killed throughout the summer, and generally the herder has to use caution in making his bed on the plains lest he awake to find a rattler as a bedfellow.

The herders sing a song descriptive of their troubles. There are many verses of it, but these will suffice, though to get their full effect one should hear them chanted by a shepherd in some lonely camp:

O, a man that herds the sheep has got lots of  
cause to weep,—

He 'd better join the army and get fat;  
For with sheep you do get lazy, though their  
mind is never aisy,  
And at length they 'll drive you crazy with  
their blat.

You take it in the spring, when the lambing doth  
begin,

You walk until your feet are always sore,  
For they 're lambing here and there and they 're  
lambing everywhere,  
And the ewes blat and the lambs keep up a  
roar.

When the grass gets short below to the moun-  
tains we do go;

The ewes start off like greyhounds, pit-a-pat;  
They can beat the fleetest deer or any Texas  
steer,  
While you travel to the music of their blat.

Every year adds to the tragedies of the  
sheep range, for in winter the herder is al-

ways in danger of being caught in a storm that will not only destroy the flock but himself as well. The storms that sweep down from the north on the great plains sometimes come with scant warning. A herder may be less than a mile from his wagon, and yet will be hopelessly lost in the whirling flakes. It is the same danger that used to face the cowboy on the range, and now the herder is called upon to risk his life. Electrical storms, also, mean danger, and many herders are struck by lightning and their flocks left at the mercy of the elements or the coyotes.

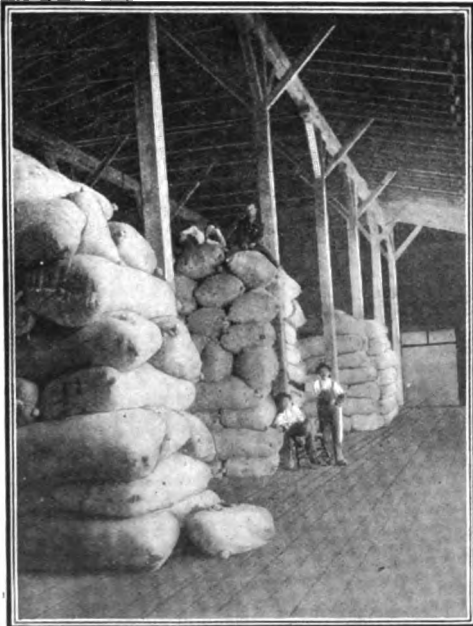
#### THE VALUE OF DOGS.

It is only natural that the sheep herder should place a vast amount of reliance on his dog. Without the sheep dog it would be impossible to handle the great flocks that graze over the plains and mountains of the West. Usually the dog is a collie,—perhaps tracing his ancestry to "Bob, Son of Battle." The dogs are owned by the sheep outfits, and some of them command fabulous prices.

"Why, they think more of their dogs than they do of their men," said a herder to the writer. "The man who owns our outfit has made a big fortune out of the sheep game and spends most of his time in Europe. But he makes it a practice to visit all his sheep camps once a year. Last time he called at my camp he spoke to the dog before he spoke to me. That shows you how much they think of the dogs."

The dogs are always busy, for in feeding the sheep almost invariably scatter to some extent. The wise herder will not let any strays wander into gulches or arroyos, because there may be a coyote lurking there, ready to run off the animal. The dog is always on the alert, and when the flock scatters too much will soon be at the heels of the farthest sheep, barking and snapping and driving them to the main bunch. In the mountain sheep camps the dog's work is exhausting, as it is hard for him to make his way across the steep slopes and jump over the fallen timber. On the plains the dog is likely to get sore-footed, because of the great amount of cactus through which he must run. Some of the most successful herders in northern Wyoming use a dog that is part wolf and part collie. The wolf strain is said to give the animals tougher feet, as well as: harder constitutions.

The intelligence of the average sheep dog has not been overrated, and the animals seem to realize instinctively what is to be done, and



WOOL IN THE WAREHOUSE AT BILLINGS, MONT.  
(The greatest wool-shipping center in the United States.)

require few orders from the herders. In one sheep camp visited by the writer, there was a small patch of grass reserved for the saddle pony of the camp tender. The dog knew when the sheep approached that sacred grass and would not allow one of the woolly animals to set foot upon it.

#### PERILS IN THE BUSINESS.

Patience and good-nature must be the chief equipments of the sheep herder. A surly or impatient herder would soon play havoc with a valuable flock. The successful herder is tireless, vigilant, devoted, even tempered, and, when occasion demands, heroic. His first thought is always of his sheep and his last thought of himself. That is why one seldom hears of a Western herder abandoning his flock in a storm and setting out to save himself. Generally, when the sheep perish, the herder perishes too, and only the dog remains, howling over the dead bodies, to tell of the grewsome and all too common chapter of prairie life.

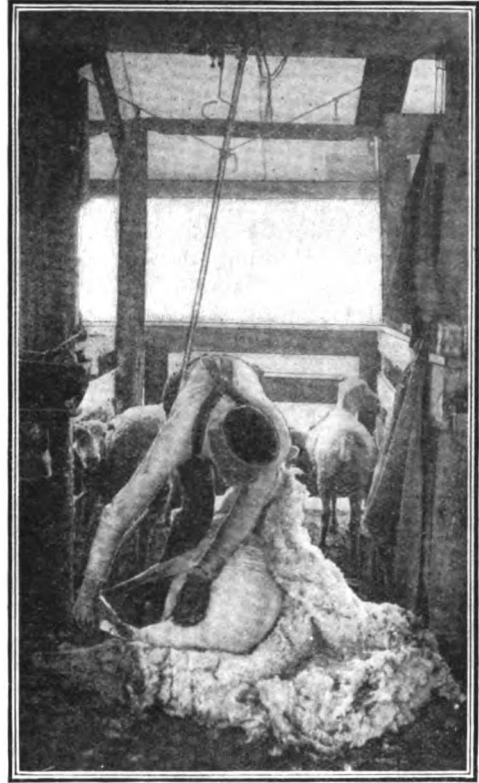
When disaster descends on a sheep flock it is usually sudden and complete. Storms are not the only things for the herder to guard against. General Manuel Gonzales, a Mexican sheep owner, sustained a loss of \$50,000 in a few minutes when 3000 sheep and 400 cattle on his hacienda near Tampico were driven by prairie fires into trenches that had been dug to prevent their theft.

In the summer camps, especially below timber line, there is always danger that the sheep will kill themselves trying to leap over fallen timber. Let the lead sheep fall in making the jump over a log, and soon there will be many sheep piled on top of him, and perhaps fifty or one hundred will be smothered or have their necks broken before the herder can arrive.

#### GUARDING AGAINST POISON AND DISEASE.

The herder must exercise constant vigilance in the matter of feed. He must be able to distinguish the poison weeds. The sheep may have thrived on a certain tract of prairie, but let them wander into a "poison gulch," where the deadly weeds grow, and they will drop dead by the score.

Contagion often appears in the form of scabies, and to prevent this dread disease the Government has established dipping stations at various places on the range. Here every sheep man must bring his flocks at certain times of the year and have them "dipped,"



SHEEP-SHEARER AT WORK.

(Showing how the machines remove the fleece in a single garment.)

which process consists in making each sheep swim through a vat containing a vile mixture of tobacco, sulphur, and lime. Scabies is caused by a parasite which gets under the skin and causes the wool to drop, and eventually weakens the sheep until the animal dies. Thanks to the vigilance of the Government and the various sheep States, the disease has been practically eradicated.

#### SHEARING BY MACHINERY.

Sheep-shearing time brings to the fore another interesting class of men,—the shearers. These men begin their work in the south, where the shearing is early, and work north through the season, finishing their work in Montana and Canada. The shearing is done by contract, in pens that are equipped with costly machinery. Formerly sheep were clipped by shears, but the modern shearing knife, run by steam or electricity, is used nearly altogether to-day. The machine is not much faster than the old-fashioned shears, but it does the work in much more

cleanly fashion, and leaves less wool on the sheep. The saving of from a quarter to half a pound of wool on each sheep amounts to a great deal of money when so many millions of sheep are sheared in a season.

The shearing is done early in the summer. The herders bring up their bands of sheep and run the animals into pens. The shearers in the pens grasp the animals and soon the keen knives are cutting through the wool. The fleece comes off almost in a single garment, so neatly do the skilled shearers work. Despite the exhausting nature of the work, the men standing all day in a stooping posture, some astounding records are made. One shearer, Frank Hewitt, of Saratoga, Wyo., who is credited with being the champion shearer of the United States, won a medal at the Chicago Exposition, in competition with nineteen other shearers, by shearing 100 sheep in three hours and twenty-seven minutes. It is said that this shearer turns out an average of 175 sheep a day throughout a shearing season. With a dozen men shearing sheep with such rapidity, it is no wonder that the wool is soon stacked high in sacks at the sheds, ready for shipment. About 100 sheep a day may be accepted as the general average for a shearer. The operators get 8 cents per fleece, so it is seen that their pay is relatively high, though it is none too much when one considers the exhausting nature of the work and the shortness of the shearing season.

#### MARKETING THE SEASON'S CLIP.

After the wool has been clipped it is gathered up from the shearing-pen floor and put into sacks. Each sack contains about 500 pounds, and these sacks are shipped to the nearest wool center. Billings, Mont., is the greatest wool shipping center in the world. From the plains about Billings a constant stream of wool pours into the warehouses. The sacks of wool are sometimes brought hundreds of miles across the prairie, piled high on great freight wagons and drawn by six, eight, and even sixteen-horse teams. The sacks are piled in the warehouses at Billings,

and then come the commission men, from the Boston wool houses, who appoint sales days. Different sacks are opened for inspection, and the buyers write out their offers for various lots. The highest bidders get the clip. If two or three have bid the same, the sale is determined by the flipping of a coin. After it is sold, the wool is put into powerful baling machines and baled for shipment east, where it is scoured and finds its way through various channels of commerce into the clothing of the people.

Tremendous fortunes are being made in the West in the sheep business. Most of the men who have made fortunes have started as sheep herders and have put their savings into small flocks of their own. Probably the largest individual sheep owner in the world, who made a small beginning not many years ago, is Charles M. Bair, of Billings, Mont. Mr. Bair, besides owning a vast amount of sheep range in Montana, leases a large portion of the Crow Indian reservation for grazing purposes. This year the Bair wool clip amounted to 1,500,000 pounds. At 22 cents this would net the owner about \$330,000. Yet this probably represents less than half of Mr. Bair's income for the year, as his sales of mutton and lambs were large.

The Government has turned its attention to breeding the most suitable sheep for Western range conditions, and an experiment station has been established at Laramie, Wyo., where the development of the ideal sheep is being carried out. It is the aim to produce a sheep that is at once hardy and active, a great wool producer, and first-class for market purposes. When this result has been obtained, America will have to depend on no other country for a portion of its wool, as it does to-day. With its great variety of climatic and other favoring conditions, with its freedom from drouths, abundance of vegetation, and convenient transportation, the United States can hardly help becoming first, instead of third, among the sheep-breeding nations of the world, and that very shortly.



# ENCYCLOPEDIAS, PAST AND PRESENT.

BY LOUIS WINDMÜLLER.

WITH the beginning of civilization the demand for knowledge became greater than existing facilities could satisfy. Students were wont to take fatiguing journeys to profit by the inadequate material they could reach. That they generously appreciated it is manifested by the statues of Minerva and Esculapius which adorned the Alexandrian library, and by its designation,—“medicine chest of the mind”; the 200,000 scrolls it contained made it of ancient collections the most complete.

Difficulties of gathering a library and of getting information suggested the idea of a cyclopedic condensation of the widely dispersed intelligence so as to better facilitate general propagation.

Among authors who assisted students by these compilations were Speusippos, a disciple of Plato, and M. Terentius Varro, a friend of Cicero, called “the most learned of all Romans.” Their collaborations have been lost; but a similar work by the elder Pliny, called “*Historia Naturalis*,” has been preserved. It comprised extracts from the many thousand volumes Pliny read on the principle that something may be learned from almost every author. Although his work and the works of the medieval scholars who followed Pliny’s example were not comprehensive and soon became antiquated, they attest the continued thirst for knowledge which good books only could satisfy. This thirst led to the ingenious device of printing letters with movable type.

Gutenberg’s invention encouraged a vast publication of books; within less than fifty years 25,000 works, in editions of 500 copies, or nearly 12,500,000 volumes, were issued. The “*Bibliothèque Nationale*,” in Paris, the most important of all libraries, contains 2,500,000 tomes alone. The more libraries grew the more evident became the necessity for means of condensation to make the collections more accessible to the growing multitude of eager learners.

Want of system was the most serious drawback of the early compilations. For the interpretation of our Bible, most successful of religious cyclopedias, a concordance became necessary. The Talmud had failed to explain difficult passages, because the Mish-

nah and Gemara were more abstruse than the writ they proposed to elucidate. Lord Bacon himself, who originated the idea to create a dictionary of science and art, paid little attention to its classification.

The honor of first bringing a dictionary of general knowledge into alphabetical order belongs to Ephraim Chambers, an English Quaker, whose taste for literature was acquired in a globemaker’s studio; he stole the time belonging to his master to compose behind the shop counter the encyclopedia published in 1727. His work was appreciated beyond his sanguine expectations; the men of letters who gloated over his folios wondered why this *desideratum* had not sooner been provided. Within eighteen years five editions were required to supply an unheard-of demand. With every edition the welcome book was enlarged, and after Chambers’ death further improved by Abraham Rees.

## THE FRENCH “ENCYCLOPEDISTS.”

A French translation led, in 1751, to the publication, by the philosopher Diderot and the mathematician D’Alembert, of the “*Encyclopédie raisonnée des Sciences des Arts et des Métiers*.” The far-sighted authors answered not alone questions referring to the past and to their own times, but they knew how to anticipate some issues which their readers might be moved, by events of the impending Revolution, to investigate in the future. When two volumes had appeared the sale of the work was prohibited and the collected material was seized on pretence that the contents might endanger the vested rights of church and state. The authorities soon reconsidered their action, however, and readily consented to a reinstatement of the encyclopedic editors.

Diderot’s troubles culminated on the appearance of the last volumes, when he was mortified by the discovery that his publisher, Le Breton, had mutilated important articles to escape further pursuit by the vigilant clergy. Despite such emasculation, Diderot’s work retained in the world of letters the pre-eminence it had acquired. Among its illustrious collaborators were Rousseau, Mar-montel, Buffon, Necker, Grimm, and Holbach. Voltaire, whose bold warfare against

medieval abuses made him, of all its promoters, the most efficient, spent the greater part of his life in prison or in exile; his service as the champion of liberty was neither appreciated nor requited until he began to totter under the infirmity of age.

The work of these men deserves to be classed among the greatest of all literary achievements. Demonstrating that the "divine" right of government was vested in representatives of their own choice, it emboldened the people of France to wrest from their cruel oppressors their lasting independence.

#### THE ORIGINAL "BRITANNICA."

William Smellie, a Scotch printer and naturalist, ambitious to emulate Buffon,

whose writings he had translated, published, in 1771, the first edition of the "Cyclopedia Britannica," which, with every edition, has become more celebrated. Its continued appreciation is shown by the large sale of its latest revision. Regardless of his personal appearance, Smellie took no heed of the amenities of life; yet he won the esteem and hearts of all who knew him. Burns said of him:

"A head for thought profound and clear  
unmatched,  
Yet though his caustic wit was biting rude,  
His heart was warm, benevolent and good."

#### EXCELLENT WORK OF THE GERMANS.

When the liberal spirit of the French encyclopedists spread among inhabitants of that portion of Continental Europe which Napoleon conquered German authors began to be treated with more leniency. Schiller and Lessing were permitted to advocate liberty of conscience and freedom of speech without exposing themselves to the severe punishment which formerly had been inflicted on them and their predecessors.

During this period F. A. Brockhaus, a young Westphalian, conceived the idea of making for the daily use of every intellectual person a book of easy reference. Having observed in the clerical home of his grandparents that the religious ardor and dogmas of the past were eclipsed by independent reflection and individual research, he became ambitious to furnish means to satisfy the growing demand for a book which would equip the mind with knowledge. Educated a merchant, he combined with the instinct of a trader the taste of a litterateur. He was the first publisher to realize that users of encyclopedias did not desire monographs on chosen subjects as much as the essential facts about all subjects. When he



FRONTISPIECE OF DIDEROT'S ENCYCLOPEDIA.

issued, in 1812, the first edition of his "Konversations Lexikon," he laid the foundation for the most perfect system of elucidation.

Brockhaus furnished in plain language and condensed form the information which any person of understanding may at any time crave to seek. Moving in 1818 from Altenburg to Leipzig, where he flourished in a house that continues to form a part of the Brockhaus establishment, he had before he died the satisfaction of realizing that the utility of his work had made his name famous. A fourteenth edition in seventeen volumes has been published by his grandsons.

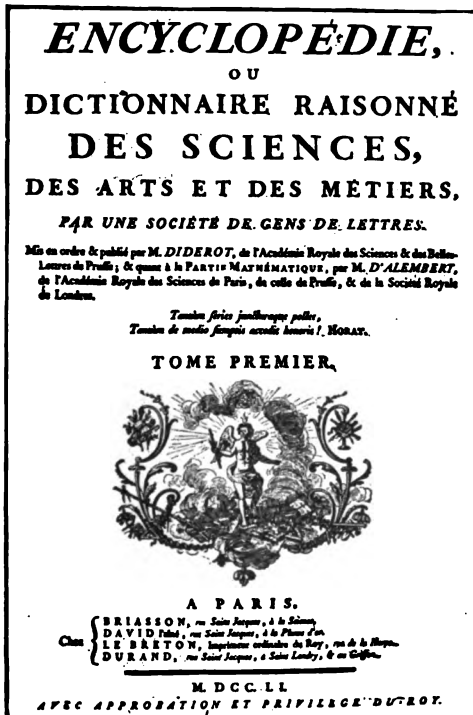
Success soon led to competition. Joseph Meyer, a cobbler's son, in conjunction with Julius Hermann Meyer, his grandson, issued, in 1857, the first edition of "Meyer's Konversations Lexikon des Allgemeinen Wissens." Hans Meyer, Joseph's grandson, known by his guide books as "the genial traveler," is now publisher of this encyclopedia. Brockhaus and Meyer vie with each other to impart, from their offices in Leipzig to widely dispersed patrons, whatever may transpire in the world of letters, art, and science. Before one edition is completed the compilation for a new one, which generally follows ten years later,

begins. By such revisions these encyclopedias constitute an endless chain of fructifying communication from the outside world to their subscribers. Germans consider a household without a Brockhaus or a Meyer



DENIS DIDEROT.

(The originator of the modern encyclopedia.)



TITLE PAGE OF DIDEROT'S ENCYCLOPEDIA

incomplete. Saving though they are, few of them haggle when they purchase their favorite lexicon. Imitations and translations soon became frequent; the British Museum has specimens in many tongues, its catalogue including similar works in Russian and Japanese.

Goethe's retentive memory permitted him to spurn the use of a "Konversations Lexikon," but a Brockhaus generally rested on a convenient desk, and when one of his visitors dared to differ with him it was used to demonstrate the accuracy of the master mind. Germany's most profound thinkers confess that they never become so learned as to be independent of the assistance of a Brockhaus or a Meyer.

#### MODERN FRENCH AND ENGLISH WORKS.

"La Grande Encyclopédie," edited by the chemist Berthélot, Camille Dreyfus, and other members of the French Academy, is the best obtainable now in the punctilious Gallic idiom. But the issue absorbed from 1886 to 1903, seventeen years, too long a time to establish in this progressive age the contemplated authority. The erudite first ten volumes had become obsolete before the later



and less comprehensive tomes were available. "Le Nouveau Larousse," edited by Augé, and published from 1897 to 1904, is entertaining, modern and concise, but not scholastic enough.



VOLTAIRE.

(One of the greatest of the "Encyclopedists.")

When Robert and William Chambers, of Edinburgh, favorably known as tract publishers, became aware of the success of German encyclopedists, they realized that the "Britannica" gave on chosen subjects more information than the average Briton could read, which caused the comparatively small circulation. Consequently, they published "Chambers' Encyclopedia for the People," in ten volumes, in 1860, and they have revised and republished it carefully since. Brockhaus' system, adapted by canny Scotchmen to English requirements, was favorably received and is generally considered in Great Britain, at least, the best.

#### AMERICAN UNDERTAKINGS.

When Franz Lieber, menaced by Prussian authorities with the loss of his liberty, took refuge in Boston, he compiled, after the German prototype, the first "Encyclopedia Americana," which appeared in Philadelphia in 1839. Before his work was antiquated the Appletons conceived the idea of making an encyclopedia of their own. Daniel Appleton had come, in 1825, from New England to establish himself in Exchange Place, New York, when it was a center of the dry-goods trade. His literary tastes and the in-

fluence of a brother-in-law,—Jonathan Leavitt,—a bookbinder, induced him to make the book trade his specialty. Subsequently, when the firm, which included his sons, had become a leading publishing house, they issued, 1857 to 1863, their "American Cyclopedia," and in 1873 an illustrated revision in sixteen volumes. The editors, George Ripley, who abandoned the gospel for litera-



WILLIAM SMELLIE.

(Founder of the "Britannica.")

ture, and Charles A. Dana, at that time the keen editor of the New York *Tribune*, were assisted by H. Teall, chief proofreader of the New York *Sun*. This book, an authority on American affairs, has long been indispensable to American students. Because he did not appreciate the necessity of revised editions Appleton lost the opportunity of becoming an American Brockhaus. The interesting annual supplements he issued instead (twenty-eight volumes to 1903) cannot replace the book needed for ready reference.

An antiquated encyclopedia fails to furnish the information requisite to understand unforeseen events that follow each other in rapid succession. We must rely on the encyclopedia for a quick reply which the mutable spirit of our age may prompt us to ask.

Publishers of encyclopedias who do not want to share the experience of the Appletons should provide timely revisions to comply with such conditions.

The failure of these enterprising publishers to keep their cyclopedia up to date may be due to the apathy of American book-buyers. The German publisher, being in closer touch with German cyclopedia-buyers, knows how to interest them in his new editions; he makes a small allowance for his old copy if the buyer returns it. Americans go out of their way to select a popular novel; they are inclined to buy a classic, which they can display in their drawing-rooms as evidence of their literary predilections. But few of them appreciate the necessity of a modern encyclopedia; and almost all have an unreasonable prejudice against the peripatetic solicitor who pesters them to subscribe to such a book.

This was thoroughly appreciated by Alvin J. Johnson, a Yankee schoolmaster who had come to New York to hawk Colton's atlas. His savings enabled him to establish himself as Colton's competitor, and Johnson's maps were recognized as the best. This reputation, with the selection of editors such as F. A. P. Barnard, president of Columbia College, and Prof. Arnold Guyot, of Princeton, created a prestige for the encyclopedia

which, as Appleton's rival, he began in 1875 to publish under the title of "Universal American Encyclopedia."

Johnson depended for the sale of his work on the skill of his canvassers and instructed



THE FIRST BROCKHAUS.

them in the art he had thoroughly acquired. With the shrewdness of a Sherlock Holmes his salesmen learned to combine the penetration of a Lavater; a glance sufficed to disclose the foibles of their intended victim. Prepared to enlarge on the superiority of Johnson's work and answer questions of the critical buyer, they could muster the courage to enter through the basement the residence from which they had been ejected by the front door. The writer, after repulsing a similar attack, once found with amazement that the evicted agent had persuaded servants in his kitchen to subscribe on the instalment plan to the work he had refused on any terms to take in his library.

When the Appletons finally realized that they were overtaken they concluded to absorb their rival's establishment; Johnson's encyclopedia was then published by Appletons, who continue the publication under the title of "The Universal Encyclopedia and Atlas."

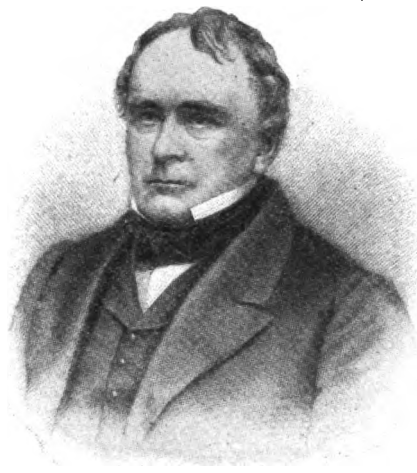
A modern work, "The New International Encyclopedia," has been added by Dodd, Mead & Co., of New York. Moses W. Dodd founded this house in 1839 in the Brick Church Chapel on the site of the old *Times* Building. His son, Frank H., senior member of the present firm, entered his father's counting-room when he was fifteen.



HANS MEYER.

(Present head of the famous German publishing house.)

Always devoted to the advancement of knowledge, he is a good judge of literary values. In the educator, Daniel Coit Gilman, late president of Johns Hopkins University, Mr. Dodd was fortunate to find an



FRANZ LIEBER.

(The German-American who compiled the first "Encyclopedia Americana.")

excellent editor, who is ably assisted by Prof. Harry Thurston Peck of the *Bookman*.

The "International Encyclopedia" of Dodd, Mead & Co. combines with the most reliable information on American subjects the most lucid treatment of all subjects. But the "International" furnishes names of important contributors on the title-page only. Meyer, like Brockhaus, does neither; they are reliable, though they do not disclose the sources of their information. Being editors and publishers at the same time, they scrutinize every article with solicitude and assume the sole responsibility for the contents of their entire lexicon. A greater homogeneity is thus attained than American publishers may expect to produce until a larger sale of their encyclopedias admits of larger expenditure for editorial work.

The term "Konversations Lexikon,"—"Dictionary for Conversation,"—as Germans continue to call their encyclopedias, arose from the use of Diderot's work by

Madame Pompadour at Trianon. The "Encyclopédie" first served to kindle conversation between persons of liberal tastes, an accomplishment seldom acquired by Americans, and then when an authority was needed to solve mooted questions.

American encyclopedias will not rank with the German until they are able to combine with the same thorough treatment of every subject a price so reasonable as to bring their work within the reach of everybody.

The prolific and prosperous existence of our journals demonstrates the possibility of solving this problem. We have 510 newspapers and magazines to every million of inhabitants, against 160 similar publications to every million inhabitants of Germany. More than half of the world's periodicals are published here. We should enable our publishers of encyclopedias to equal if not to surpass the German.

If an American publisher were to publish a book of reference as thorough as Brockhaus', a legitimate demand would spring up to increase the sale so as to enable him to compete in price and quality with the best foreign works.

The "Encyclopedia Americana," recently published in sixteen volumes by the *Scientific American*, is also of great value. Frederick Converse Beach, who has been editor of the *Scientific American* since the retirement of his father in 1877, succeeded in making that paper indispensable to American inventors. He has now succeeded in making this encyclopedia essential to American scientists.

A new American encyclopedia published 1906 to 1908 in twelve volumes has been added by Thomas Nelson & Sons, of Edinburgh. The concise text of the American edition, edited by the experienced author, Prof. Frank Moore Colby, treats many topics ignored by our other cyclopedists; but some articles on American subjects fail to do proper justice to their importance.

The publishers furnish to their clients five hundred revision sheets annually, free of charge. These revisions may be inserted between the loose, unpagged leaves of the respective volumes, which are, like the leaves of modern mercantile ledgers, held together by ingenious binders.

# COSMOPOLITAN CLUBS IN AMERICAN UNIVERSITY LIFE.

BY LOUIS LOCHNER.

(Secretary of the International Club, University of Wisconsin.)

**I**N December last the first convention of the Association of Cosmopolitan Clubs was held at Madison, Wis. This was the first convention of its kind in history. Its special significance lies in the fact that the delegates of eight large universities, who attended, were foreign students almost without exception. It is thus a new step toward bringing about a more intimate acquaintance between peoples of different races and nationalities.

The history of the International Club organized at the University of Wisconsin is typical of the history of the other chapters, and is an index to the significance of the movement.

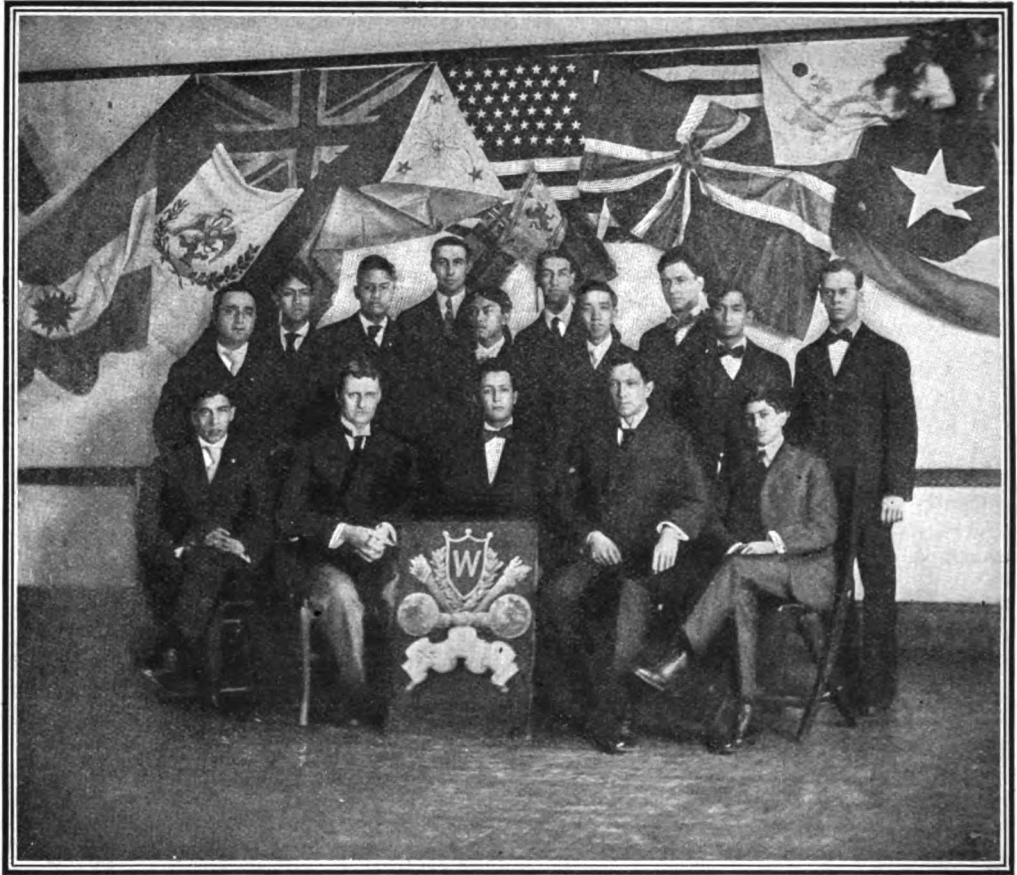
On the evening of March 12, 1903, sixteen foreign students of the University of Wisconsin, representing eleven different nationalities, gathered in the modest little apartments of Karl Kawakami, a Japanese student. An international club was to be organized in which all foreigners of the university, rich and poor, were to meet on an equal basis of mutual friendship and brotherhood. No similar organization at any other university furnished them a precedent. The action of these sixteen men was original, unsolicited, and unprecedented. H. Hagopian, an Armenian, headed the organization; a Norwegian was its first vice-president; a Japanese, a South American, and a German, respectively, filled the offices of secretary, treasurer, and censor.

From this nucleus of sixteen an organization of eighty-one members representing nineteen nationalities has developed; a limited number of Americans has been admitted; from a mere formal discussion of contemporaneous problems the programs have been broadened to include a series of "national nights," on which the members of one nation decorate the hall with their national colors, describe the history and institutions of their country, play music by their national com-

posers, throw on the canvas pictures of their own land, and serve refreshments peculiar to their mother country. The list of activities now includes meetings of a purely social nature also, in which the various nationalities have an opportunity to get better acquainted with one another. Several dances are given, a reception is tendered to the newly arrived foreigners at the beginning of each college year, and an anniversary banquet is held at which every nationality responds with a toast in its own language.

Such, in broad outlines, is the history of the University of Wisconsin International Club. At first an obscure, unknown feature in the life of a great university, the club is now acknowledged to be one of the most successful organizations in the institution. The faculty is beginning to take an active and sincere interest. The club has no warmer friend than President C. R. Van Hise. He, as few others, sees the importance of the movement. He has aptly pointed out its analogy to the attempt made by Cecil Rhodes to promote world peace by the establishment of Oxford scholarships, to the endeavor of the German Emperor to promote better relations between the nations by the creation of exchange professorships, and to the important influence which the mere contact of nationalities in the Hague Conference has exerted.

"The second peace conference at The Hague," he said in his address at the reception last fall, "has done much toward promoting peace because the representatives of the various nationalities there assembled have through personal contact learned to respect one another. The International Club is fulfilling much the same mission as the Hague Conference. It is a very forceful influence in helping you better to understand the American and one another. Every one is proud to see his national flag displayed in the clubroom, but he is glad also to see beside it the flag of a fellow student of different



DELEGATES TO THE FIRST CONVENTION OF THE ASSOCIATION OF COSMOPOLITAN CLUBS.  
(Held at Madison, Wis., in December, 1907. The universities of Michigan, Illinois, Wisconsin, Ohio, Louisiana, Chicago, Cornell, and Purdue were represented.)

nationality. Too often pride in one's own flag has been mingled with contempt for the flag of others not of the same race or nationality. Here, in the International Club, you learn that other people, too, have lofty ideals."

#### STUDYING THE SOCIAL LIFE OF DIFFERENT PEOPLES.

The truth of these words is seen at once when one considers what this club can do toward the elimination of prejudices among people of different nationalities, different religions, different political opinions, and different social standings. During the course of the "national nights" the members have got a better insight into the mode of living, the characteristics, and the viewpoints of different peoples than they can perhaps ever gain from the colored accounts of American travelers. They have learned about student

life in Holland and the relation of the Bohemian to Francis Joseph's government, about life on a Mexican ranch and the position of the Austrian woman, about Grieg's influence on music and German "Gemüthlichkeit," about Hungarian folklore and Oxford's historic sites, about the Macedonian question and French convent life,—to mention but a few topics that were discussed in recent "national nights." To those interested in music an unlimited field of fantastic Dutch gavottes, graceful Mexican waltzes, delicate Italian capriccios, sentimental Norwegian peasant songs, weird Hungarian dances, and stern German chorals has been opened. At times the nationalities have treated the club to an exhibition of their national dances, accompanied by characteristic strains, and have executed the heavy German "Schuhplattler," the graceful Filipino quadrille, and the clumsy Norwegian

peasant dance. By means of lantern-slide lectures the members were taken to the rugged fjords of Norway, the broad vistas of Mexico City, the picturesque fishermen's cottages of Holland, the sociable beer-cellars of Germany, the snow-capped mountain peaks of Switzerland, the dust-covered libraries of Paris, and the moss-grown cloisters of Oxford. With a pathos and enthusiasm that only those who have been thousands of miles from home can appreciate, the "Deutschland, Deutschland ueber alles" of Germany, the "Ja, vi elsker dette Landet" of Norway, the "Onze Koningin" of Holland, the "Marseillaise" of France, the "Hör oss, Svea" of Sweden, and the "La Independencia" of the Philippines have been rendered. Yet all have united with intense enthusiasm in singing the majestic strains of "My Country, 'Tis of Thee." And, lest the inner man fail to be impressed with the national spirit, the club has been served with Leyden cheese and Dutch "Bisheuts," with Mexican cocoa and German "belegte Broedchen," with Jamaican coffee and plain American ice cream.

#### A FILIPINO ANNIVERSARY.

Every nationality arranges to have its night as near as possible to the date of some national holiday or independence day. Thus the United States night comes about February 22, the Dutch night about December 1, the day of Holland's independence; and the Filipino night about December 30, the day on which José Rizal, the national hero, was shot by the Spaniards. The Filipino night is always in-

SOME OF THE MEMBERS OF THE INTERNATIONAL CLUB, UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.



teresting. Last year the Filipino program was given in commemoration of the tenth anniversary of the death of Dr. Rizal. As it is typical of the other programs, it is here reproduced:

1. Song—"La Independencia."
2. Address—Rizal's Day.
3. Music—Trio for piano, guitar, and mandolin.
4. Address—Past and Present Conditions in the Philippines.
5. Vocal Solo—Rizal's *Recuerdos de la Patria*.
6. Address—Government of the Philippines.
7. Address—Filipino Aspirations.
8. Music—Duet for bandurria and guitar.
9. Oration—Rizal's Farewell—*El Ultimo Adios*—in Spanish and English.
10. Song—*Marcha Nacional Filipinos*.
11. Dance—Filipino national dance.

Imagine a gorgeous Filipino flag displayed underneath a portrait of Dr. Rizal; imagine a hall gayly decorated in the costly cloth made by Filipino women from pineapple fiber and silk; imagine eleven spirited little brown fellows with pitch-black hair and dazzling white teeth swinging back and forth rhythmically as they sing one of their charming waltzes, and you have the setting for the program.

#### A MINGLING OF MANY TYPES.

A further insight may be gained into the spirit of the club from the resolution adopted on one occasion: "That the club express its sincere sympathy with the Russian students in their struggle for constitutional government." On another occasion a motion was made that "in view of the fact that the Japanese students are to-day celebrating the birthday of their Emperor, the club pay its respects to the Japanese nation by a rising vote."

But the club is interesting not only because of its programs. As President Van Hise has said, the club mingles more diverse types of humanity than any other organization he knows of. Here are thrown together into one brotherhood fourteen Filipinos, five Norwegians, four Germans, one Jamaican, eight Japanese, one Swede, twenty Americans, four Canadians, four Mexicans, three Chinese, one Hungarian, one Bohemian, one Roumanian, one Brazilian, two Russians, two Englishmen, two Nova Scotians, and one Argentinian; and in addition Holland, Armenia, Belgium, and Porto Rico have been represented since its organization.

A mere enumeration of some of the names of the members will indicate the cosmopol-

tan character of the organization: Berge Der-Mügerdichyan, Juedan Tun-Shou Chen, José Jalandoni, Kaneo Ichinomiya, Ernesta de la Fuente, Jacinto Kamantigue, Jan Kostalek, Ernst Freiherr von Teubern, Ki-ichiro Nakagami, Yu-fong Sun,—these are but a few names to which the unsuspecting American must accustom his tongue.

A visitor to the club makes the acquaintance of an influential Chinese magistrate who has been sent to Wisconsin by his government to study civil engineering. He is introduced to a *bona fide* German baron and to his very opposite, an extreme German Socialist. He meets Filipinos who have distinguished themselves in their native colleges and have been awarded scholarships at American universities. He is heartily welcomed by two Rhodes scholars who have just come back, men of ripened judgment, after three years of experience abroad. Or, if he pleases, he may meet the scholarly Japanese who has earned the distinction, very rare in Japan, of being maintained at government expense at a foreign university.

#### TEACHING THE NATIONS.

There is not a man who is not filled with lofty ideals of patriotism. "The Brazilians know but little about scientific cattle raising. I am going to learn all I can about it and teach my countrymen," said the Brazilian member, who is enrolled in the course in animal husbandry. "After I have finished the course here I am going into practical engineering for a few years, so that I may go home to my country ripened with experience," was the sentiment expressed by the Cuban brother. "I want to learn all about American commercial methods, so that I may teach them to my people at the University of Tokio," said a representative of Japan.

What an opportunity to study the human race! What a rare chance to get an insight into the ideals, aspirations, and characteristics of different nations! What an incentive to a similar unselfish patriotism for the American! And what an opportunity for doing good! Here are some seventy foreigners, away from home, strangers in a strange land, and therefore more grateful than at any other time for a kind word spoken to them. Here are men sent by their governments to study the American people, upon whose reception in this country will depend largely their opinion of the American race. Here is a rare opportunity for the student body to contribute their mite toward the pro-



motion of world peace by giving these men, many of whom will later occupy important positions under their governments, a hearty welcome, by showing them that the foreigner is respected, and that war and hostility are thoughts remote from the rising generation.

#### FOREIGN UNIVERSITIES ENLISTED.

The International Club movement is by no means restricted to the University of Wisconsin. In 1904 the universities of Cornell and Buenos Ayres, Argentina, called into life similar organizations. Michigan and Illinois followed in 1905; Purdue, Ohio, Louisiana, and Chicago in 1907. A lively correspondence is kept up by the secretaries of the various chapters, and wherever possible members of one chapter visit another chapter.

The Christmas convention of 1907 marked a further step toward bringing the chapters into closer relation. The purpose of the convention was to elect a national board

of officers, to adopt a national constitution, to discuss plans, to interest other universities.

Nor is the movement limited to this country. Mention has already been made of the existence of a chapter at Buenos Ayres. Alumni members are now making an effort to organize clubs at the universities of Berlin and Oxford, and next year will perhaps see the formation of chapters at the universities of Tokio and Mexico. May the day come when every college in this large country has a cosmopolitan club in which Russian and Japanese, German and French, Bohemian and Hungarian, Spaniard and American meet on an equal basis of universal brotherhood. Yes, may the day come when this movement will have extended over the universities of the world, and every foreign student in every country will have a place where he will find catholicity of sympathies, where he will meet men filled with high ideals of patriotism and world peace.

## THE MAGNETIC WORK OF THE CARNEGIE INSTITUTION.

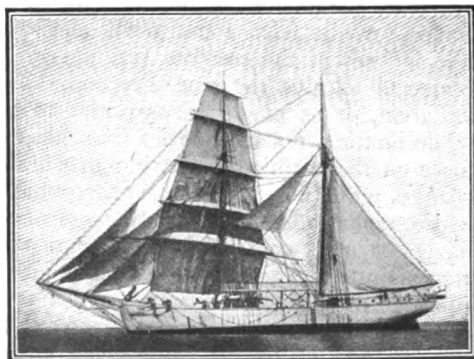
BY HERBERT T. WADE.

THE Department of Research in Terrestrial Magnetism of the Carnegie Institution of Washington is just bringing to a successful conclusion a magnetic survey of the Pacific Ocean on which it has been engaged for several years. As an important practical result has been the improvement of the charts for this great body of water with its constantly increasing commerce, this survey is not without interest, while at the same time it affords an excellent example of what can be accomplished by a thoroughly organized and adequately equipped scientific expedition.

Men of science have long realized the need of further studies of the earth's magnetism, and the subject was brought to the attention of the Carnegie Institution soon after its organization. After careful consideration a Department of Research in Terrestrial Magnetism was created, and in 1904 it was put under the direction of Dr. L. A. Bauer, who had been in charge of the magnetic work of the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey since 1899. The plan adopted by the

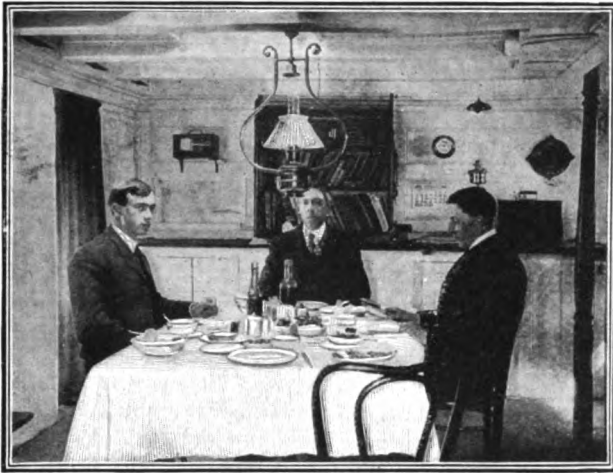
trustees involved the investigation of "such problems of world-wide interest as relate to the magnetic and electric conditions of the earth and its atmosphere, not specifically the subject of inquiry of any one country, but of international concern and benefit."

Obviously the study of the magnetic con-



THE "GALILEE."

(Leaving Shanghai, China, for Sitka, Alaska, in June, 1907.)



THE CABIN OF THE "GALILEE."

J. P. Ault,  
Magnetic Observer.J. C. Peters,  
Commander.H. E. Martyn,  
Surgeon and Recorder.

ditions on the oceans was essential to such a scheme, as the earth's surface comprises nearly three times as much water as land, and as here the magnetic information was correspondingly meager. In the Pacific Ocean, in particular, so long a time had elapsed since systematic magnetic observations had been made, and so very limited was their number, that grounds were afforded for distrust of the magnetic information given on the charts. The importance of this magnetic information to the navigator can be appreciated by recalling the fact that the compass needle does not point to the true or geographical north, except at a comparatively small number of places located on certain lines to which the name of "agonic lines," or lines of no magnetic declination, is applied. If, however, at any place the amount of the variation of the compass needle from a true north and south line is known, the compass reading can be corrected to give the true direction. This variation, or as magneticians prefer to call it, declination, not only varies from place to place on the earth's surface, but in addition changes with time, so that the chart which a hydrographic office issues for the use of the navigator must contain this information arranged for a definite year. As all points of equal declination on the chart are connected by lines, the navigator need only correct his compass reading by the value given for the particular latitude and longitude, making due allowance for the increase or decrease in the variation from the epoch or time for which the chart was prepared.

If, then, the magnetic information on the chart is not correct, the matter is quite serious, especially when navigating for several days in fog or cloudy weather, as is quite frequently encountered at certain seasons on the Pacific, when it is impossible to obtain the ship's position by observing with the sextant the sun or other heavenly body. In such an event the position must be obtained by dead reckoning, where the distance traveled is measured with the log and the directions are given by the compass corrected as just described. So that it is not difficult to foresee the effects of errors in magnetic declination when wrongly given on the chart,

especially when there is a discrepancy between the true and the calculated position of a ship near shore or in the vicinity of reefs.

Therefore the Carnegie Institution in its magnetic work determined first to make a magnetic survey of the Pacific Ocean, and it was found that along such well-traversed routes as that from San Francisco to Honolulu there were errors of from one degree to two degrees on the best of the charts; in other regions of the Pacific Ocean the errors amounted to three degrees and even five degrees. On a waterway where commerce was increasing this was not a particularly happy condition, and led to the preparation of a new magnetic chart by the United States Hydrographic Office.

The survey was commenced in 1905, when a wooden sailing vessel of about 600 tons, the *Galilee*, was chartered at San Francisco, and was rendered suitable for the work by the removal of as much iron and steel from the rigging and other parts of the ship as was possible. A fore-and-aft bridge was built between the two masts, and on this the necessary instruments were mounted. Of these three were essentially standard marine compasses of the best types, and two were fitted with azimuth circles and sights, by means of which the angle made by the sun with the magnetic north and south as indicated by the compass could be measured and the declination computed. A third compass was modified for studying the horizontal intensity of the earth's magnetism, while the remaining instrument was a specially constructed dip

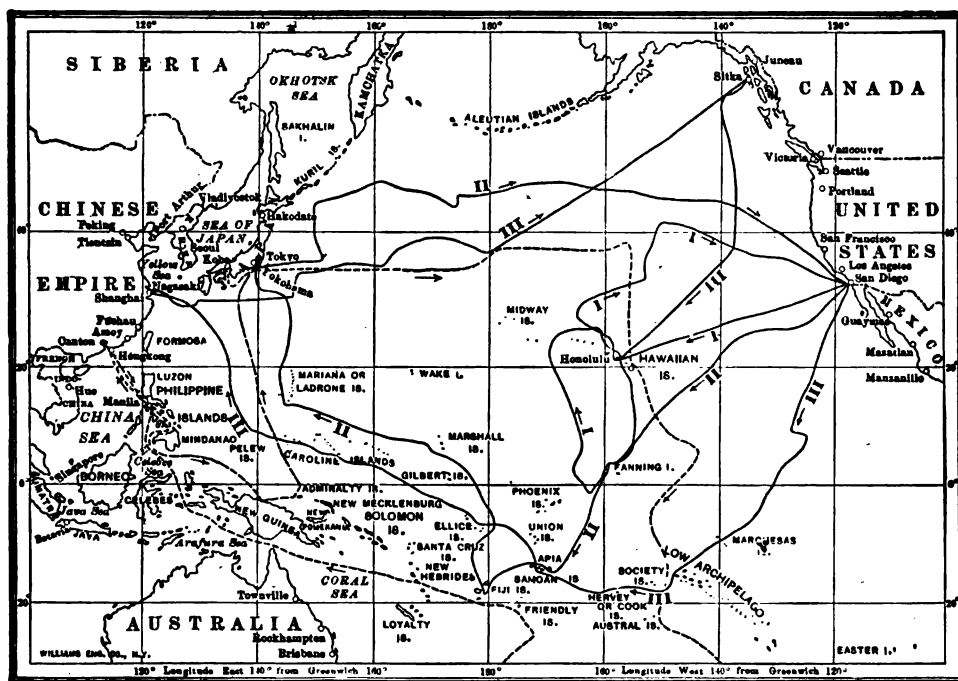
circle, with which the inclination or amount that a magnetic needle freely swinging in the plane of the magnetic meridian is inclined from the horizontal position it would occupy at the magnetic equator, is measured.

Since August, 1905, the *Galilee*, with three magnetic observers, has been almost continuously at sea, and the extent of its voyages is shown on the accompanying map. On the three different cruises observations were made practically at every 200 or 250 miles, frequently by swinging ship so as to get readings at eight different positions. In harbor, especially at a port where there was a regular magnetic observatory, the instruments were taken ashore and more careful observations and determinations were made than were possible at sea. Where possible comparisons were made with local instruments and results. The data as soon as computed were sent immediately to the Carnegie Institution at Washington and were at once reduced.

The *Galilee* will return to San Francisco from South America by May of the present

year, and will then have cruised about 65,000 nautical miles. The first practical result of these observations was a new chart issued in May, 1907; by the United States Hydrographic Office, giving the lines of equal magnetic variation for 1910, which is considered a decided improvement over previous charts. The Hydrographic Office has also in preparation charts showing the lines of equal magnetic dip and equal magnetic intensity, both based largely on data supplied by the Carnegie Institution. These preliminary results are first shown on United States Government charts, as the Carnegie Institution does not propose to publish charts of its own until the general completion of its work, but it supplies all institutions and individuals with its results as fast as they are computed.

While the Pacific survey has been a matter of much practical importance and general interest, it is not the only activity of the Department of Terrestrial Magnetism. Numerous land observations have been made at



CRUISES OF THE MAGNETIC SURVEY YACHT "GALILEE," FROM AUGUST 1, 1905, TO SEPTEMBER 1, 1907.

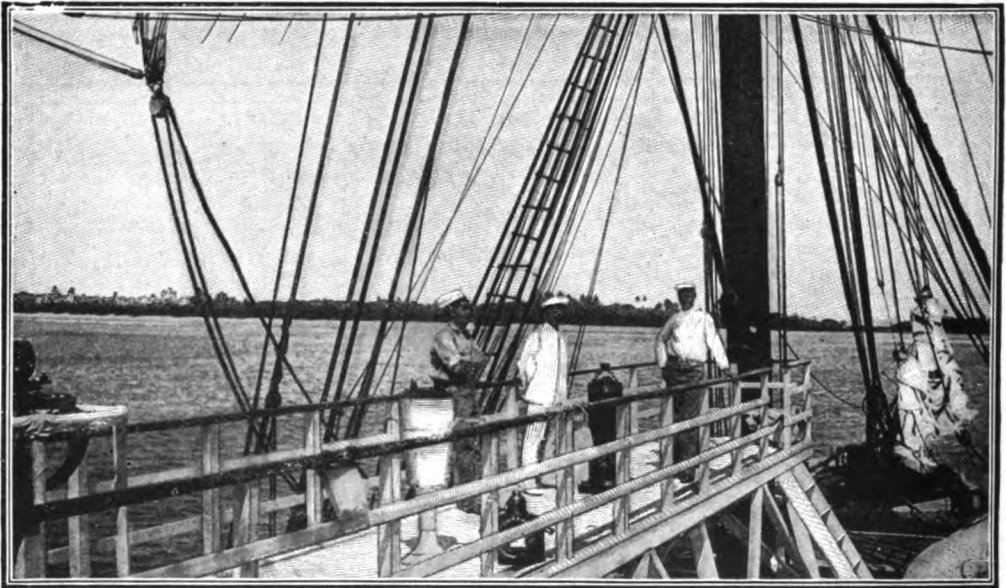
(Leaving Honolulu on September 26, 1907, the *Galilee* set her course via Midway and Marshall Islands for Christchurch, New Zealand, where she arrived on December 24. At Christchurch the necessary observations were made for connecting the work of the *Galilee* with that of the English Antarctic ship *The Discovery*. The *Galilee* then left Christchurch on January 17, 1908, bound for Callao, Peru, from which port she will return to San Francisco some time in May, when the total course covered since August 1, 1905, will be about 65,000 nautical miles.)

(The dotted lines show the track of the *Challenger* expedition, 1872-1876.)

inaccessible points and in unexplored areas, and in Alaska at Treadwell Point, near Juneau, a study has been made of a local magnetic pole that presents many anomalous features and exerts a local magnetic attraction that affects the compasses of ships in the channel a mile distant by about eight degrees. In the Bermuda Islands observations have been made in connection with the Bermuda Biological Survey, in Canada in connection with the Dominion Meteorological Service and the Dominion Observatory, in Central America by a member of the department staff, in China by a special observer in connection with several observatories, in Mexico in connection with the government, and in the South Pacific Islands under various arrangements. An extensive program has been arranged for systematic work in Africa under the direction of Prof. J. C. Beattie, of the South African College at Cape Town.

In connection with these and other observations there is a large number of problems of direct scientific interest with which the department is dealing and for which data are being secured from magnetic observatories, from records made during solar eclipses, and from the study of atmospheric electricity and other similar sources.

In the work of the Department of Terrestrial Magnetism there is no duplication of existing facilities, and use is made of all scientific and international co-operation. Its grant, which is somewhat in excess of \$50,000 annually, enables it to put in the field adequately equipped and intelligently organized expeditions, while in addition it is able to accumulate, systematize, and make available for the student all existing material on terrestrial magnetism, and at the same time it is working for the immediate and practical benefit of mankind.



A VIEW OF THE "GALILEE," SHOWING SPECIAL OBSERVING BRIDGE AND INSTRUMENTS.



# PORTUGAL IN THE FAMILY OF NATIONS.

BY ISABEL MOORE.

THE recent royal tragedy at Lisbon has turned the attention of the world to the small Iberian kingdom, always a thorn in the side of Spain, that, much sought after by various powers at various times, has succeeded in maintaining an individual although somewhat precarious national existence. Yet, to any one who is at all acquainted with the history, the national characteristics, the pictorial customs, or the valuable relics of Roman and pre-Roman civilizations that are Portugal's, it seems a sad comment that some such event should be necessary to secure her recognition by the modern progressive nations. Both her past and present are worthy of consideration without any such reminder.

Portugal, as a kingdom, has existed since a certain Affonso, ruler of Leon, conquered his two brothers and was crowned King of Castile, Leon, Galicia, and Coimbra, after which he proceeded to the conflict against his religious and territorial foes, the Lusitanian Moors, who were then in possession of the southern portions of the Spanish peninsula. Being hard pressed by his enemies, he was at last forced to call upon other Christian princes for assistance, and among those to respond was Count Henry of Burgundy, to whom Affonso gave his daughter in marriage, with the countries of Porto,—or Oporto (the corrupt English form),—and Coimbra, as a reward for his services. With this grant of lands began the Kingdom of Portugal. Affonso Henriques, the first king, was a son of the French prince.

## THE ALLIANCES WITH ENGLAND.

In little more than two centuries from this time Portugal had become great, a recognized power among the nations of Europe. It is both interesting and instructive in this connection to follow out, as a partial cause of her greatness, her various and succeeding alliances with England, from the appointment by Affonso Henriques of Gilbert of Hastings, first bishop of Lisbon, to the successes of the Portuguese-English army under the command of the Duke of Wellington in 1810, and, indeed, even later, until the presence of the recently murdered King Dom Carlos at the funeral ceremonies of Queen Victoria. For almost all Portugal's history, the two nations have been allies, although, during the later centuries, as England waxed greater and the power of Portugal waned, their mutual attitude has



CARLOS I. OF PORTUGAL.

(Assassinated on February 1, 1908.)

been rather that of patronage on the part of England than that of equals,—a situation to which the Portuguese have not been at all blind, in consideration of such questions as that of Lorenzo Marques, for example. But, in spite of occasional strained relations, the friendship has been a peculiarly lasting one among nations.

## IMPORTANCE OF ANGLO-PORTUGUESE COMMERCE.

Probably the most cogent reason for this friendship has been the commerce between the two countries, which dates back to King

Dom Dinez, cultivator of the arts of peace, and founder of Portugal's great university now at Coimbra, who maintained quite a correspondence with Edward I. of England, chiefly on commercial subjects, and with whom he made a treaty of commerce in 1294. He also exchanged letters with Edward II. on similar subjects; and between Edward III. and the successor of Dom Dinez there was an alliance for encouraging the interchange of Portuguese wines and English cloths, in addition to which desirable barter England undoubtedly saw the advantage of having an ally so close to Spain should the latter country ever come to the aid of the French. The idea of the statesmen of that time as well as later was to sustain a sort of unwritten alliance between England, Flanders, and Portugal against France, Scotland, and Castile; for, just as Scotland afforded a convenient basis of operations for France against England, so did Portugal offer similar opportunities to England against Castile.

The spirit of this national reciprocity culminated in the famous Treaty of Windsor (1387), by which Philippa of Lancaster, daughter of John of Gaunt, was married to Portugal's greatest king, Dom John I., founder of the royal house of Avis. This secured for a long time the peace of Portugal, and may be called the end of the era of national consolidation. In the Treaty of Paris we find the name of the King of Portugal as an ally of the King of England; in 1398 a body of archers sent by Richard II. of England helped put down an insurrection in Portugal; in 1400 John the Great recognized his brother-in-law, Henry of Lancaster, as Henry IV. of England; three years later Henry IV. ratified the Treaty of Windsor, and Henry V. of England sent provisions and troops in 1415 for the expedition to Ceuta.

#### THE GOLDEN AGE OF PORTUGAL.

This was the *Idade d'Ouro*, or Golden Age, of Portugal. So far as we are now able to judge, John the Great made only one mistake, from which bitter consequences resulted, and that was the granting of too much power and too large estates to the nobles of his realm. It may have been that he feared their secession to the Castilian party. But, whatever the reason, the fact remains that the result was to weaken seriously the royal power and to contribute to the evils of the feudal system.

Dom Henry, Duke of Viseu, known in history as "The Navigator," was the third

son of John the Great, and made himself and his country famous by his mandate to one of the early explorers to "sail toward the setting sun until you come to an island." The Portuguese proceeded to obey; only they sought the direction of the rising sun as well, and discovered continents as well as islands. All the world knows of the maritime discoveries made by the Portuguese during this period and the three reigns succeeding that of John the Great,—the discovery of the Madeiras and the Azores, the doubling of Cape Bojador by Gil Eannes, the discovery of Guinea, the reaching of Cape Verde in 1446, the discovery of the Congo in 1484 by Diego Cão, and the voyage around the Cape of Good Hope by Bartholomeu Diaz. All these, and the discovery of Labrador by Gaspar Corte-Real, were attendant glories on the greater discoveries of India by Vasco da Gama and of Brazil by Pedro Alvares Cabral.

#### HER FALL FROM GREATNESS.

But the fall of Portugal from this pinnacle of achievement was more sudden and almost as phenomenal as its rise into a place among European nations had been. Although the arrogance of the nobles had been broken by the grandson of John the Great to such an extent as to bring about an equally undesirable absolutism of the crown, other causes for national dissolution had come about. The expulsion of the Jews, who were the commercial strength of the nation; the introduction and activity of the Inquisition, the evils of the slave trade that had grown out of the discovery of Guinea, the emigration of the colonists, the degeneracy of the upper classes, were any one of them sufficient reason for bringing about the undermining of a country's greatness. To a combination of them all was, in this case, added the disastrous expedition and death of Dom Sebastian, the last king of the house of Avis. With his death there arose the distractions of an indirect succession, seven claimants to the throne appearing. It can be easily understood how the ambition of Philip II. of Spain won his point of being the legitimate heir through his mother, who was a direct descendant of John the Great. To annex Portugal had long been a veritable "castle in Spain" with Philip II.

#### "THE SPANISH CAPTIVITY."

Then followed the sixty years of what the Portuguese call The Spanish Captivity. A

nominal break in the friendship between Portugal and England became inevitable. Portugal, then being a Spanish possession and all Spanish possessions being lawful prey for the English, Sir Walter Raleigh and other "knights of the sea" did what they could to harass their old comrade. Yet, although many raids were perpetrated upon both Portuguese lands and Portuguese waters, indirectly England still sided with Portugal, and at the same time worried her enemy by upholding the claim to the Portuguese throne of Dom Antonio, the Prior of Crato, who seems to have had almost as good a right to it as Philip II. However, nothing much came of this except a great amount of bloodshed; and it is a notable illustration of the strength there can be in concerted and loyal action that Portugal, outraged and overridden by the Spaniards, arose as by one will in 1640, and by an almost peaceful revolution turned the Spaniards out, and re-established her national independence in the name of John IV., Duke of Braganza. With him the house of Braganza, as rulers, began. His legitimate claim, like Philip's, was through the feminine line of succession; but the claim of the Dukes of Braganza was also strong on their own account, being descended from the



QUEEN MARIA AMALIA OF PORTUGAL.

oldest, but illegitimate, son of John the Great.

From that day to this Portugal has been free of her ancient enemy and neighbor, in spite of the fact that there is always a party in the country that is in favor of annexation to Spain. And from that day to this there have been various treaties on the part of Portugal with France and Spain and England, the most famous being the Methuen Treaty of 1703 with the last. Indeed, the political situation and the requisites of commerce between the two are not so exceedingly different from what they were several centuries ago, except in fluctuating details. But though England is Portugal's commercial and political standby, the Portuguese naturally fraternize more with the French, socially and in their literature, as well as in their fashions. From Spain they always stand aloof. It is also true that, although they are more or less of the same origin and their language is more akin to Spanish than to any other, they are as a people characteristically different.

#### THE NAPOLEONIC WARS.

Like all the nations of Europe, they became involved in the Napoleonic wars. From the first Napoleon hated Portugal, realizing its possibilities as a field of action for the



THE LATE CROWN PRINCE OF PORTUGAL, LUIZ FILIPE.

(Assassinated, with his father, King Carlos, on February 1, 1908.)



English, and always considering it more as a province of England than as a separate kingdom. He aimed at its utter extinction, for by the Treaty of Fontainebleau in 1807 it was determined that Portugal should be conquered by the combined armies of France and Spain, and that the northern provinces should be given to the King of Etruria, the central provinces be held by France, and the southern provinces be formed into a little kingdom for Godoy. This line of action was promptly followed up so far that, in the same year, Junot entered and took Lisbon at the head of 2000 French troops, the royal family, acting on the advice of Sir Sydney Smith, the commander of an English squadron in the Tagus, fleeing to Brazil and leaving Portugal, governed from Rio Janeiro, to be defended by the English.

#### PORTUGAL GOVERNED FROM BRAZIL.

To this defence England proceeded, English and Portuguese fighting side by side, the Portuguese for their very existence. Any one going over the battle-ground of Bussacco to-day marvels at the achievement of Wellington's victory over Masséna. The Battle of Bussacco was the turning-point in the Peninsular War; it was also the first of the series of reverses which, five years later, ended with St. Helena. So far as the Portuguese were concerned, it enabled them to hold out, gaining ground inch by inch, until the abdication of Napoleon.

Curiously enough, John VI. was loath to leave Brazil and return to Portugal. At last, however, almost under compulsion, he did so, arranging that his eldest son, Dom Pedro, should rule in Brazil. No sooner had the royal family departed, however, than Dom Pedro was proclaimed Emperor, and Brazil declared its national independence. Dom Miguel, the younger son of John VI.,—said to have been illegitimate,—returned to Portugal, where he succeeded in keeping things stirred up by refusing to recognize the constitution. From him is descended the present Pretender to the throne of Portugal. He lives in his palace of Seebenstein, Austria, and has a most promising family to inherit his possessions and claims.

It was upon the return of John VI. to Portugal that the troubles began regarding the constitution that have culminated in the recent outrage. The people demanded a constitutional monarchy. Democratic views prevailed. Radical leaders cropped up on every side. "Pronunciamento" succeeded

"pronunciamento." Plot followed plot, and intrigue involved intrigue, in a manner more suggestive of the kaleidoscopic politics of the South American republics than of anything else, and of value only in so far as they developed the strong underlying current of modern ideas. There was also in Portugal at this time a certain counter-feeling against the English, arising from the fact that it was with difficulty that England could be made to remove her controlling hand after the assistance rendered by her against the French.

The loss of Brazil and the establishment of a constitutional monarchy necessarily brought about great changes. But, indeed, a study of this period is bewildering; nor are the details known to the world at large or to the Portuguese themselves. Conditions were very much in process, and very yeasty. The Portuguese were trying to *find themselves* as a nation. They are still trying.

Upon the death of his father, Pedro of Brazil was proclaimed Pedro IV. of Portugal. While this pleased the Portuguese, the Brazilians did not like it: therefore, after a little, he abdicated the throne of the mother country in favor of his daughter Maria Gloria, making the mistake at the same time of appointing his discontented brother, Dom Miguel, who considered that he should be king of Portugal, as Regent. Civil war was the immediate result. It was only after a bitter struggle that the loyalists were victorious and Dom Miguel was banished, his heirs being proclaimed forever ineligible to the succession. In this strife England again rendered some assistance; and we see for the first time the anomaly of Spanish troops fighting for the cause of Dom Pedro and his daughter.

The son of Maria Gloria and uncle of Dom Carlos, who has just been murdered, Pedro V., saw a better condition of affairs in his kingdom. During the reign of the late Dom Carlos also there has been commercial activity and a certain amount of established order.

#### THE PORT WINE INDUSTRY.

The commercial prosperity has, as of old, centered in the export of Port wines, the city of Oporto being the chief distributing point. But recent troubles similar to those in southern France are now hampering the merchants. Certain vinegrowers of the southern provinces have seen no reason why the grape of the northern provinces of Minho

and Douro should produce a finer wine than their own, or, at least, why the wine made of the southern grape should not command as good a market as that of the northern. Possibly their argument is good. Certainly their wine is excellent. But where the trouble with the old established Port wine making and exporting firms of the north comes in is that these enterprising southern traders are putting their wines on the market, not as a substitute for Port or a wine having equal quality and value, but as being actual Port wine itself, which of course it isn't. Therefore trouble is rife. The northern merchants are much perturbed and are seeking protective measures of some sort. Meanwhile, much good Portuguese wine is sold under the generic name of Port that is not Port wine at all.

A southern Portuguese export of importance is cork. The greater part of the provinces of Algae and Alemtejo are given over to the groves of low open cork trees, from which a judicious selection is made every year by the growers, for a cork tree can have its bark cut only every ten years. Great quantities of cork are shipped annually to America, and a certain amount also to England. Licorice root is another flourishing enterprise of the south of Portugal; and oranges, bananas, and pineapples are shipped in great numbers to England.

#### ENGLISH, GERMAN, AND AMERICAN TRADE.

While there is a great deal of Portuguese wealth invested in these trades, there is even more English money, for it is English commercial enterprise that has developed Portugal, although of late German traders have also invested heavily there. But the Germans concern themselves rather more with introducing their own wares than getting control of the native products, on the whole, and have put up many breweries both in the north and in the south. Indeed, while the native products are valuable in their way, Portugal as a market is worth even greater consideration. The Germans are astute in following up its possibilities. English wares run them close, but where America has edged in at all, American articles,—such as shoes, farm implements, and machinery,—are winning. In this connection it is interesting to note that Lisbon has an electric tramway system built and operated on entirely American lines. The cars were made in this country. The motormen have the true American spirit of rush and hairbreadth escapes, while

the service is in many ways much superior to anything we have here.

There are a few articles manufactured in Portugal that are of interest, such as potteries and baskets and house tiles, and an occasional survival or revival of an almost lost craft such as the Moorish tiles, or *Azulejos*, as they are called. But these are almost entirely for home consumption. No nation has as yet seen a profit in their exportation. Yet possibly there might be a profitable trade built up, especially in the clay-made things. Portugal has none of the white clay of the north of Spain, but her red and gray clays are very serviceable and beautiful. The Portuguese also manufacture, in small quantities, articles of copper, brass, and furniture. Their furniture is slowly and perfectly put together, the *Jacandará*, or Brazilian rosewood, being often used. Unquestionably their cabinet work is fine. The work of their coppersmiths also is by no means to be despised. But their silversmiths really excel, and are known to the trading world, for they make for London and the continental markets the filigree silver necklaces, the silver linked purses, and the larger bags of elaborated silver and gold that have been particularly the fashion for some years. Oporto has always been a center for the silversmiths, and it is claimed by them that the craft has been handed down among their kind since the days of the Phenician colonization. The same thing is claimed regarding certain dyes of fabrics still in use, but the secret of the coloring of which is now lost.

#### ART AND LETTERS.

There has also been literary and artistic prosperity during the time of Dom Carlos. Among the writers the name of Eça de Queiroz stands pre-eminent as a lyric poet of the highest order; and a relative of his, Teixeira de Queiroz, with Abel Botelho, are the two foremost romanticists of the present group of writers in Lisbon. Antonio Ferreira is well known as a poet, as are Mario de Artagão and Eduardo Vidal. Among the younger men is Antonio Corea d'Oliveira. Of the prose writers and journalists perhaps Eduardo de Noronha takes the lead, while Dr. Ribeyra y Rovira, a Spaniard, follows the example of some of the ancient poets and writes in the Portuguese language as well as in his own. It is he who has recently had charge of the arrangements for the Portuguese section of the Barcelona Exposition.

This section has been principally composed of statuary and paintings, for Portugal has several sculptors of merit, notably Thomas Costa, and Raphael Bordello, Manoel Gustavo, and Jorge Collaço, among the *genre* artists. Yet living, but of the old school of animal painters, is the artist Gyrão. In the Paris Salon of 1907 Portuguese art was represented by Sousa Lopes, Sousa Pinto, and Alberto Pinto,—young and progressive artists, all of them.

#### POLITICAL UNREST.

Many political factions have arisen during recent years. As in every other country under the sun, politics are corrupt. The national debt is terrific. Taxes are heavy. There is also something of a break in the old-time feeling for England, for she has followed up her advantages perhaps a little too closely. England is noted for many things, but not for her tact. The Portuguese are sensitive and proud and have, for a long time now, been the under dog. These conditions do not make for friendliness.

For a year or two the cloud of coming events has hung heavy over the land of Portugal. Some change has for a long time been imminent, though none expected so criminal a climax as that of February 1. Dom Carlos, not being able to cope with the issues of the day as King, and being fearful of the strength and popularity of Senhor João Franco, who, in successive offices, was fighting for reforms, at last combined forces with Franco, authorizing him to an extreme limit. Franco's methods were arbitrary. Absolute monarchism was in full sway. The methods employed were altogether medieval and out of date. Franco was autocratic. There has been no Parliament: nothing but arbitrary decrees. The vortex of the trouble is, perhaps, the tobacco monopoly: but many other things have contributed their share to the disturbance, the climax being reached by the decree giving Franco unlimited power to check the revolutionaries.

Now the Republican party is strong. The Miguelists are silent and active. There is a small party in favor of annexation to Spain. Although Premier Franco has resigned office, he is still undoubtedly to be reckoned with in the near future. The Queen Regent, Dona Amelia, is personally liked, but is strongly disapproved of by many, even of the most devout and stanch Catholics, because of her strong sympathies with the Jesuits. The army, we are told, is with the new King, Dom Manuel II., a boy of nineteen. Whether this is so or not remains to be seen.

#### WHAT OF THE FUTURE?

Indeed, many things remain to be seen. There is not the slightest use in trying to predict what will be next in order. In many ways Portugal is ready to be a republic, yet she may be content with the present new régime. But there can be no doubt that the Portuguese are entitled to our sympathy and an intelligent understanding of their efforts for good government and for advanced political, international, and educational ideas.

The young King may have our sympathy also,—whether we sympathize in general with kings or not,—for, as a mere human being, this manly, athletic, good-looking boy has certainly been forced by recent events into a most critical and decidedly trying position,—has had greatness, or, at least, his kingdom and his opportunity, thrust upon him; and the fact that it is a very little kingdom, being, continentally, only about 300 miles long and 150 miles wide, increases rather than decreases his difficulties. There is something distinctly pathetic in his placing himself in the hands of his ministers forty-eight hours after his father and brother had been shot down beside him in the carriage, and saying, in a voice shaking with emotion: "I am yet without experience either in science or in politics. I place myself entirely in your hands, needing and believing in your patriotism and wisdom."



# NOMINATING A PRESIDENT.

BY VICTOR ROSEWATER.

**EVERY** fourth year the national committees of the great political parties meet, usually in Washington and usually in the month of December, to formulate the calls for the Presidential nominating conventions. Almost before the signatures to the calls for these conventions are dry the State committees and the district committees of the various parties are called together to arrange for State and district conventions to select national convention delegates.

As soon as the calls for these State and district conventions are out the party committees of the different counties, or other subdivisions of the State, get together and provide for the choice of delegates from their respective counties to the different State and Congressional conventions. The calls of the county committees are issued to the different precinct committees or precinct heads, who in turn summon the voters of their respective voting districts to assemble in caucus or at primary election to choose the delegates who are to speak for them, and to instruct them how they want them to speak.

The promulgation of the calls of the national committees, therefore, like the pressing of an electric button, starts up the whole gigantic machinery of party organization, communicating the motion from the top down, from wheel to wheel and cog to cog, until it reaches the individual elector of each party, who in theory, at least, decides the destinies of candidates as well as of the nation.

Every intelligent American citizen knows that he never casts a vote for President or Vice-President. He knows that the President and Vice-President are chosen by Presidential electors, bound by some sort of unwritten law to vote for the nominees of their respective parties. But few realize just how the force of public opinion is centered and fixed to bring about this result,—namely, that all the Republican Presidential electors shall vote for one and the same man, and that all the Democratic electors shall vote for one and the same man. The power behind this unwritten law is the party organization representing the great political divisions of the

people, made effective by their nominating conventions.\*

When the national committee, which is the board of directors, of one of these great political parties convenes to arrange the details of the nominating convention, great emphasis is laid upon the fact that the Republicans are to meet in Chicago on June 16, or that the Democrats are to meet in Denver on July 7, yet the time and place of holding the convention are the least important points to be determined.

## THE NATIONAL CONVENTION: AN AMERICAN INSTITUTION.

These nominating conventions of the great political parties are institutions peculiar to our American Republic, gradually evolved to meet the exigencies of the unique method provided by our Constitution for choosing a new President and a new Vice-President every four years. Our first Presidents were not formally nominated at all, but received the votes of the Presidential electors of their respective parties by a sort of spontaneous common consent. Later the nominating machinery consisted of resolutions of indorsement of a "favorite son" by the Legislature of his State, or its delegation in Congress, emphasized by repetition in other legislatures or mass meetings; and still later it consisted of a caucus to which all the members of Congress of the same political affiliation were invited. The Congressional caucus could at best poorly represent the rank and file of the party, because it included only members from those States and districts which were represented in Congress by members of that political faith, and left entirely unrepresented those States and districts whose Congressional delegations were made up of members of other political parties. That these crude methods of choosing a party standard-bearer should prove unsatisfactory and eventually break down was inevitable.

The genesis of our national nominating convention, modeled after similar conventions in the States, dates from 1832, when

\* See article on Presidential Electors in REVIEW OF REVIEWS for JANUARY, 1901.

the first Democratic National Convention was held, in which each State was given representation and was allowed the same number of votes as was accorded to it in the Electoral College. The first Republican convention was held in 1856, without any uniformity of representation or manner of choosing delegates,—in reality a mass convention with few of the Southern States participating. Not until the convention of 1860 did the Republicans give a voice to the Territories and to the District of Columbia, which were still excluded from the Democratic organization. To-day both the great political parties are truly national organizations to the extent of participation by all who profess allegiance to their principles without regard to residence in the States of the Union, which alone have votes in the Electoral College.

#### BASIS OF REPRESENTATION.

It will be found, however, on close inspection, that the theories of organization back of the two great political parties differ precisely as do their theories of government. The Republican party is centralized in structure, yet with individual responsibility, while the Democratic party places emphasis upon State sovereignty and leaves to the subordinate organizations of the different States a large measure of autonomy. Mere reading of the calls issued by the national committees will show, in spite of similarity in the apportionment of delegates, a certain significant divergence. The ratio of apportionment adopted by the Republicans is four delegates-at-large from each State; two delegates for each Representative-at-large in Congress; two delegates from each Congressional district, each of the Territories, each of the insular possessions, and the District of Columbia. The Democratic apportionment entitles each State to double the number of its Senators and Representatives in Congress, and each Territory, the District of Columbia, and insular possessions, except the Philippines, to six delegates. This makes the membership of the coming Republican convention consist of 980 delegates, with 491 the necessary majority to nominate, and the membership of the coming Democratic convention to consist of 1002 delegates, with 668 the necessary two-thirds majority to nominate.

This basis of representation has never been completely satisfactory, and is admittedly open to serious criticism. This is particu-

larly true with respect to the Republicans, because, in almost all the States known as the "Solid South," the Republican organization is chiefly a paper organization, maintained by federal office-holders and those who aspire to federal office, together with a few negro Republicans, who are not permitted to cast a ballot in the election. It has been mathematically computed that the vote of a Republican in certain Southern districts in its proportionate influence upon the party nominations is equal to from ten to fifty Republican votes in the Northern States. This situation is likewise prolific of double-headers and contests, and charges and counter-charges of corruption, which would be largely avoided if the basis of representation were more in conformity with the numerical strength of the party in the different States and districts.

Repeated but unsuccessful attempts have been made to remedy these defects by changing the basis of representation. The most serious attempt came in the meeting of the Republican National Committee held in 1883, where two propositions were presented for consideration,—one, retaining the four delegates-at-large for each State and one delegate for each Congressional district, and giving an additional delegate for a certain number of votes for the Republican candidate at the preceding Presidential election; the other, retaining the four delegates-at-large and one delegate for each Congressional district, and giving an additional delegate for each Republican member of Congress. The last proposal of this kind was submitted at the meeting of the committee in 1899, but it was not pressed, and the committee four years later took another step toward further over-weighting the provinces by increasing the representation of the Territories and the insular possessions from two delegates to six delegates,—a step which was retracted by the committee at its meeting last December.

It should be explained that the proportional basis of representation thus contended for prevails in both parties within the States in the makeup of State conventions, although no party has had the courage to apply it to its national convention. It should further be explained that the defense of the present disproportionate basis rests upon a plea that in those States and districts where the party is in the minority participation in the conventions is the only privilege which its members enjoy, and that in this way alone are

they able, by indirectly influencing the selection of the party nominee, to have anything to say in the choice of a President.

The unit of representation in the Democratic national councils is the State, and each State is left untrammelled to choose its delegates as it pleases and to subject them to such instruction as may be desired. The State is the unit of representation in the Republican convention only for delegates-at-large, and the Congressional district is the unit of representation for the district delegates. The Republicans, furthermore, insist that whatever method of choosing delegates may be adopted, the Republican electors of each Congressional district must be permitted to choose the delegates to represent their district without interference by Republicans of other districts.

THE "UNIT RULE" ADOPTED BY THE DEMOCRATS, REJECTED BY THE REPUBLICANS.

All this was fought out and definitely established in the Republican convention of 1880, when what is called the "Unit Rule," which has prevailed in Democratic conventions from the first, was rejected, and the principle of individual responsibility affirmed. Resolutions of instruction, therefore, adopted by a Republican State convention apply only to delegates-at-large, chosen by that convention, and not to the delegates chosen to represent the various Congressional districts of the same State, who are subject only to the instructions duly given by the Republican electors of their respective districts. While the delegates-at-large or the district delegates are answerable to the Republicans of their respective States or districts for fidelity to instructions, the Republican National Convention will not assume to enforce obedience to instructions by any delegate who seeks to break away from them. In a word, a delegate to the Republican National Convention may vote his personal preference on any question and have it so recorded irrespective of conditions imposed upon him by his constituents.

In the Democratic National Convention precisely the opposite rule prevails, and the convention itself will require the execution of any mandate properly given by the Democratic State Convention by which the delegates are commissioned. To be more explicit, the unit rule which governs in the Democratic organization requires all the votes of any State, which has so ordered, to be cast as a unit as the majority of the dele-

gates may decide, and the only record which an individual delegate is entitled to have is the record of the poll of the delegation that determines whether he is in the majority or in the minority.

#### TIME AND MANNER OF CHOOSING DELEGATES.

Almost as important as the time fixed for the meeting of the convention is the time fixed for the election of the delegates. Before the convention system was fully developed, and even in its early stages, there was no time limit to the projection of Presidential candidates. The Presidential electors in the early days were in many cases not chosen by the people at all, but were appointed by the legislatures of the different States with great irregularity as to time. There was no uniform day for choosing Presidential electors until a law enacted by Congress in 1845 settled upon the first Tuesday after the first Monday in November preceding the expiration of the Presidential term, and made it the same for the whole country. South Carolina appointed its Presidential electors by its Legislature up to and including 1860, and even as late as 1876 Colorado, which had just been admitted into the Union, was permitted to make legislative appointment of its electors because it became a State too late to submit a choice to the people that year. For a long time, too, Presidential electors used to be chosen in some States by districts, but since 1876, although in no way required by the Constitution, complete uniformity has been effected whereby the Presidential electors are all chosen at large in each State at a popular election held on the same day throughout the Union.

The time for choosing the Presidential electors must naturally have something to do with the time for making Presidential nominations, and likewise with the time for choosing delegates to the national nominating conventions. Andrew Jackson started out on his first winning campaign as soon as he found that John Quincy Adams was given the preference over him by the House of Representatives, to which the Presidential election of 1824 had been thrown by the failure of any candidate to get a majority of the electoral votes. He was formally nominated by the Legislature of Tennessee in October, 1825, over three years before the Electoral College was to meet. The later tendency has been to shorten Presidential campaigns, with the consequence that since reconstruction

days the Republicans have made their nominations regularly in June of the year of the Presidential election, to be followed within a month by the Democrats. The practice has also grown up for the committees to issue their calls not earlier than the preceding December, and although delegates have been chosen before the promulgation of the call, the party machinery as a rule is not set in motion until after this official notice is given.

The Republican organization has gone still further by setting more definite limits to the time of choosing delegates. Delegates to the coming Republican National Convention, to receive recognition, must be chosen on not less than thirty days' notice, not earlier than thirty days after the date of the call, and not later than thirty days before the date of the convention. It happened that, at the time the Republican committee met last December, two delegates had already been chosen by one Michigan district and six delegates by the Territory of Alaska, who were practically ruled out by this time limit, which forces the Republicans of those jurisdictions to go through the form of choosing their delegates again. The purpose of the second time limit is to prevent sharp practice on the eve of a convention, without ample opportunity to investigate contests or irregularities, and to make sure that the delegates presenting credentials are rightly entitled to hold the seats and cast the votes to which they lay claim.

While the Democrats, proceeding on their States' rights ideas, give free hand in the manner of selecting national convention delegates, the Republicans insist upon certain forms of procedure. The delegates-at-large must be chosen by popular State and Territorial conventions, to be called by the various State committees in conformity with their established rules, and the district delegates are to be similarly chosen under direction of the district committees. In the Southern States, where the Republican organization is more or less imperfect, and in which many hopelessly Democratic districts are without Republican committees, the State committees take charge for all the districts and see to it that the necessary conventions are held. For the insular possessions and for the District of Columbia special machinery is created to take in hand the local organization and enable the Republicans there to select their delegates. Until the call last issued for the coming Republican National Convention it was required that district delegates be chosen "in the same manner as is required for the nomination of

candidates for Congress," but, because of the increasing number of State laws regulating party nominations, and in some cases making nominations by direct primary vote compulsory, this limitation has been eliminated, and in its place authority is given for the election of both delegates-at-large and district delegates from any State "in conformity with the laws of the State in which the election occurs, provided the State committee or Congressional committee so direct."

#### EFFECT OF STATE PRIMARY LAWS.

How far State legislation may regulate or interfere with the choice of national convention delegates has raised a question suggested by these new laws of far-reaching moment and full of future possibilities. At the meeting of the Republican National Committee this question was referred to a special committee consisting of three eminent lawyers of national reputation. After careful investigation these lawyers unanimously reached the conclusion that the national nominating conventions are entirely extra-legal institutions, in no way subject to legislative control by either State or federal governments. They take the view that the only personage officially known to the law or the Constitution in connection with the choice of President and Vice-President is the Presidential elector, and that the delegate to a national nominating convention holds no official position, has no legal status, and no enforceable responsibility, except as that responsibility may be enforced by party discipline. They admit that the officers of the different party committees and party organizations within the several States are subject to the legislative and judicial jurisdiction of those States, and that the complication of the party machinery, which usually joins together the choice of national convention delegates and the nomination of candidates for office, makes exemption from State control difficult, if not impracticable, and for this reason the national committee put it back to the State and Congressional committees to determine how far the manner of choosing national convention delegates should conform with the laws of their respective States.

Even as it is, it will be impossible to give strict observance to some of these State laws if the conditions of the call for the Republican convention are to be made paramount. In Mississippi, for example, the lawmakers have decreed that all national convention delegates shall be chosen at large in one State



convention. This State law would not only contravene the Republican unit of representation, which is the Congressional district, but would permit combinations to give all the representation to one or two districts and disfranchise the Republicans in all the other districts. In Wisconsin, again, the law provides for the election of all the delegates by direct-primary vote in the State or district, as the case may be, and the appointment of all the alternates by the State committee of each political party. Inasmuch as the alternates may upon contingencies become the principals, this method would permit the naming of alternates who could never be otherwise elected, or who might all live in one district, thus making possible the disfranchisement of the Republicans of one or more districts. Under the call the names of no alternates from Wisconsin can be put on the temporary roll of the coming Republican National Convention unless their credentials show that they have been chosen by the Republican electors of the district which they claim to represent.

If the State laws governing nominations and primary elections were uniform from one end of the country to the other, most of these conflicts would be obviated. Yet the fact remains that, although a large number of States have already put upon their statute books laws to regulate the nomination of candidates for office, almost all of them expressly exempt from their provisions the choosing of delegates to national nominating conventions, and leave it to the political committees to arrange for choosing these delegates as their party custom and precedent require. Even in States like Iowa, Nebraska, Illinois, Missouri, Pennsylvania, Oregon, and Washington, which have gone farthest in the movement for direct-primary nominations, the regular primary election is set for a date coming after the usual time for Presidential nominations, with a view to separating as far as possible the choice of candidates for State and local offices from national politics. In still other States national convention delegates are being chosen by direct primary in one form or another, as improvised by the political committees or as provided for by the State for use at the option of such

committees. This is what is being done in California and in certain districts of Ohio, while the State primary in Ohio was to take the popular expression, not as to delegates, but squarely as between aspirants for the Republican Presidential nomination.

The enactment of direct-primary laws by so many States and their possible application to the machinery for the nomination of Presidential candidates suggest still another inquiry, to which, however, the answer cannot yet be given. Attempts have more than once been made to remove the objections lodged against our Electoral College system and to satisfy the demand for a more popular election of President by amendment to the federal Constitution, but without making noticeable headway. The nomination of candidates representing political parties has really brought the choice of the people down to a choice between two opposing tickets. If we could make sure that the candidates nominated by the Republicans and Democrats, respectively, really represented the choice of the individual membership of the party, the test of strength between the two would come closer to giving us a President chosen by popular vote. Will the new developments in primary legislation work out eventually into a national primary election for the nomination of Presidential candidates? Some progress has certainly been made toward State-wide primaries to select national convention delegates, and here and there to instruct them as to popular preference of candidates. There seems, however, to be no authority able to provide a national nominating primary, unless it be decreed and put into operation by an entirely new development of our national party organizations.

After the delegates are organized in national convention they are a law unto themselves. Although it follows precedent, the national convention is the highest tribunal of the party and endowed with plenary power. Its official notice of nomination is nowhere recognized in law, but it carries with it the moral certainty that if a majority of the Presidential electors belong to that political party its nominee, his life being spared, will become President of the Republic for the ensuing four years.

# THE MAN OUT OF WORK TO-DAY.

BY ARTHUR P. KELLOGG.

**I**N the plight of the unemployed there are several considerations besides the mere fact of idleness. There is, for instance, a sharp distinction between the unemployed and the unemployable; some men won't work. There is always comparative lack of work in mid-winter, due to bad weather and the slack season in certain industries, and there are many workmen caught in the cogs of new machinery and new methods of production whose hard-bought trades are a drug in a market no longer bidding for handicraft where machinecraft is quicker and cheaper,—men who must suffer as they adjust themselves to a new order. These things are not peculiar to this winter, but they add to its total of unemployment.

## ALL ESTIMATES OF NUMBERS MERE GUESSES.

The number now out of work is variously estimated. It has not been counted nor can it be compared exactly with the number in other years, for America has no substitute for the police registration of European cities. A committee in charge of the relief situation of Chicago gives 75,000 as a conservative guess for that city of many seasonal occupations. In New York estimates made by Frank Julian Warne from a few authoritative figures on typical trades indicate 90,000 idle members of trade unions in addition to non-union workers, and a minimum of 35,000 homeless men besides. The number of homeless men is based on the total number of beds in free and cheap lodging-houses, and as all of these are crowded, it is probably near right. The Commissioner of Public Charities has stated that there are normally 30,000 homeless men in New York at this time of year. Of other figures one may take his choice. Numbers count for little, for, as has recently been pointed out, it is not the number who are idle, but the ability of the idle to meet the situation, that counts. One hundred thousand men temporarily idle but able to care for themselves and their families make a problem slight in comparison with a possible situation involving one-tenth as many both idle and dependent.

The demands on municipal lodging-houses, charitable societies, churches, and employment bureaus, the long bread-lines, the

men walking the Bowery at night, the scramble for the snow-shovels in the street-cleaning gangs, the falling off in deposits at the savings banks,—a score of bad-times barometers give evidence of unemployment greater than has been known since the winter of 1893-94.

## VAGRANTS DISTINGUISHED FROM WORKERS.

Early this winter there were swarms of vagrants in all the large cities. The talk of hard times in the papers brought them to the front, and men who could not claim a legal residence or name a recent employer were the typical applicants for relief. From the first they were cared for in the usual ways. Food and lodgings and clothes were given, but payment was exacted over sawbucks and stone-piles, and the vagrant has begun to move on. At the New York Municipal Lodging-House there was an average overflow of eighty-three men a night during December, in addition to the 350 for whom beds are provided,—a total of over 13,000 lodgings. In January the average overflow was only fifty-three, in spite of much colder weather, with the first snowfall heavy enough to claim rights to the streets for more than a day. Baltimore reports a decreasing number of homeless men, and in St. Paul there are fewer now than there were a year ago. The habitual vagrant is of the unemployable. He edges away from the work test which precedes a meal, and from the shower baths which are essential preliminaries nowadays to a bed at the public expense.

## WHAT CAUSES LACK OF EMPLOYMENT?

In his place as an applicant for private charity has come the man with a family, who wants work. The unskilled, the less intelligent workmen, those with large families, the newly arrived immigrants not adjusted to American industry, those handicapped by age and accident and disease and habits, are asking for work increasingly; and it is but slowly that the places are growing in number. This was to have been expected. The man on the edge goes over first. The danger was that his more firmly established neighbors would follow.

Six factors, at least, enter into the amount

of unemployment this winter. These are the financial stringency, the temporary shut-down of manufacturing plants, the change in the method of manufacture from "stock" to "order" products, the overstocking of retailers due to cool weather last summer, the usual unemployment at this time of year, and the Presidential campaign. The building and clothing trades have been crippled in New York as a result of the high interest charges on money. Practically no new buildings have been started, and labor leaders find growing numbers of their unions idle as inside work is finished on buildings nearing completion. The carpenters and plasterers and decorators are following the excavators and stone-masons and structural iron-workers. Orders for spring goods have been placed in considerable quantities with manufacturers of clothing, but the money for wages and material must be borrowed at rates too dear for profit. In the clothing trades, too, there are the stocks which the prevailing cool weather last summer left on the shopkeepers' shelves. The state of affairs in these two trades in one city is typical, it is believed, of many trades across the country. The change from "stock" to "order" manufacturing is incident to modern conditions and, in some trades, is due to a more general demand for fashionable weaves and colors and cut. Where factories once ran the year round on staple or stock goods, they now make only what is entered on their order books. A greater rush during the busy season and a longer slack season result. The approach of a Presidential campaign tends to caution and restriction in business. The closing of many plants, the partial operation of others, and the abandonment of new enterprises are too currently understood to need explanation. They exist, and they spell idle capital and idle men.

#### UNEMPLOYMENT NORMAL IN MIDWINTER.

The sixth cause,—unemployment usual to midwinter,—is not so generally appreciated. Outdoor workers of all kinds,—all the men engaged in northern lakes and river commerce, farm and harvest hands, men in the building trades, fishermen, railroad construction gangs, and many others, skilled and unskilled,—and the workers in factories which produce seasonal goods are normally idle a part of the year, and winter is most often that part. The skilled live on their savings or turn to kindred trades. The unskilled become odd-job men, watchmen, snow-shov-

elers, and sometimes must seek charitable relief before spring. Reports of the New York State Bureau of Labor covering a period of four years show that from 20 to 25 per cent. of the total members, approximately 250,000, of the more than 600 labor unions in New York City, are normally idle at this time. In 1905, an exceptionally favorable year for employment, there were 55,000 union men and women in New York State who were idle during March, while in September of the same year only 18,000 were idle. In March 43 per cent. of masons and bricklayers, 20 per cent. of plumbers and joiners, 29 per cent. of painters and decorators, did not work, and so on in varying degree through the trades.

#### APPLICATIONS FROM FAMILIES.

Public and private charities had in December and January two of the hardest working months in their history. They had to deal not only with unemployed and homeless men whose responsibilities were limited to themselves, but with heads of families who were out of work and for whom they could not find work. Of 1879 families in the care of the New York Charity Organization Society in January, there were 566 in which able-bodied male wage-earners were unable to find work,—a state of affairs unprecedented in the Society's experience since 1894. From October to January the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor had 500 more applications from families than in the same period of the preceding year. In December the County Agent in Chicago aided 4151 persons, against 2898 the year before. Chicago's Municipal Lodging-House figures jumped from 1099 to 11,200, the number for the one month almost equaling the total for eleven months preceding. The Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity had 2051 applicants, against 1246. In Baltimore the increase in applications to the Federated Charities was 17 per cent., in Cleveland it was 21 per cent., in Minneapolis 35 per cent., in St. Louis 50 per cent., in Cincinnati 73 per cent. The January figures showed even larger increases, though this was to a degree offset by the increase expected in that month in every year. In New York and Brooklyn the ratio of increase of January, 1908, over January, 1907, was slightly less than the ratio of December over December, but this was not generally true. There were increases significant of more widespread suffering in the growing numbers of men with families who applied for the first time for relief. There

was an appreciable number of applications by families which the New York Society had aided in 1893 and 1894 which had been self-supporting since that time of suffering. Applications to a charity organization society do not measure unemployment. They are, however, a sensitive barometer of distress.

#### ORGANIZED CHARITIES PREPARED FOR THE SITUATION.

There was a quick marshaling of charitable forces early in the winter. In the face of a financial outlook which threatened decreased revenues, office and visiting staffs were increased, workrooms were enlarged, and preparations made to meet possible emergencies. The spirit of organized charity was well shown in the remark of the secretary of an Eastern society who said almost a year ago that hard times were coming, and instead of retrenching she would open a new district office in an industrial quarter. The demands on charitable societies have been met. Work has been found so far as was possible and advisable. Needy families have had care and adequate relief. Vagrants have not been allowed to exploit the distress of those honestly seeking work or assistance. In many cities, notably Baltimore and Buffalo, the working forces have been largely increased by volunteers. In New York the capacity of the woodyard has been greatly increased, the number of visitors of the Charity Organization Society has been doubled, and, through an investigator peculiarly equipped for such work, close track has been kept each day of the whole situation, so that if it became acute and emergency measures necessary there would be a fund of first-hand information upon which to base them. The societies in sixteen of the largest cities have kept each other informed of the local situations, and heavy as the calls upon them are, the societies are finding that the public is backing them up financially. The need for money is great, but a fair statement of that need is everywhere meeting with prompt response.

#### EMERGENCY MEASURES.

Emergency relief measures thus far have been few. Chicago, which probably has a relatively larger number of unemployed than most other cities, has been furnishing work on the streets to all applicants, three days' keep at the Municipal Lodging-House being given for one day's work. A committee of business men is raising a fund of \$100,000 to be paid out in wages to men with families.

New York may hurry forward work on a new subway. Pittsburg has voted to extend its water system, \$350,000 of the amount appropriated to be available for wages. In Columbus, Ohio, a committee of which the Mayor is chairman, raised money by an "emergency day," which is being spent in wages for street work. Cincinnati has appropriated \$20,000 for work in the parks. The Indianapolis Associated Charities has a novel plan. Cottages are being erected by unemployed men on lots which it owns, and the occupants will be widows with children who are pensioners of the organization. There has been talk in New York of greatly extending as a work test the use of the stone-quarry on Blackwell's Island, and while no definite steps looking toward this have been announced, it is believed to have had a salutary effect on vagrants. It is noteworthy that in all these public movements organized charity, either directly or through its officers, has taken the dominant part. The forces which, with the army, effected the relief and rehabilitation of San Francisco, have proved equal to a national situation, and have averted what might have proved a calamity had soup kitchens and indiscriminate almsgiving had a moment's encouragement. The 400 men with trades who are splitting wood at 10 cents an hour for the St. Louis Provident Association rather than accept direct relief are a splendid illustration of what the workingman in want will choose.

Just what the outcome will be it is difficult to tell. Most of the newspapers have been divided, on the one hand greatly exaggerating the situation, and on the other placing themselves in the ridiculous position of publishing lists of reopened factories whose closing had not been chronicled. Commercial reports, interviews with both manufacturers and labor leaders, the presence in the New York market of out-of-town buyers, a marked increase in spring over winter advertising, and other commercial and industrial signs, indicate a slow resumption of work. The general practice among manufacturers of working a large part of their forces part time rather than a few men full time has helped all the way through, has kept the different manufacturing processes about on a level, and has maintained business organization, so that complete resumption is physically easy. The savings, the help of friends, the union benefits, the patience of landlords and tradesmen, have, of

course, been growing less. More families may come to want this month than last. In a great many families, no doubt, it is a matter of being able to hold out for a short time more.

#### SPORADIC ATTEMPTS TO ORGANIZE THE UNEMPLOYED.

Organized demands on public funds have been made in a few cities, but not persistently or on a large scale. In Chicago, Ben. L. Reitman, who has styled himself the tramps' friend, announced that his followers and all idle men in the city would gather on the lake front for a demonstration in numbers before the city hall. The police warned Reitman that such a meeting would not be permitted, whereupon he threatened to fight. The men who met at the appointed time were discouraged by a bitter cold day and by a body of police said to equal their own numbers. A few heads were broken, but Reitman himself submitted quietly to arrest. He has since gone to St. Louis to join J. Eads How, who would out-Coxey all records by a mid-winter "petition in boots" on Washington. Reitman and How have gained notoriety by their championship of the tramp. They have proposed State colonies for vagrants, and the main provision of their hobo-cure is the payment of wages during jail sentences, the money so earned to be turned over in cash, with a new suit of clothes, at discharge. How is the grandson of the builder of the Eads bridge at St. Louis, and a son of the late E. D. How, who was a vice-president of the Wabash Railroad. He refused to accept for his personal use a considerable sum of money which came into his possession, and used it to form the People's Welfare Association, which has made St. Louis the Mecca for tramps from every part of the country. Long discussions of tramp life and jail life, free meals and lodgings, are its chief characteristics. Reitman, How's close associate, is said to be a physician. He is afflicted, so he says, with intermittent attacks of a "wanderlust" so violent that he cannot settle down to a steady practice. He has made an elaborate classification of tramps, hobos, bums, and vagrants, and proposes to write a book on them.

In Boston, Morrison I. Swift appeared early in the winter to organize the unem-

ployed for a concerted demand for help from the State. Swift spoke daily on the Common, and finally "marched on" Governor Guild with a following of thirty men. Swift spoke, the Governor spoke, representatives of labor bureaus and charitable agencies spoke, and the thirty quietly melted away as it became apparent that work and nothing else would be offered. All of them were proffered positions at the work to which they said they were used. None appeared to accept it. Swift and about 300 followers descended on Trinity Church one Sunday in January and demanded the collection. It was unfortunate, the rector explained, that this was a special collection for foreign missions, but a collection for the unemployed would be taken up the next Sunday, and it was, about \$1000 in amount. It was disbursed through the regular channels of the Provident Association. Swift is a graduate of Johns Hopkins University and was a lieutenant in Coxey's Army.

The effects of unemployment beyond the immediate suffering which it causes are difficult to measure. In December the Buffalo Charity Organization Society showed at its thirtieth anniversary that while the population of Buffalo has more than doubled, the number of poor families has been reduced by more than half since 1877. Dr. Edward T. Devine, general secretary of the New York Charity Organization Society, which celebrated its twenty-fifth anniversary in November, says: "In New York, because of immigration and because the charitable societies have undertaken tasks which were formerly regarded as outside their field, such as the eradication of tuberculosis, the number in our charge has increased, but great progress, nevertheless, has been made in diminishing dependence of the usual type." St. Paul, just the other day, reported that in spite of the increase in population the number of people coming to want has been lessened year by year since its charities were organized; this decrease has been stopped and displaced by a positive increase since last October. Just how much of an offset this winter has been to the prevention of poverty, how many men have been given the final push into habitual idleness, how many mischievous boys turned into loafers and tramps, how many family ties broken, may not be counted.

# SHALL BANK DEPOSITS BE GUARANTEED?

BY GENERAL A. B. NETTLETON.

THE proposition to provide some general form of protection for bank depositors against loss from bank failures is not new,—not suddenly born of recent fright and disaster. Certain experiments in this field were made in the remote past, but under conditions so crude as to furnish no useful basis of judgment. During the last dozen years a number of well-informed writers on financial subjects in the United States, including several practical bankers, have presented and advocated fairly well digested plans to this end. In 1899 such a measure lacked but two or three votes of enactment by the Legislature of Kansas. A group of about 100 State banks doing business in Georgia and Florida have a mutual Depositors' Guarantee Fund of moderate amount which is held in trust bearing interest. The chartered banks of Mexico have long maintained a voluntary league among themselves under the practical working of which all come to the aid of each in time of peril, whether from internal or external cause, with the result that no such bank has failed, and hence no depositor has suffered loss, since the system was adopted under the advice of President Diaz.

Prior to the autumn of 1907 the limited discussion created little popular interest and led to no legislation. Its one apparent result was that a number of existing surety and casualty companies made arrangements to guarantee applicants' deposits in carefully selected banks at a uniform premium of  $\frac{1}{4}$  of 1 per cent. per annum, to be paid by the depositor himself. In limited volume this is now carried on as a minor branch of a general surety business. A few banks are already thus insuring their reserve deposits in other banks. The unprecedented business experience through which the American people have passed since September last has, like a flash of financial lightning in the night, revealed an amazing situation, which commands universal attention. In the resulting earnest and widespread discussion of remedies for a condition which all concede to be intolerable, the hitherto neglected suggestion of bank-deposit insurance has, with apparent suddenness, acquired much prominence. The result is a very considerable and apparently increasing demand that some systematic and

effective protection shall be thrown around bank deposits, not for the benefit and safety of depositors only, but of the banks themselves, and indirectly of the entire community as well. This demand has now reached a volume and force which compel attention and warrant respectful consideration.

No one person or group of persons has been especially conspicuous in promoting the new movement. It appears to be as nearly spontaneous as such movements ever are. From present indications it seems inevitable that this question will enter into the approaching Presidential canvass, though scarcely as an issue between the parties.

## OKLAHOMA'S PIONEER SYSTEM.

The pioneer action of Oklahoma has created wide interest. The Deposit-Insurance law of that State, enacted in December last, and now in operation, provides for the simplest form of compulsory bank-deposit insurance by the banks themselves, the State assuming no pecuniary responsibility or risk. Periodical assessments are to be levied by the State on all banks in proportion to their average deposits for the previous year. The proceeds constitute the so-called bank-deposit guaranty fund, which is held in the custody of the State Treasurer. As often as a bank fails all depositors are immediately paid in full from the guaranty fund. The State Bank Commissioner then liquidates the affairs of the failed bank and from the proceeds of assets and from further assessments if necessary on the banks the guaranty fund is kept intact. The law provides a number of novel safeguards for the banking business of the State. For example, whenever the State Bank Commissioner obtains satisfactory proof that any bank officer or employee is dishonest, reckless, or incompetent, he may require and compel his resignation or his removal by the directors.

This law was passed by a nearly unanimous and wholly non-partisan vote in the Legislature, and with the apparent approval of the people generally. The State now has a singularly prosperous and progressive population of nearly 1,500,000, mainly winnowed from the Central Western States, and contains 772 banks,—468 State and 304 na-

tional. During the year 1907 the State banks of Oklahoma held average cash reserves of 44.5 per cent. A better field for a local test of the new system could hardly have been chosen.

The fact that deposit insurance has thus been inaugurated by one State, and seems likely to be adopted by other adjoining States in the near future, renders the discussion no longer merely academic. Whether we like it or not, the subject is now a live, important, concrete proposition, which interests and affects every class and every citizen. The present article aims to present with some fulness the views of those who intelligently advocate deposit insurance.

#### THE BANKS AND THEIR DEPOSITORS.

The case in favor of the deposit-guaranty plan naturally starts by pointing out what is held to be the central and fatal defect of our otherwise excellent banking system, a defect which demands an immediate and effective remedy if we are to continue to do business:

Our complex and colossal business fabric rests upon the banks of the country; in turn, the banks depend for their solvency and continued usefulness upon a theoretical mutual confidence between themselves and their depositors, which in fact only exists during prosperous times, but suddenly disappears when needed, in times of stress, and is replaced with keen mutual distrust and a destructive competitive scramble for currency, constituting the moving cause of all our severe financial panics.

Speaking broadly, 24,000 banks in the United States, national, State, and private, borrow in the form of deposits practically all the money the people possess and from time to time control, except that which they carry on the person or privately hoard. This huge volume of money, which is the commercial lifeblood of the country, is with unimportant exceptions thus borrowed by the banks with the agreement that it shall be repaid in cash on demand. Aside from certain government and inter-bank deposits, the banks give no security in return, no evidence of the loan thus made to them, save a memorandum entry by a bank clerk in a pass-book held by the depositor.

By thus borrowing practically all of the people's cash, and large additional aggregates of credit values, quite unnecessary to discuss here, they became plain debtors to their depositors in 1907 in the total sum of more than \$13,000,000,000,—an amount which is

incomprehensible by any except statistical experts, and fivefold greater than all the real money, gold, silver, and paper, in the country. These deposits, these sums borrowed by the banks from the men, women and corporations of the United States, become legally the absolute property of the respective banks receiving them. In the absence of statutory limitation which does not now exist, any bank may thus lawfully borrow, returnable on demand, twice, thrice, ten times the amount of its own paid-in capital, and then proceed to lend practically 75 per cent. of the whole on the time notes, secured and unsecured, of business men and concerns, and partly on other evidences of debt. Thus they put beyond their reach for periods ranging from thirty days to six months a very large part of the entire volume of borrowed money, nearly all of which, as stated, they have agreed to return to depositors on demand and without previous notice. This situation is noteworthy. Obviously such a business policy, with its vast inverted pyramid of bank indebtedness, could only be justified as to its safety and practicability by the existence of some saving law of nature or of economics whose operation is certain and universal. Does such a law exist?

#### RECIPROCAL CONFIDENCE NECESSARY.

Here is the crux of the matter. If by courtesy the present banking system can be said to have a foundation, it consists of, first, an unthinking confidence on the part of average depositors, numbering millions, of all classes, vocations and degrees of intelligence, that their money can be and always will be repaid on demand according to the banks' contract to that end; and, second, the confidence of bankers, supposed to be based on ascertained economic laws, that in practice and under the rule of averages only a moderate and safe percentage of their depositors will ever in fact demand payment at the same time.

These twin assumptions, of depositors on the one hand and of bankers on the other, are manifestly reciprocal and interdependent. The soundness of the one would assure the soundness of the other; the collapse of one would explode the other and the combination would be in ruins. What is the fact shown by a well-illuminated line of experience? Only one answer can be given or attempted,—the financial catamaran sails admirably in fair business weather; in times of tempest it goes to pieces absolutely.



## COLLAPSE OF CONFIDENCE IN TIMES OF PANIC.

If, prior to the month of October in the year of grace one thousand nine hundred and seven, there was any doubt that our existing banking system has no other ultimate basis than the quicksand of twin fallacies herein referred to, and that it requires radical and immediate reform, that doubt has been rudely and effectively removed by the conclusive logic of events. Without warning, without precedent, without authority of law, most of our 24,000 banks, including practically all of those in the large cities, simultaneously went out of business without closing their doors or going into liquidation; they abdicated their banking functions without surrendering their charters; they failed to meet their current sacred obligations to their depositors, including other banks as well as individuals, by refusing for weeks to pay their valid checks when presented.

## THE BREAK-DOWN LAST OCTOBER.

It goes without the saying that no such spectacle was ever before witnessed anywhere. If ten or ten thousand leading and solvent merchants and manufacturers should treat their matured obligations as our banks thus treated their depositors' valid checks, which represented demand liabilities of the banks, they would straightway land in the bankruptcy courts. Apprehending trouble before it arrived, the banks simply took the start of their demand creditors, including sister banks and individual depositors, and audaciously assumed the risk involved in heading off a strike of depositors by first themselves calling a strike against depositors. They feared that depositors, having lost confidence, were about to make heavier withdrawals than many banks could stand, and so adopted the only alternative that occurred to them.

Undoubtedly the immediate result of this financial coup was greatly beneficial, but the occurrence creates a situation and entails a responsibility which will probably give the nation little financial repose until it is met, and met in a right manner. The situation created is this: the phenomenal action of the banks, however effective in stemming one rising panic, was of course revolutionary in the sense that it was subversive of fundamental commercial ethics and time-honored banking practice and constitutes a precedent which if followed must quickly produce universal financial chaos and disaster.

Is that precedent to be followed, and what is there to prevent such a course? If hereafter, when public confidence falters and bad financial weather threatens, our banks, encouraged to do so by their recent lucky experience, may run to cover in a similar manner, it may prove that the nation's recent escape from a severer panic was purchased at too great cost. The only ground on which the recent action by bankers can be justified or excused is that they were attempting to do business under an antiquated banking system which they found to be unworkable under test, that they now admit its complete breakdown, and are ready to join the rest of the community in measures to produce a satisfactory and enduring remedy.

Only by meeting this situation and responsibility squarely and promptly, and thus removing all seeming necessity for, and temptation toward, a repetition of last autumn's tactics, can the banks of the country avoid, what they can little afford, a grievous loss of public confidence and esteem. The banks by their concurrent action have advertised the final collapse of the old banking system. They recognize that its one fatal weakness is its dependence in time of strain upon a mutual confidence between banks and their depositors which never exists when trouble is present.

## DEPOSITORS MUST HAVE ASSURANCE OF SECURITY.

The advocates of deposit insurance believe they propose a plan which will perfectly cure this weakness and make our banking system the best in the world,—best both for the people and for the banks themselves. They further believe that any bank reform legislation which stops at providing a so-called emergency currency, whether secured or unsecured, would have no appreciable good effect when panic conditions again arise, since the new currency would almost certainly be hoarded by banks and people as fast as issued, under the impulse of general fright, and the measure would thus resemble an attempt to resist a tornado with a feather. Nothing will prevent or greatly mitigate future panics of financial fear but absolute knowledge on the part of bank depositors that their money is safe.

The present system is a scourge to the banks themselves. Every panic reduces their net earnings by a large percentage and for a period of years. No one has more reason to

dread a money panic than has the bank manager. To him at least it is purgatory.

The present impracticable banking system, especially since the panic of 1907, stimulates and tends to compel and render universal and permanent the evil habit of private hoarding, with its danger to property and life through robbery, its withdrawal of vast sums from the banks and the channels of business, and its discouragement of thrift by savings. Deposit insurance would remedy all this. It would bring out many millions of dollars from places of hiding and thus swell bank deposits and benefit the whole community. This gain alone would more than compensate the banks for their trifling contribution to the annual cost of deposit insurance.

Four simple questions without answers are suggestive: Has any general bank panic ever occurred in this country which did not come directly from a loss of confidence by bank depositors in the security of their funds? Has any general commercial panic or business revulsion ever occurred which did not owe its origin and severity to a bank panic? If all bank depositors were rendered permanently sure of the safety of their deposits, what causes could ever create anything approaching in importance and injury one of our general bank panics, with its resulting commercial collapse? If no system of guaranteeing bank deposits is to be adopted, what can prevent a continuance of the endless chain of American bank panics, with their infallible sequel of commercial prostration and distress?

Already government, both national and State, has undertaken the duty and responsibility of regulating the banking business as a quasi-public service, and rendering it as honest and safe as practicable under the present faulty banking system. Deposit insurance is a logical broadening of that duty and responsibility in order, for the first time, to accomplish satisfactory results. The people must depend on government to compel a proper discharge of the banking function in which lies their financial safety. The individual depositor is as helpless against money loss by bank failures as the individual passenger is against unnecessary railway wrecks.

#### DEPOSIT INSURANCE FOR NATIONAL BANKS.

There being as yet no organization behind the movement for bank-deposit insurance, no specific plan has been put forward with any show of authority. While the prin-

ciple is simple enough, there is naturally considerable diversity of view as to the best method for its application and as to the safeguards which should be provided by legislation. Referring now exclusively to national banks, prevalent opinion is fairly well agreed upon the following outline of a measure designed to create a system of compulsory mutual deposit insurance by national banks under government control:

It is proposed that Congress shall by suitable legislation, to be administered by the Comptroller of the Currency advised by the Secretary of the Treasury, provide for an initial assessment to be levied and collected upon the capital stock of all national banks, equal to a specified percentage upon the average deposits of each bank for the preceding year. This assessment will be collected annually for five years, at the expiration of which time the insurance or guaranty feature of the law will be in operation.

The proceeds of the assessments referred to will constitute a national bank deposit guaranty fund, to be held in the custody of the Treasurer of the United States and used for the purposes of the law. From this fund, whenever a national bank fails, its depositors will be paid in full as soon as their claims can be duly verified. The Comptroller of the Currency, as now, will take over the estate of the failed bank, liquidate its affairs, enforcing if necessary the stockholders' liability; the proceeds of the liquidation will be devoted, first, to paying the cost of settlement, and, second, to making good the guaranty fund for the draft made upon it to pay depositors; the surplus, if any, to be paid over to stockholders. In case the bank assets should fail to recoup the guaranty fund, the resulting deficit in the fund will be covered from future assessments to be levied when the fund falls below a specified level.

Under such a plan the Government evidently incurs no pecuniary liability whatever, and only such outlay for clerical service as may incidentally attend the custody of the guaranty fund. On the other hand, the integrity and sufficiency of the guaranty fund is at all times assured by the power and duty of the Comptroller of the Currency to keep that fund intact by any required number of successive assessments on all solvent national banks. In this way the guaranty fund is rendered adjustable to any aggregate of bank losses, whether greater or less than anticipated.

One conclusive check the Government

would have on improper banking would be its power publicly to withdraw from any unfit bank the insurance privilege, after due and unheeded warning and admonition.

#### EFFECT ON STATE AND PRIVATE BANKS.

The composite nature of our banking system as a whole, including national banks, incorporated State banks, and unincorporated private banks, presents the first difficulty to be overcome or provided for, and this difficulty is practically the same whether the nation or the State leads off in this new departure. If compulsory deposit insurance is applied to national banks, all the States will be placed under tremendous pressure to adopt respectively a similar plan for their own banks; otherwise the State banks would have to choose between joining the national system or seeing their deposits largely transferred to the neighboring insured national banks. On the other hand, it can scarcely be doubted that if the States moved first, as in the case of Oklahoma, the national banks in such States, if not permitted to avail themselves of the State deposit insurance laws, will be forced to choose between reincorporating as State banks or seeing their depositors desert in large numbers to the insured State banks.

Oklahoma has dealt fairly with the national banks within her borders by permitting them voluntarily to share the benefits of her new statute in case they obtain the consent of the national Government to do so. If the federal Department of Justice shall find no warrant of law for permitting national banks thus to participate in the advantages of State laws for insuring bank deposits, Congress may have early occasion to choose whether it will so amend the National Banking act as to grant this permission or consent to see great inroads made upon the national banking system through enforced conversion of national into State banks. For it is conceded by bank officials everywhere that if a State contains two classes of banks, one of which has its deposits safely insured and the other has not, the latter cannot long successfully compete for business. Assured safety will outweigh all other considerations with most depositors. As to the private banks, they would seem to have no alternative but to incorporate. Inasmuch as this would be no hardship for any responsible private banking concern, their case is easily provided for.

The fact that well-conducted banks under

the new system would be required to make a slight annual contribution to cover the losses of some badly managed banks is simply part of the inevitable price to be paid for an incalculable benefit. Honest business men who carry fire insurance necessarily contribute to pay losses occasioned by rascally property owners who set fire to their own buildings.

It is a merit rather than a fault of the proposed change that it would render all banks equally sound and safe in the matter of deposits. That it would tend somewhat to lessen the overshadowing importance of the greatest banks and legitimately to increase the dignity and importance of the moderate-sized ones, would be rather a recommendation than a cause for criticism.

A judicious limitation placed by law upon the maximum amount of deposits which any bank should be permitted to accept (in other words, the maximum debt which it should be permitted to incur) in proportion to its unimpaired capital, and also upon the rate of interest which it should be allowed to pay on deposits, and upon other like inducements to patronage, would effectively protect large and conservative banks from the unfair competition of dishonest or adventurous small ones. Besides, it is usually the high character and dependable personality of the men behind the bank which obtain and hold desirable patronage. Under a deposit-guaranty system flamboyant advertising and unbusinesslike inducements would not once in a thousand times attract or retain the custom of a depositor whose account was worth having.

Well-considered legislation providing for deposit insurance would naturally include other safeguards, such as the prohibition of "chains" of banks under one ownership, "one-man" banks, the use of bank funds in promotion enterprises, and the borrowing of bank funds, directly or indirectly, in considerable amounts by its own officers. It might confer authority on the Comptroller of the Currency and Secretary of the Treasury to eliminate dishonest and incompetent bank officials as the Comptroller already has authority to prevent undesirable citizens from obtaining bank charters.

The pecuniary interest which all solvent banks would have in limiting bank failures would lead them to use all their special knowledge and influence to check and expose the operations of unsafe bankers and to make it virtually impossible for the "wild-

cat" element to continue in the banking business. No better means could be devised for creating and maintaining a high standard of banking honor and solvency than would be furnished by a sensible general system of government-controlled mutual bank-deposit insurance. Naturally all legislation looking to this end, as Oklahoma has illustrated, would surround the system with new and rigid safeguards based upon experience and common sense.

Under the proposed new order of things the clearing-house associations of the various cities would have it in their power to eliminate and permanently suppress "wild-cat" methods on the part of all banks in their membership and within the zone of their influence. Not only could they withhold membership and clearing-house privileges from dangerous and shady banking concerns, but they could create and maintain a banking public opinion which would render it impossible for disreputable banks to continue in business.

#### SMALL COST OF SUCH INSURANCE.

Concerning the cost of such a system of deposit insurance to the national banks of the country, it need only be said that, as shown by the reports of the Comptroller of the Currency, the average annual net loss to depositors from failed national banks during the forty-three years since the system was established, has been equal to one-twentieth

of 1 per cent. upon the average annual deposits of all national banks held during the same period. With this experience as a guide, it is evident that the expense of the proposed change to the solvent banks would be next to inappreciable, especially after the system had been in operation half a dozen years, by which time the circle of liquidation of banks failing after the law went into effect would have been completed. Besides, it is to be noted that, in accordance with a well-understood economic law, the outlay by the banks for the cost of deposit insurance would in fact be distributed over the entire business community.

If the guaranty fund is progressively made adequate in amount, its interest earnings should nearly, if not quite, and ultimately, meet all demands for depositors of failed banks, thus exempting solvent banks from further assessments. All the difficulties which thus far have been seriously suggested would probably disappear under the united effort to install the new system and adjust it to the legitimate interests of the community. If, when all was done, some minor inconveniences should still result from the change, they would be infinitely outweighed by the immeasurable benefits accruing to every class, individual, and interest in the Republic. Plainly, it is inevitable that a price shall be paid for every advantage worth having, and the case under discussion will probably prove no exception to the rule.

## OBJECTIONS TO BANK-DEPOSIT INSURANCE.

BY DAVID KINLEY.

(Professor of Economics in the University of Illinois; author of "The Independent Treasury of the United States.")

NO clear analysis can be made of the probable effects of a proposal to insure bank deposits by the creation of a safety fund, without proper classification of deposits. The popular notion of bank deposits is that they represent cash taken into a bank by individuals and left there for safekeeping to be drawn on at need. Of course, this accounts for a large portion of the money in banks, especially in country districts, but the merest tyro in banking knows that, especially in cities, the figures of bank deposits reflect the loans made by the banks. A proposal to insure

these deposits is therefore a proposal that the banks shall create a safety fund to secure the payment of the amounts they have agreed to loan either on commercial or personal paper. They have received no money. The deposit is simply the credit charge that indicates their promise to lend or pay on demand the amounts specified. The proposal to create a safety fund to secure deposits is, therefore, in the main, a proposal that the banks be taxed to insure the payment of what they promise to lend. The obvious criticism of such a project is that if the borrower does not

believe that his bank is able to pay over the amount he wishes to borrow he should go somewhere else. If Jones goes to Smith to borrow there is a certain absurdity in his asking Smith to insure the payment of the amount he is asked to lend. If there is any doubt about his ability to lend he should not be asked. In all cases of loans without collateral security the project is a proposition to ask the banks to give security which is not asked from the borrowers to whose credit the loan has been put as a deposit.

Such a scheme would not prevent "runs." When people are seized with the fear that they cannot get the money to their credit in banks, what they are usually afraid of is not that they cannot ultimately get it, but that they cannot get it immediately, or at command. This fear will not be removed by the knowledge that they can finally get one-fourth or one-third of it, according to the proportion of the safety fund. Under an insurance scheme, therefore, they will insist, as they do now, on drawing out their funds when a scare comes.

In the next place, it would be impossible to avoid insuring some deposits two or three times over. If the scheme is to be successful at all it must provide for the insurance of the deposits of banks in other banks as well as of individuals in banks. But the money deposited in country banks is sent in large measure for redeposit in banks in larger places. There will thus be double, or possibly triple, insurance on part of the deposits, and that part, too, which should need insurance the least.

#### WOULD BAD BANKING BE ENCOURAGED?

The scheme would be unjust to the stockholders of well-managed banks, for it would cut into their profits to protect people who do not do business with them, to whom they are under no obligation, and who have preferred to trust banks of inferior standing; for insurance would tend either to raise the rate of discount or lower profits. The tax must be paid by somebody. The banks will try to throw it upon their customers. If, on account of competition for business, they fail in doing this, they will have to reduce their dividends. The bank which is on the margin of profitability will take risks to avoid this loss. It will be encouraged to do this by the fact that it is relieved from responsibility to its depositors. Bankers are human, and there are many of them, as there are many people in other walks of life, who, when they

are under the pressure of immediate responsibility, are likely to live up to it; but who are likely to take risks that they would not otherwise take when they feel that in doing so they are not sacrificing interests committed to their care.

In another way, too, the plan will be likely to encourage bad banking; for this same relief from responsibility will lead weak banks to try to enlarge their deposits. The larger their deposits, of course, the greater their profit. The more they are relieved from the necessity of caring for their deposits the more likely will they be, as already remarked, to seek a larger profit, even though at a greater risk. The scheme is likely, therefore, to promote speculation and bad banking. It will give dishonest men better opportunities to get control of banks to exploit them for the promotion of other projects. Many a man would salve his conscience with the thought that in any case the depositors would not lose if his project did not succeed.

#### THE STRONG WOULD HAVE TO CARRY THE WEAK.

The scheme would put strong and weak banks in the same category in the public mind, and make the strong carry the weak. This would be a proper enough policy if the strong and well-managed bank had some control of the management of the weak bank. But under our system that is impossible. Therefore, the strong bank will be put under responsibility without corresponding authority. To be sure, if this can be clearly shown to be in the interest of the public we might waive the point. It may be urged that in the issue of clearing-house certificates the strong banks support the weaker. True, but the number of banks is small and the strong banks are able more or less to control their weak brethren. This would not be so, however, under the proposed scheme to insure deposits. Banks in New York or Chicago would virtually be responsible to a degree for the deposits in a bank in Oklahoma or New Mexico, of whose management they disapprove.

#### DEPOSITORS WOULD FAIL TO DISCRIMINATE.

Moreover, the insurance of deposits would make for less care on the part of depositors. An individual is not obliged to choose a particular bank with which to do his business. When he chooses one he is ordinarily in a position to satisfy himself of the soundness of its business management. If it does not

command his confidence he need not do business with it. It is his affair to look it up and satisfy himself that if he deposits his money in it, that money will be properly taken care of. If, however, we should have a state of affairs in which depositors feel that they will be paid in any event, whether the bank is well managed or not, they will be less scrupulous in satisfying themselves that the banks with which they deal are thoroughly reliable. One important influence in the encouragement of sound bank management will therefore be weakened, for the discrimination between banks shown by judicious business men in their selection of banks with which to do business undoubtedly exerts an influence for sound banking.

#### DISTINCTION BETWEEN NOTES AND DEPOSITS.

The argument that since it is legitimate to have a safety fund to insure notes it is also legitimate to have one to insure deposits is not sound. When I make a deposit the relationship between the bank and myself in no way affects my creditors. If, however, I give my creditors the notes of the bank, a relationship is established between them and the bank without any direct communication between them and the bank. The note, in other words, being currency, gets into the hands of people who are not, and who cannot be, in a position to determine the responsibility of the bank. Public policy may require that they be specially protected, but the same reason does not exist for the special protection of depositors.

#### PROVIDING EXCUSES FOR RECKLESS BANKING.

A public policy of this kind insidiously saps the root of individual responsibility and self-reliance and furnishes pretexts for men of weak moral character to do wrongs that they might not otherwise commit, on the ground that the people whose interests they have in charge will be protected anyway. The proper policy is to improve our banking laws and surround our bankers with regulations stringent enough to encourage their integrity, with adequate penalties for their failure. That would be a vicious policy which, while removing the props to honorable business conduct, would at the same time provide a means of mitigating the evils of a breach of business integrity.

#### SAVINGS BANKS ALREADY PROTECTED.

The only kind of deposits for the insurance of which there seems any reasonable ground, is savings deposits. If it be true, as is generally assumed, that these on the whole represent the hard-won earnings of the working people, public policy requires that they should receive all the security necessary to insure against their loss. This, however, is done by the statutes of those States that have proper savings-bank laws, like Massachusetts and New York. There is something to be done in this direction in those States where savings banks of the mutual type do not exist, but are simply branches of commercial banks. This, however, is something that cannot be reached by any national law. The deposits of the national banks, the only ones that can be reached by national law, are commercial deposits. These deposits belong to a class in the community which is peculiarly able to take care of itself and its interests. These deposits fluctuate rapidly and largely from day to day. They need no special protection, either from the point of view of the interests of the depositor or of the banker.

#### NEW YORK'S "SAFETY-FUND" EXPERIENCE.

It is not out of place in this connection to recall the experience of New York in the early half of the last century. The New York banking law which went into operation in 1831 provided for a safety fund to be a security for all debts of the bank, both notes and deposits. The requirement, however, proved too severe a strain. Ten years after the law went into operation eleven of the banks organized under the safety-fund system failed. The whole amount of the safety fund was not large enough to pay their debts. If too liberal a provision against misdeeds should result in decreasing responsibility and in precipitating large failures, the same result would occur under the proposed system.

The project is a step which would tend toward unifying the control of the national banks of the country, looking toward a final consolidation or concentration under a great central bank. It is a blow at the policy of independent banking which we have successfully followed for more than a generation, for it is perfectly certain that if we impose such joint responsibilities upon the banks they will in time demand some unity of control and some centralization of authority.

# LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

## THE RAILROADS' POWER IN THE STATE.

IN the February *Reader* Messrs. Bryan and Beveridge lock horns on the question of railroad supervision. Mr. Bryan refers to the Granger agitation of the '80's, the origin of the Interstate Commerce Commission, the passage of the Elkins act, and the persistent efforts of the railroads to have all hostile legislation judicially annulled. He also informs us that the platforms of the Democratic party in 1896, 1900, and 1904 demanded enlarged powers for the Interstate Commerce Commission, while the opposing party was discreetly silent on that issue.

President Roosevelt, however, sent to Congress in 1904 a message recommending additional regulation for railroads, which provoked the Republican leaders and the railroads. In this the President referred to "a still more radical policy" to be adopted later; and this, Mr. Bryan tells us, meant "Government ownership of the railroads." The history of the Esch-Townsend bill, an allusion to the anti-railroad campaign by several State legislatures, the attitude of the federal courts as leaning toward the railroads, the action of several attorneys-general in St. Louis recently and their decision to memorialize Congress against the action of the federal courts in suspending State laws, and several other equally ancient and widely known matters, make up the bulk of the Bryan presentation.

Assuming that State legislatures and State courts are nearer to the people and, therefore, more responsive to the will of the people, the "champion of Democracy" opposes the desire of the railroads for Congressional railroad supervision. By focusing their tremendous influence upon Congress, the Interstate Commerce Commission, the federal courts, and the President, the railroads, says he, could practically nullify hostile legislation. Hence, from his viewpoint, centralization of railroad regulation in Washington is undesirable and mistaken.

"The distinction," says he, "drawn by the Constitution between the sphere of the nation and the sphere of the State is a very important one, and our great industrial development makes it more important, rather

than less, that the authority of the State over local affairs shall be preserved. . . . The President is going in the wrong direction, and his scheme of national incorporation would introduce new dangers, which it is entirely unnecessary to invite."

The State should regulate local lines and local operation. The federal Government should add a national remedy to the State remedy,—not substitute a national remedy for a State remedy. Railroad valuation should be determined by the cost of reduplication; and watered stock and fictitious capitalization should be prevented. Both the federal and State governments should conduct these transactions. Moreover, rates should be reduced to yield a reasonable return and no more. The people's right is as sacred as the stockholders'. A dividend to keep the stock at par should be this measure, when the road is honestly capitalized. These are his suggestions for railroad supervision.

### SUPERVISION VERSUS OWNERSHIP.

Senator Beveridge prefaces his argument with statistics showing the magnitude of the railroad problem, which he considers is evolutionary, and will call for solution a hundred years from now. Consequently, the statesmanship that deals with it wisely must be also an evolution. "Immediate cure-alls" for railroads must be distrusted. Government ownership is inexpedient and impossible. It violates the American principle of unrestricted individual enterprise. Government supervision recognizes that principle by leaving business in individual hands, but requiring that individual to act as trustee for all the people, and by restricting abuses. It leaves the making of rates, the system of management, and the whole question of administration with the individual, insisting only on honesty and efficiency.

Originally, said he, the theory was that the States and not the nation could regulate railroads. The Civil War changed that belief. Then followed the national chartering of the Union Pacific, Central Pacific, and Northern Pacific railways. Evolution led to junctions of other roads, and soon their "in-



terstate" character was established, leading to national control in 1887, when the Interstate Commerce Commission was instituted. Rebates are national evils, and only the nation can cope with them. The factors that enter into a supposed discrimination call for minute inquiry; and while railroads, at times, have committed unpardonable offenses against shippers and communities through discriminating rates, the circumstances sometimes warranted their action. The federal Government alone can deal with such abuses.

Recent State legislation has developed the most serious situation now confronting us, especially in regard to rates both for passengers and freight. Complications and per-

plexities innumerable spring up when a single rate between two points within a single State is altered,—for it may be the basis of a thousand other rates, which in consequence must be changed. Hence, viewed from any angle, the States cannot deal with this national problem of interstate railroads. Complete national control must be obtained, and this men of all political parties, as well as shippers and railroad officials, now believe.

National incorporation of railroads, he holds, is the next step in the railroad problem. When this power is exercised railroad abuses will end; and it is not centralization, which is only "a threadbare scare" and a "catch-word."

## THE WASTE OF LIFE IN AMERICAN COAL MINING.

**D**URING the year 1906 nearly 7000 men were killed or injured in the coal mines of the United States, and indications point to an increase in that number since that period, due to a lack of proper and enforceable mine regulations; to the lack of reliable information concerning explosives used in mining; and the conditions under which they can be used with safety; to the presence of gas and dust encountered in the mines, and to the fact that, in the development of coal mining, not only is the number of coal miners increasing, but many areas from which coal is being taken are either deeper or farther from the entrance, where good ventilation is more difficult and the dangerous accumulations of explosive gas are more frequent.

To remedy this state of affairs the United States must adopt the means that have proved successful in European countries. In 1895 our ratio of killed in every 1000 employed in mines was 2.67. In 1906 it reached 3.40. Effective mining legislation tells a different tale in Europe. The following table gives the number of men killed for each 1000 employed for the periods mentioned in foreign countries and in the United States:

France (1901-1905).....	0.91
Belgium (1902-1906).....	1.00
Great Britain (1902-1906).....	1.28
Prussia (1900-1904).....	2.06
United States (1902-1906).....	3.39

In this country 50 per cent. of all the fatal accidents and 39 per cent. of all the non-fatal accidents were due to falls of roofs and coal. The following table shows a comparison with European countries per 1000 men, thereon:

Belgium .....	0.40
France .....	0.47
Great Britain.....	0.64
Germany .....	0.92
United States.....	1.70

In all European coal-producing countries the use of excessive charges of explosives is prohibited by law, and definite limits are set to the amount of any explosive that may be used. In the United States there is no limit. In this country during 1906 11 per cent. of deaths in coal mines were due to gas and dust explosions. Comparing the number of fatal accidents in coal mines for every 1,000,000 tons produced, here and abroad, we find the record:

United States (1901-1906).....	6.04
Great Britain (1906).....	4.31
France (1905).....	4.17
Belgium (1906).....	4.96

In this country the ratio for 1890-1895 was only 5.93, so our position is plainly getting worse with the years.

Abroad, governmental testing stations are maintained, where investigations into the use of explosives are conducted. Messrs. Clarence Hall and Walter O. Snelling, in the *Engineering Magazine* for February, recommend the establishment of the same in this country. In England a list of "permitted" explosives is kept, covering fifty varieties. In all European coal-producing countries are governmental regulations covering the storage of explosives for use in coal mines, and for competent "shot firers." The enforcement of these regulations is placed in the hands of a specially appointed force of mine inspectors, unlike the system in force in this

country, where each State has a code of its own, and a divided responsibility.

In Germany mines are under the control of the district officers, the superior mine officers, and the Minister of Commerce and Trade. There is also an extensive mining police force, which must inspect the mines and report to the Department of Mines. In Belgium the law for inspection and regulation of mines is very complete. The head of the administration of mines is the Minister of Industry and Labor, who has a corps of mining engineers under him to inspect and examine the mines and their workings. In France the Minister of Public Works and the prefects exercise mining supervision. There are, also, a number of engineers with extensive powers of inspection, and a Council General of Mines. In Great Britain the Metalliferous Mines Regulation Act and the Coal Mines Regulations Act confer the right of inspection. England is, thereunder, divided into twelve districts, controlled by Royal Inspectors of Mines, appointed by the Secretary of State.

Each inspector is charged with surveying a district. It is the duty of the inspectors especially to visit the mines of their district in order to assure themselves that all prescriptions of the law and particular regulations are duly attended to. In cases of infractions they may advise the mine owners thereof, or provoke a *prosecution* before the judicial tribunal, which can punish the faulty parties by fines up to £20, or by detentions of *three months in serious cases*. The visits of the inspectors are made either officially or in consequence of complaints filed, even by anonymous letters. The inspectors have the right to take any measure not provided for in the law or regulations should there be a situa-

tion creating a danger. If the mine owner does not agree with the inspector's opinion, an arbitration is created consisting of two arbitrators, one appointed by the inspector and the other by the owner of the mine. If they do not agree a third arbitrator is appointed. The arbitration sentence is a definitive one, without appeal.

Turning to the problem in the United States, these writers admit that it is complex and difficult. They, however, insist on scientific investigation preceding any constructive attempt at legislation, and approve the demand of the West Virginia operators that Congress investigate the mine situation thoroughly and enact suitable legislation, to the enforcement of which they stand ready to pledge themselves. These writers suggest the establishment of an experiment station, similar to those in Germany and Belgium, at some point within the coal region. This awaits Congressional sanction only, for plans have been drawn for same. Fire damp, coal dust, etc., could therein be tested and definite results attained. Until this is done State legislatures can do but little.

The influence of the quantity and quality of each explosive, upon the risk of igniting fire damp or dust, or a mixture of both, could be ascertained. Also, such experiments should lead to "standardized" explosives. The causes of explosions from fire damp and dust, and the conditions under which electricity may be safely used in coal mines, as well as the influence of barometric pressure, temperature, etc., in inducing mine explosions, could be discovered through such an agency.

## THE CANADIAN IMMIGRATION POLICY.

CANADA'S present policy on immigration dates from the year 1897, when Mr. Clifford Sifton took office in Ottawa as Minister of the Interior. During the past decade the Dominion Government has not merely encouraged immigration, but has fostered it by every means within its power. This broad policy was carried out by the Department of the Interior, which sought to divert to Canada a proportion of the tide of immigrants that annually flowed into the United States. For this purpose it established agencies in the British Isles and in all the larger European countries. The Canadian High Commissioner in Great Britain was relieved of the work of looking after Canadian immigrants, and that duty intrusted to an official who ad-

ministered this service with business-like dispatch. He, first of all, interested the people of Great Britain in the natural advantages of Canada. He placed maps and atlases of the Dominion in all the schools of the United Kingdom. He mailed literature advertising the resources of Our Lady of the Snows to 1,200,000 agricultural laborers, and probably reached 10,000,000 people by his elaborate system of newspaper advertising.

In the United States agencies were established for the same purpose in Omaha, Chicago, Kansas City, St. Paul, and many other important Western cities. Agents on commission numbered between 200 and 300. American newspaper advertisements reached 5,700,000 families, but emigration from the

United States to Canada was discouragingly slow at first. One agent, who only succeeded in inducing one family to move to Canada in the first year of his service, in the last five years has been instrumental in sending 5000 Americans to Western Canada. In 1897 only 712 emigrated from the United States to Canada; in 1897, 57,919. In 1897, immigrants from Great Britain numbered 20,000; in the last seven years, 900,000.

Writing on this subject in the *Canadian Magazine* for February, Mr. W. S. Wallace says: "Has this policy been on the whole in the best interests of the Canadian people?"

What object or objects had the Department of the Interior in view in inaugurating the present policy in 1897? Declaring the question of immigration to be a complex and difficult one, he passes his first query, and in a generalization answers the second by asseverating: "The object of the immigration policy was to build up Canada, to enable Canada to do business on a larger scale, to enable her to better herself in a financial and material sense, and so to keep at home those of her sons who were flocking over the border." These ends it has attained, and in so much has proved successful.

Canada's prosperity in the past seven years is, at least, partially due to its immigrant influx, for each arrival, no matter how poor at the start, has added his quota to the Dominion's wealth annually. From 1898 to 1903 123,000 arrived in Canada from the United States, bringing with them \$19,000,000 in settlers' effects and \$25,000,000 in cash, at a total cost to the department of \$701,000. In six years \$50,000,000 annually will be added to the wealth of Canada by the 25,000 heads of families in this aggregate on a basis of \$2000 for each.

"Is this increased wealth and prosperity likely to have a good effect on the character of the Canadian people?" Quoting Herbert Spencer's detestation of that conception of social progress based on increase in population, wealth and commerce,—quantity only, and not quality,—the writer seems to incline to the Spencerian belief that a prosperity dependent upon "board-of-trade" tables is not a prosperity, but an adversity. As to the effect of this immigration on the native stock, the writer thinks the experience of the United States may shed some light thereon. Deducing from contributed articles on American immigration, Mr. Wallace states that a decreasing birth-rate, a shrinking from industrial competition, and a rising social position

among men and women of American native stock are apparently the results of American immigration. He further adds that the population of the United States has not been reinforced by immigration, but replaced by it.

These experiences, however, may not be duplicated in Canada's case, although the tendency for a native-born population "to keep up appearances" in the face of an increasing competition is toward race suicide.

At the same time, it must be borne in mind that the falling-off in the birth-rate of the native-born population as a result of immigration may be partially compensated for by the fact that the Canadian immigration policy has preserved to Canada numbers of young men who would in earlier days have gone to the United States. These young men now, instead of going to the United States to better themselves, go to the Canadian West.

Turning to the advisability of encouraging foreign immigration to Canada, he says much depends on the character of the electorate, on the soundness of the public conscience, on the integrity of the public vote. Education cannot do much in Western Canada for the foreign illiterate therein, for its educational system is, as yet, wholly inadequate; and, says he, few foreigners could be transformed into good Canadians in five years' time by the best educational system.

These are matters on which statistics will be forever unobtainable; but it is perhaps not false to say that there is a widespread impression that the foreign vote does not always stand for intelligence and integrity. It is a conceivable hypothesis which traces many of the ills from which the body politic of the United States is suffering to-day (such as the sluggishness of public opinion) to the great masses of unassimilated foreigners who are within her gates.

By the "block system" of settlement this situation, or aspect, has been intensified. Solid colonies of Dukhobors, Galicians, Mormons, Mennonites, etc., here and there in the West, are not highly reassuring, or open to much Canadian influence. These multiply the difficulty of the French-Canadian system in many places. As to a literary test, the writer admits the possibility of dispensing with the same in case of an emergency. But, summing up the policy of the government as a policy of forcing immigration rather than merely a policy of welcoming it judiciously, he says: "Is it not possible that by forcing immigration into Canada, and thus filling Canada with aliens and illiterates as well as with immigrants of a higher type, the Immigration Department is fulfilling its duties not wisely but too well?"

## THE RUSSIAN REACTION IN FULL SWING.

THE political reviewer of the monthly magazine *Russkaya Mysl* (*Russian Thought*) after a résumé of the activity of the third Duma in its first month concludes that the government will persist in its policy of oppression. While the violent outbreaks of popular demands have been forcibly repressed, says this writer, on the government's part no attempt is being made to introduce any of the reforms promised in the manifesto of October, 1905. Indeed, having checked the revolutionary agitation and again become conscious of its own powers, the government has begun a crusade not alone against the actual radicals of the revolutionary movements, but also against the very movement of liberation it at one time appeared to foster.

The first two Dumas were regarded as dangerous, were dissolved, and many of their members brought to the bar of justice. Though first favored by the sale to the peasantry of crown lands and private estates, the agrarian movement has now been denounced as an insurrection, not to be placated by grants, but to be forcibly repressed. The law of November 22, 1906, provides that the private ownership of land is inviolate, and the government demands its sanction of this measure by the third Duma. The Prime Minister has also added that the manifesto of October, 1905, given in a moment of "panic and danger," may be either modified or recalled by the Czar. It is clearly to be observed that the tide of reaction to the old régime has already set in. Though in the second Duma the government pretended to be unable to introduce any reforms pending the existence of the revolution, now, that the latter has been bloodily quelled by drumhead courts-martial and other summary measures, in this the third Duma it does not even attempt the promise of any of the reforms suggested in the famous manifesto of two years ago. In the second Duma the government declared it would not be terrorized. Now it is carrying on a campaign of terrorization against judges, teachers, officials, and all not in sympathy with its present policy. Along agrarian lines it is not influenced any longer by the interests of the masses, but solely by those of the land-owning nobility.

As pointed out by the radical orator Rodichev in his famous speech which resulted in his suspension from the present Duma for fifteen sittings, Russian citizenship cannot be conceived of while 2717 persons were condemned to death by courts-martial, of whom 1780 were actually executed. Never in Russian history have there been so many executions. Under Stolypin they still continue. The reviewer asks why was the Premier so hurt when Rodichev compared him to Murav-

yev, the hangman of the Poles. He also adds that at this time Rodichev was the recipient of many sympathetic messages from St. Petersburg society, as well as from all parts of Russia, for his brave and fearless attacks on the suicidal policy of the government.

Speaking of the third Duma's activity, the reviewer points out that up to the present only a number of all sorts of committees have been appointed, thus that of the budget, of finance, on national defense, army supplies, migration, education, etc., but neither program nor plan of action was outlined. Thus from this Duma is not to be expected any solution of the burning problems calling for immediate action.

Prior to the issue of the manifesto from St. Petersburg the country was ruled by bureaucratic generals and large-estate owners, who at their sweet will would reward one and ruin another. While for a time it seemed that this had been replaced by something more responsive to the popular will, now it is manifest that the hope of such a popular legislature has been indefinitely postponed, and again the generals and the owners of estates rule.

No wonder that a large majority of the "Peasant League," which in 1905 gathered openly in Moscow, have now been prosecuted as illegal revolutionists, and many condemned to the mines for periods up to five years; and that 168 deputies from the first Duma have been sentenced to prison for issuing and spreading the Viborg appeal. In addition to many groups of a political nature, many private individuals have received sentences. Their number is 1285. Also twenty-three editors of opposition papers were indicted, and seventeen publications suspended. By administrative order thirty-seven editors were fined 21,200 rubles, and, by order of court, six to the amount of 1178 rubles. These events occurred in September, 1907. In the month following twenty-four periodicals were fined 18,000 rubles (\$9000).

All these crude measures have not availed to establish peace. Daily one hears of expropriations, highway robberies, killing of police officials and even higher and administrative officers.

No assurance is there of the event of the morrow. Naught is safe, not even life. But people adapt themselves to these conditions and live from day to day as in times of war, or as the American pioneers of the wild West in times of Cooper. But thus adapting does not render the state normal nor satisfy the adapting populace.

## THE COUNTRY BANKER.

NOT even the doctor or the preacher is so truly a confidant of the community as is the banker in the small town or village. Not an enterprise, not a considerable business undertaking, is started without consultation with him. The farmer, the widow, the merchant,—all seek his advice or assistance. He is the repository of his neighbors' cares and plans. Indeed, this is so generally recognized that city financiers will accept the opinion of the bankers at twenty typical country communities as that of the entire rural section of the nation.

In the Western States country banks preeminently flourish. Nebraska has a bank for every 1750 persons, and Kansas one for every 1850. Hundreds of country banks pay from 15 to 20 per cent. in dividends to their stockholders. This prosperity has led to the keenest competition in establishing a bank in a new town. Four or five applications are filed usually for the incorporation of the "First" National Bank before the town is ready for settlers. Such institutions are admirable educative forces. They have taught farmers to carry bank accounts and how to use a check-book.

"The country banker," says Mr. Charles M. Harger, in the February *Atlantic Monthly*, "exerts his greatest influence on national finance during the crop-harvesting season. Whether it be in the gathering of fruit in California, of cotton in the South, or of wheat in the plains region, the banker comes in direct touch with the worker." At such periods country bankers draw millions of dollars from the reserve centers and thereby change the currents of national finance. This outpaying goes on until autumn, when the tide turns with agricultural sales. These transactions explain the disappearance of currency every fall.

When the farmer receives payment for his crops he puts the money in his pocket. Suppose the amount thus retained to be \$50. Suppose this to go on in 2000 country banks for 100 days, the resulting absorption explains measurably the currency disappearance. When the farmers and their harvesters spend this money it flows back again to the channels of trade and business; but each year this situation increases in difficulty for the country banker.

His problem is threefold: "In addition to furnishing funds for the working period, there is the function of helping the farmer

hold his crop when he so desires. The after-harvest prices may be low; it may be advantageous for the producer to hold his corn and wheat. He goes to the local banker. The bank lends its capital and gives its advice in the undertaking, sometimes to its own loss."

In the development of local industries he is the main factor. Thus he employs labor, induces settlement, and builds up the community in wealth and in commercial importance. In addition is the handling of the bank's funds between harvest periods. For a few months there must be a large supply of loanable capital; for another little is demanded. Eastern and New England States do not have this condition to the same degree as the Middle West, the South, and Pacific Coast States. Banks are in every hamlet and village in the Middle West, says this writer. "The community of 200 population often has a bank; some of 400 population have two."

His prosperity has compelled him to learn a broader system of finance in later years. In early years country banks were "freebooters of finance." They "charged what the traffic would stand" to a greater extent than the most predatory railroad manager ever dared. Their interest rates were at times confiscatory. This has changed altogether. How to take care of their surplus deposits was another matter the country bankers had to learn. This gave rise to the Western market for "commercial paper," the notes and short-time loans of great manufacturing and mercantile houses. In such dealings the country banker has acquired a broad grasp of national finance.

Formerly the country banker was the ruler of his community. He was the State senator, mayor, Sunday-school superintendent, president of the fair association, and chief delegate to his party conventions. Much of this has passed away, however. To-day he is merely one of many business men. He is still prominent, but no longer a dictator. This change is reflected in his surroundings. Formerly the rear of a real-estate office, or an ordinary storeroom, sufficed for banking quarters. To-day country banks, particularly in the newer States, are remarkable for their magnificence. Tiled floors, brass and marble fixtures, modern safes, adding machines, loose-leaf ledgers, vaults with electric-wired burglar protection, safety-deposit boxes, electric

lights, steam heat, and mahogany desks are the rule.

The country banker has formed the acquaintance of a new functionary in finance,—the financial drummer. He represents the commercial enterprises that need a great deal of outside money and are not content to wait on the purchases of their securities through

the usual methods of mail communication. He goes directly to the banker, carrying his offerings, and makes a sale of sixty-day notes as would a commercial traveler dispose of an order of dry goods. Further, he initiates the banker, unfamiliar with the larger field, into wider interests, and so is helpful in many ways.

## ELBERT H. GARY: REAL HEAD OF THE STEEL TRUST.

FOR more than seven years one man has been the chief master and chief servant of the iron and steel industry, with 100,000 stockholders above him demanding dividends, and 200,000 workmen beneath him demanding wages. He is Elbert Henry Gary, chairman of the board of directors and official head of the United States Steel Corporation. He is virtually the ruler of an empire owning more land than Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Vermont combined; supporting more people than inhabit Nebraska;

employing more men than fought at Gettysburg; sailing a larger navy than that of Italy; making more steel than Germany; gathering in a larger revenue than the United States, and representing more capital than all the banks in the city of New York.

In an unpretentious, plainly furnished office in the top of a Broadway skyscraper, at the head of Wall Street, this industrial potentate sits daily. His surroundings are anything but luxurious, but the room is one of the throne-rooms of the industrial world.

Judge Gary, while not a railroad man, directs a system of six railways for this corporation, operating 35,000 cars; while not a practical manufacturer, he is the over-lord of 1700 industrial communities; while not a miner, his company excavates iron ore and coal with an army of 40,000 men; while neither an expert steel-maker nor a world-beating specialist in any line, he holds his place by universal consent. Why? Because he is one of the few who can survey comprehensively the whole field of business and see the relation of every individual particle to the whole.

His business cares do not seem to tax him. A man of more than ordinary height, and of fine physique, his face in repose is kindly and reflective. His forehead is high, his nostrils wide, his mouth sensitive and full-lipped, devoid of hard lines, and his facial appearance on the whole more indicative of a philanthropist than a business man.

He thrives on responsibility. He is, in addition, president of an Illinois bank and a director in five others. He has had much to do with the "Harvester Kings," is a director in a big machinery manufacturing corporation, and in three lesser railroads. He serves on the boards of twenty-five subsidiary steel companies, and, incidentally, looks after the Northwestern University. He is not a driver of men, nor in any sense a gambler. The certainties of commerce, not



MR. ELBERT H. GARY.

(Chairman of the Board of Directors of the United States Steel Corporation.)

its risks, fascinate him, and his daily battle is to overcome the innumerable risks and gambles of the iron and steel business, says W. Newton Dent in the new *Broadway Magazine* for February.

He is, primarily, a conciliator and a coordinator, abhorring senseless trade battles. He favors friendship between wages and capital, an interlocking system of team-play among the railroads, banks, and industries, and a cordial copartnership between the trusts and the whole American people. In Wall Street feuds he takes no interest, and there is no stock-ticker in his office. His poise is extraordinary. In affairs of finance he is a man of the open. No pit-holes or ambushes are rigged by him, nor does he hunt with poisoned arrows. Such methods are abhorrent to him. Swollen fortunes find small favor from him.

Descended from one Arthur Gery, who arrived here in 1640, he is too much of an American to favor one-man rule in industry or politics. The Steel Trust is to him a republic of 100,000 stockholders, with a wide-open policy of publicity, and publicly subscribed and acquired assets of \$1,681,309,769.39. Prior to its formation the iron and steel industry was chaotic and unsteady. Since the merger of the rival interests the whole trade has been steadied. Prices have been determined and steel-making converted into a business. Frick, Schwab, Rogers, Per-

kins, Gates, and Morgan all aided in the consolidation, but Gary was ever a central figure.

His mind is many-sided. It is sentimental, legal, and financial. He is quickly sympathetic and a keen reader of men. He is a good listener and a penetrating judge, quickly perceiving both sides, or twenty sides, of a subject, and possesses a wonderful memory. He is remarkably patient and analytical, combining the qualities of a business man and a lawyer. In all things he is careful and conscientious.

He is a man of balance and common sense, and is greatly admired by his co-workers. As a boy on an Illinois farm, near Wheaton, where he was born in 1846, he chopped wood and fed cattle. At school he did well and was sent to a university. At twenty-one he was a lawyer, and when his village became a city he was chosen its first Mayor. At thirty-six he was a county judge, and six years later a "big" lawyer in Chicago. At forty-seven he was president of Chicago's Bar Association, and chief expert on corporation law in the Windy City. Ten years ago he quit law for steel, helping to organize the Federal Steel Company. Three years later Morgan called him to the Steel Trust. His name will be perpetuated in the city of "Gary," Indiana, which the Steel Trust is building at the foot of Lake Michigan, a few miles out of Chicago.

## THE MASTER BUILDER OF STANDARD OIL: SAMUEL C. T. DODD.

"THERE was a time when the Standard Oil Trust was nothing more than an IDEA in the brain of one man.

"Who was that man?

"How did his idea originate?

"And what was his purpose in building the greatest millionaire-making organization that the world has ever seen?

"The answering of these three questions makes it necessary to dig up the romantic story of Samuel C. T. Dodd, the legal builder of the Standard Oil Trust, who rose from a log cabin in a Pennsylvania wilderness to be the first great corporation lawyer in the world," says Mr. Herbert N. Casson, in the new *Broadway Magazine* for February.

This man was the inventor of trusts. He

created Standard Oil and protected it for twenty-five years, dying three years ago, practically unknown to the American people. During his incumbency as attorney-in-chief it paid \$500,000,000 in dividends, increased its share of the American oil business from 4 per cent. to 85 per cent., enlarged its yearly output from a few trainloads of oil to 22,000,000 barrels, and widened the sphere of its usefulness until it sold its product to fifty countries, transported on its own fleet of 100 steamships.

Dodd was responsible for this success. He brooded over Standard Oil like a man with one chicken. The trust was his one idea, and to protect and develop it his only purpose. By descent he was Scotch-Irish. He was born in a log cabin in the Pennsylvania for-



ests near Franklin in 1836, one of seven children of a "poor, religious, and austere" carpenter. In his youth he was errand boy, grocer's helper, and printer's devil. Desirous of becoming a lawyer, after many

ness was dependent on well-organized industries. Once convinced of this fact, he advocated co-operation among the oil producers, and set himself to discourage litigation among them. His views were respected even when not approved.

Dodd seldom appeared in court. He was the brains behind the scenes. But he could talk, too, if he chose. Before a legislative committee at Albany that attempted to grill him in the early '80's, he answered endless questions with quiet dignity, until the ignorance of his inquisitors had passed the limit. Then he arose and made a speech which they never forgot. He explained how competition and combination are the two eternal laws of trade. He showed the evils of blocking the natural expansion of business. He was aroused at the apparent flippancy of several of the legislators, and his words soon began to lash and sting.

"Do not try to suppress a business," he said, "because it has grown larger than the small notions of some people. Think of those who tore up railroad tracks because the stage-coach business was endangered, and avoid their follies. I tell you that the business of the future will be on a larger scale than either you or I can imagine, and the whole world will reap the benefit."

In 1880 there was no law against corporations. They were created by legislatures and not by Congress, but there was no way to consolidate two or more. "A corporation of corporations" was what he sought, and in 1882 he found a way. He drew up an agreement by which forty oil companies, formerly belligerent, agreed to work together in harmony. They elected nine trustees, into whose hands all the stock of the forty corporations was intrusted: As receipts for the stock all shareholders received "trust certificates." The agreement was to continue until twenty-one years after the death of the last trustee. Yearly salaries were to be paid the trustees,—not more than \$25,000 each,—and they were to be elected year by year. The name of the new merger was the *Standard Oil Trust*. Hence originated the term "trust" for business federations. Dodd defined a "trust": "It is any combination that is conducting a legitimate business on a large scale."

This agreement was kept a secret for six years. It was the *Magna Charta* of the trusts. It was the origin of the "holding company," and the motif of a new industrial system. For ten years this agreement held the forty companies together, and Congress



THE LATE SAMUEL C. T. DODD.

(For many years general solicitor of the Standard Oil Company.)

vicissitudes he became one in 1859,—the year of the first oil well. This was a time of big ideas and activities, following the panic of 1857. The first Atlantic cable had just been laid. The closed Kingdom of Japan had just been opened. Railways had been extended to Chicago, St. Louis, and the gold mines. The telegraph, the reaper, and the sewing machine had just been adopted, and the whole structure of civilization was being changed.

Such was the world in which young Dodd found himself on admission to the bar. Being studious and reflective, he saw that the day of "big business" was at hand. Among other things he realized the wastefulness of competition among the new oil kings. His early practice was desultory, but he became famous as an anti-rebate lawyer. Still, business co-operation and development engrossed him, and he pursued the history of the same assiduously, discovering that national great-

and the State of Ohio failed to break it in two separate assaults. However, a revision was necessary and the word "trust" was dropped, but the men and the methods remain the

same. For twenty-six years the Dodd idea has held the Standard Oil men together and made possible the great development of their interests.

## IS THERE A REAL NEED FOR AN INTERNATIONAL SPEECH?

THIS REVIEW has perhaps not published as many articles of a controversial nature on the subject of the proposed universal languages, such as Volapük and Esperanto, as other periodicals have seemed to think justified by public interest. We are glad to present the substance of two representative articles on this subject appearing in current numbers of an American and a German review.

The entire language question in the light of the growth of internationalism in our day is analyzed and discussed by Anna Monsch Roberts in the *Popular Science Monthly*. Miss Roberts, after properly lamenting the barriers which have been erected and are maintained between the nations of the world by differences of language, considers the claims of the modern literary languages, particularly English, to become international. She emphasizes the acknowledged difficulty of pronunciation and spelling in English, and is rather inclined to doubt the adaptability of the tongue of Shakespeare and Milton to the purposes of a world speech. Is a world language possible? she asks. Answering her own question, she thinks such a tongue is possible if it can be international enough, sufficiently logical in its grammatical structure, and sufficiently mobile to be used without too frequent reference to a dictionary. Volapük, she declares, did not fulfill these requirements. It looked "unfamiliar, was inharmonious, ugly and uncouth in appearance and sound, and failed in the primary needs of an international tongue." Rapidly sketching the origin and growth of Esperanto, which she declares has been remarkable, she concludes by presenting the claims of this remarkable tongue to the world's attention.

On this point she says:

Without going into one slightest detail, let it be simply said that it [Esperanto] answers fully to all the fundamental requirements for an international language. Its grammar can be read and perfectly understood in an hour. The pronunciation is simplicity itself, as the letters have each but one simple sound, and the accent rests

always on the same syllable, the penult. Seventy per cent. of the word-roots will be recognized at sight by a person of good education in English alone. The utter simplicity of its syntax might make it appear as though such a language must necessarily be bare, meager, and inexpressive. On the contrary, as the result of its extraordinary structure, it is ample, rich, and full, with much of the flexibility and mobility of English, much of the style and precision of French, not a little of the elegance and grace of Italian, while in great measure it has the full, sonorous quality of sound and imposing dignity of form peculiar to the Latin.

The verdict of the International Association of Academies, which was appointed some time ago at the suggestion of the French Academy of Sciences to consider the subject of an international auxiliary language, commended Esperanto in these words:

In spite of its imperfections, easy to correct, the system of formation of words in Esperanto is one possessed of remarkable regularity and fecundity. It is this, especially, which contributes to give it the striking character of a "natural" language, of a living tongue, which good judges recognize in it. It is truly an autonomous language, which possesses intrinsic and unlimited resources, which has an original physiognomy and a genius all its own. . . . It is therefore not an "artificial" language, dried and dead, a simple replica of our idioms; it is a language capable of living, of developing, and of surpassing in richness, suppleness, and variety the natural tongues. Finally, it is a language susceptible of elegance and style, if one admits that true elegance subsists in simplicity and clearness, and that style is but the order which one takes in the expression of thought.

### Limitations of an International Language.

The noted Austrian Hellenist, Theodor Gomperz, writing in the *Deutsche Revue*, discusses with much clearness and convincing force the possible uses and the limitations of an artificial universal language. He concedes the solid gain which might accrue from a formal speech of that kind if applied to science, the intercourse of nations in the various fields of economy, the railway, telegraph, travel, etc. What he strenuously objects to is that in arguments regarding the subject a fundamental distinction is entirely,

or almost entirely, ignored,—the distinction between what may briefly be termed a “formal” and a “literary” language.

By formal language he means a system of expressions, phonic or merely graphic, which act as a substitute for the historic



DR. ZAMENHOF, INVENTOR OF ESPERANTO.

tongues and are adapted to international use in one or many domains. He cites mathematics as an instance; other allied sciences, such as mathematical physics, astronomy, and chemistry likewise, already command a rich treasure of universally comprehended formulas, which transcend all the limitations of speech. The more, however, a natural science requires a varied form of reasoning, the less it may be confined to a limited number of syllogistic formulas; the less will graphic symbols alone suffice its purposes,—thus in the case of physiology and other complicated branches of natural science. Not only does the graphic, formal language grow insufficient, but a dead language is inadequate as it fails to express modern conceptions, the tools, apparatus, machinery, etc. The choice lies, then, between a widespread, historic language and an artificial one that has been or is to be invented. The writer, though admitting that the latter might be of great scientific and practical value, inclines to the use of the historic languages; it were a different matter, he adds, if the learning of Esperanto, —or some other universal language,—would obviate the necessity of acquiring the modern historic world-languages. This is claimed by the advocates of the new systems, but Herr Gomperz vigorously protests.

They maintain that the works of the master-minds could be read in translations in the universal tongue, but its very simplicity and the ease with which it may be acquired,—two claims put forward in its favor,—militate against its possessing the wealth of expression, the fine shading, which are essential to literature.

Dilating upon this phase of the question, the writer says:

Here we strike an antinomy which must prove fatal to the promises of the artificial language advocates. *Their device is and must be economy and poverty; literary, and, above all, poetic expression, demands riches, nay, lavishness.* The poet,—and the historian, too; the orator, even the scientific delineator of spiritual processes and of all subjects which may be classed under science of the mind,—must manipulate his subject with perfect freedom, pass in review and utilize all the varicolored domains of nature and of human life, in order to elucidate, to illuminate, his exposition, and,—not the least consideration,—in order to embellish his speech. His fancy must soar unconfined; his desire to convince, to delight, to enchain attention, to introduce intellectual distinctions here, to create powerful effects there, all demand that he should have at his disposal the broadest possible range of means of expression. No regard for the economy of language dare obtain here and check the freedom of motion, while in the case of the artificial tongue, rapid, facile acquisition is the prime rule,—nay, that constitutes its sole *raison d'être*. Greatest abundance and extremest poverty,—the genius of no inventor of language could suffice to reconcile these contradictions. Comprehensive word-saving artifices such a one may, indeed, devise. The creator of Esperanto, for example, succeeded in something of that kind by suggesting that positive conceptions such as “small,” “sick,” “ugly” be replaced by the negation of their opposites, as, “bad-large,” “bad-well,” “bad-pretty.” The aims of a formal language are, indeed, furthered by such means; those of a literary one, however, correspondingly injured. The memory is relieved, but the ear itself is offended by the frequent recurrence of the same sound-combinations. And that is not all: There is a loss of sharpness in the indicated conception if we can no longer employ besides “un-nice,” “ugly,” besides “unhealthy,” “sick.” Thus the decreased wealth of language injures in like measure the shading of speech, the sharpness of its concepts, and its grace.

It requires no further amplification, says this writer in conclusion, to prove beyond dispute that this pretension of the artificial languages already existing or to be invented is an illusory one.

Such a language, be it termed Volapük, Langue bleue, or Esperanto, may, indeed, if constructed by ingenious minds, render useful service in one or more domains of theory or practice; a full equivalent for highly developed, historic languages it can never offer. Its acquisition can only *accompany* the acquisition of the great and widespread historic civilized languages, and not replace them.

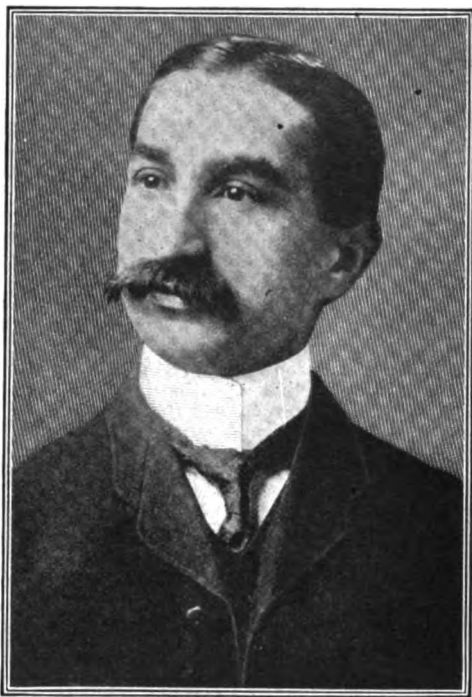
## THE COMEDY IN THE TRAGEDY OF THE TWENTIETH-CENTURY JEW.

A KEEN, closely woven analysis of the position occupied by the Jew in the life of the present age, particularly in this country, is contributed to the February *Lippincott's* by Ezra Brudno, the Hebrew novelist and essayist. If the life of the Jew of the past generation was a tragedy, says Mr. Brudno, the life of the twentieth-century Jew is a tragi-comedy,—“a sort of tragi-comedy that would make a Heine laugh and weep at the same time.”

I am not speaking of the long-bearded Jew who prays daily for the Messiah; I am not alluding to the Yiddish-speaking immigrant who pushes a cart in Hester Street or makes a machine hum in some dingy sweatshop; I have no reference to him whose horizon is co-extensive with his creed. He belongs to the present decade only as a matter of physical chronology; in spirit, in essence, he is a product of the past. His life is more often either wholly tragic or comic. The subject of this observation is the Jew who believes the Messiah has neither come, nor that he ever will; the smooth-shaven Jew who speaks faultless English, German, French, or whatever his native tongue happens to be; the liberal-minded man who hangs between the orthodox Jew and the heterodox Christian like a pendulum in an incased clock, swaying from side to side without touching either.

It is in the clash that comes at the meeting of the Jew of the last century and his brother of this epoch that Mr. Brudno sees the combination of tragedy and comedy. The newly landed immigrant who belongs to the century gone, this Jewish writer believes, would be quite contented were it not for the presence and influence of his brother who has prospered in the New World. The newcomer, says Mr. Brudno, has, despite his happiness, a lurking longing in his breast for “home.”

Not that he likes that “home,”—he speaks of it with a creeping sense of horror; but he is helpless against the enchanting echo of old memories. The warm, ill-smelling synagogue of his native town, as contrasted with the airy American house of worship, calls him back with the magic charm of childhood; the communal atmosphere of the Pale lures him with the sweetness of a family fireside; somehow, at a safe distance, the very yoke from which he sought to free himself seems to him now pregnant with poetic sentiment. Does not the beggar grown rich sometimes yearn for his discarded tatters? American customs and atmosphere are to him what a flood of sunshine is to the blind; he may feel its warmth, but the brilliant beams are not for him. It is only after a sojourn of a few years that his viewpoint begins to broaden. Then he begins to realize that in the whole history of his



EZRA BRUDNO.

people the Jew never had a period of tranquillity parallel to the present in the United States. Gradually he even becomes proud of his adopted fatherland. And while in his heart of hearts he never ceases to hanker after “the fish, which we did eat in Egypt,” he knows that this country is his Canaan, the Promised Land.

The tragedy and comedy began with the first generation born on American soil, or, as Mr. Brudno puts it, with the growth of “Jakie” and “Rachel,” or perhaps more often, Jim and Catherine.

Often Jim and Catherine usher in a tragedy,—the tragedy of the race. And the tragedy is not always one-sided. The fierce struggle arises from misunderstanding. Jim and Catherine demand independence, and they win their fight for it. But not infrequently independence is another name for tyranny. Jim cannot understand why “the old man” is so fond of the synagogue; he fails to see what chains “daddie” to those musty habits he brought over from the old country. Catherine frowns at the sound of the “old lady’s” Yiddish; her mother’s old-fashioned manners annoy her. At first the “old folks” make a bitter fight, but if old age has patience, youth has vigor. Little by little the elderly people weaken; they soon begin to yield, but yield as they might, they never bend enough to please Jim and Catherine. Alas! alas! how often they break because they cannot bend!

As for Jim and Catherine, they have prospered. They have changed their Sabbath from the seventh to the first day, their prayer-book from Hebrew to English, and they pray in neither tongue.

They have changed beef for ham; they have scrupulously, nay, religiously, weeded out every Oriental herb from their garden; and, despite all, they seem to want something,—something indefinite and yet something that fills them with restlessness, with discontent, with a sense of failure. They are conscious of a void they cannot fill. They sometimes feel they have been fighting for a worthless cause. For Jim and Catherine want to gain in one leap what has taken others many struggling years, perhaps generations, to accomplish. They have gained other things with such ease that at first this, too, seems easy. I mean social recognition. They frequently forget that they have only bridged the past and the present, and that the only usefulness there is in a bridge is that it gives others a chance to cross a chasm. They refuse to be

treated as they would treat others. The same Jim and Catherine, when success smiles upon them, manifest a snobishness toward the rest of their people that makes the seclusiveness of the non-Jew appear the warmest hospitality. Nothing is more ludicrously pathetic than the attitude of these climbers toward their less fortunate coreligionists.

In another particular, and a very significant and important one, the view of the modern Jew is different from that of his father.

While the Jew of the past regarded everything as subordinate to his faith, and it was with the eyes of his faith that he looked upon the world, the twentieth-century Jew views life as a man first, and as a Jew last. His desires, ambitions, and hopes are of the nation of which he is a part, not of his race, not of his creed. It is the natural pride of his blood that sometimes makes him strive for recognition as a member of his race, but only as a means of removing the world's prejudice, not with the hope of retaining his Jewish identity.

## ALCOHOLISM IN THE FRENCH ARMY.

**ALCOHOLISM** is one of the most terrible scourges of France. It is a danger of incalculably appalling force, a danger which menaces the individual, the family, and society, says an editorial in a recent number of the *Petit Journal* (Paris). The danger to the individual is both moral and physical.

Alcohol gradually denormalizes and decays the stomach, liver, kidneys, and lungs. A disease easily curable in a man who does not drink is fatal to a drinking man. The drunkard's face shows the ravages of his vice. According to his temperament he bloats, yellows, or becomes livid; his hands shake; his breath exhales the poison that has steeped his organism; his health, like his intellect, decays; he loses all sense of manly dignity. Morally he falls to a point where self-denial is impossible; to the point where he is conscious of nothing but animal appetite.

But he is piteous; he is helpless; his disease makes its own conditions. The pain that he inflicts, the terror, the anguish, are the results of his weakness; he is not responsible for his acts. An honest man may commit the worst of crimes when under the influence of drink.

Knowing this fact (a fact well known and recognized by medical experts), the officers of the army of France have opened a course of lectures intended to school the troops against the fatal consequences of drink. In an address delivered recently, Captain Romain, of the artillery, said to the men of his battery:

You have seen drunkards often enough to know what a man is like at such a time. A

drunken civilian is bad enough; a drunken soldier is doubly guilty. Not only does he compromise his dignity as a man, but he stains his uniform and disgraces his comrades. Drunkenness in the army calls the soldier before the council of war. If the vice is public,—that is to say, if the soldier is seen drunk on the street, in a café, saloon, theater, or other public place,—he is liable to be court martialed. The military code does not consider a man's lack of moral consciousness an excuse for reprehensible action; in the eyes of the law his mental condition is an aggravation of his guilt; and a soldier who commits a crime when he is drunk is punished twice as severely as he would be should he commit the same crime when sober; because the fact of HIS DRUNKENNESS constitutes a crime in itself.

Alcoholism is the curse of families in France as elsewhere!

Alcoholism is the peril that menaces the State; the seed-sower of national degeneracy. The alcoholism of France diminishes the number of births: first by augmenting mortality and by aggravating depopulation; next, "by destroying the energy and the intellect of the individual and by spreading the two great scourges tuberculosis and insanity. Alcoholism propagates tuberculosis,—an evil more to be dreaded than black death."

It destroys the bodily organs; its victim is a living corpse, a walking corpse, contaminating the air that he breathes. Insanity is the inevitable doom of the drunkard who lives to die a natural death. There is not a man on earth who drinks hard who may not, at any moment, be seized by the epileptic fury known as *délirium tremens*, and he may be thankful if he

comes out of that fury without committing murder. Of all countries France ought to be first able to give her opinion of alcoholism, because her increase in crime is directly due to it; and confining ourselves to military facts, we are

forced to declare that the majority of the soldiers sent to Africa to atone for their crimes in the disciplinary corps committed their crimes when drunk or because drink had degraded them to a point where crime was possible.

## HOW FRANCE IS LOSING IN THE RACE FOR POPULATION.

THE results of the French census of March, 1906, which were recently published, have made a perfectly crushing impression in France. The total number of inhabitants in the republic on March 4, 1906, was 39,252,267, showing an increase, during the period of 1901-1906, of only 290,322 persons, or an annual average of 58,000.

In the fifteen years between 1891 and 1906 the total increase amounted to 909,000, and thus it will be seen that it required more than fifteen years for France to add 1,000,000 inhabitants to its population. Should progress in this regard continue at the same slow rate,—of which there is every probability,—the year 1915 will be reached before France can count 40,000,000 inhabitants. In this connection it must also be remarked that whatever little increase there has been in the population of France must, to a great extent, be credited to the immigration of foreign elements, which has been particularly noticeable during the last few years. Consequently, one may reasonably consider the actual French population to be at a standstill.

A comparison of the French results with those of the German census completed only three months earlier has many interesting features to offer. Such a comparison is made in the *Allgemeine Zeitung* of Munich.

The German Empire had, at the time of its foundation, 40,000,000 inhabitants, while France had from 38,000,000 to 39,000,000, a rather insignificant difference in numbers between the two countries. In 1905 the German population had increased to more than 60,000,000, and at the beginning of 1907 the figure reached 61,500,000 people. From 1890 to 1905 Germany added 11,000,000 inhabitants to her population, while the corresponding figure in France was less than 1,000,000, which shows the German ratio of increase to be twelve times that of the French one. At the present time the German Empire has 22,000,000 inhabitants more than France, and in 1915 the difference will, in all probability, amount to 30,000,000. A little further on,—say, twenty-five years from now,—the population of Germany will, quite likely, be double that of France; for every year that passes the population figures of the two countries change gradually in favor of the German Empire.

The greater increase of the German population must be ascribed principally to the considerably greater number of births in Germany. During the year 1905, 2,100,000 children were born in the Fatherland, as against only 807,000 in France.

The excess of births over deaths was, in the same year, 37,000 in France and 863,000 in Germany,—i. e., twenty-three times as great in the latter country as in the former. Another cause of the strong population increase in Germany is the remarkable falling off in the emigration. In 1880 more than 200,000 Germans emigrated to foreign countries, but in 1905 the number was only 28,000. In France the emigration has at all times been of little consequence.

From another point of view a comparison of the population statistics is of great interest: Of the number added to the population of France during the last five years 130,000 were contributed by Paris and vicinity, making the increase in all the rest of the country amount to only 160,000 inhabitants. In fifty-five out of eighty-eight departments a decrease of the population was even recorded. This is a very serious matter, comments the writer in the Munich journal, indicating a tendency to actual "depopulation" in a rather large territory. In Germany the increase of the population in the different localities between 1900 and 1905 averaged 7.5 per cent., the lowest figure being 0.6 per cent., in Mecklenburg-Strelitz, and the highest 17.1 per cent., in Bremen. Among the Prussian provinces, Brandenburg stood in the front rank, with 13.6 per cent., while eastern Prussia came last, with 1.5 per cent. The great difference between the various localities, in regard to the increase of population, is accounted for by the migration of people from the rural districts to the large cities and industrial centers.

Still another feature of the comparison between the two countries,—the distribution of the population in cities and country communities,—is well deserving of attention. The French census showed fifteen cities with more than 100,000 inhabitants, while the German enumeration embraced no less than forty such cities.

Among these Germany has nineteen municipalities with over 200,000 inhabitants each, as against five in France. Paris comes first with 2,763,000, and then follow Marseilles with 517,000, Lyons with 472,000, Bordeaux with 252,000, and Lille with 206,000 inhabitants. The increase in Paris proper was, during the last five-year period, 49,000, and in greater Paris 130,000 inhabitants. This is a small figure compared with the population increase in greater Berlin, and it will not be very long before the latter city will surpass greater Paris in number of inhabitants. Among the other large cities of France, Marseilles showed an increase of about 26,000, and Lyons 13,000, while Bordeaux and Lille had to record a rather considerable decrease,—an occurrence which one would look for in vain in Germany. Of places with more than 10,000 inhabitants each France had only 282, while Germany had 525, or nearly twice as many. The number of places with a population of 10,000 to 20,000 was in Germany 276 and in France only 153. More than 20,000 inhabitants were found in 249 German cities, the corresponding number in France being 129.

The census figures also showed that France had 18,714 communities, or more than half of the total number, with less than 500 inhabitants each. The striking pre-eminence of Paris over all other French cities depends on the fact that one-twelfth of the entire population of France resides in greater Paris,

the capital and its immediate vicinity. Only one of every twenty Germans has his domicile in greater Berlin.

The slight increase in the population causes the French statesmen and economists a great deal of worry, and every conceivable effort has been employed in order to bring about an improvement in this regard. Up to 1880 the increase was pretty normal, but from then on the birth-rate has gradually declined more and more. The result hereof manifests itself very pronouncedly in the present generation. There is a remarkable want of soldiers and laborers. Although the requirements of the military service have been considerably modified from time to time, it is quite difficult to fill the regular quota of the army on a peace-footing, and in a few years from now this will be altogether infeasible. It is evident, says the German writer in conclusion, that the increase in population is of paramount importance for the future of a country, since only the nation whose population is on the increase will be able, in decades and centuries to come, to hold its own in the universal competition for political and economical influence.

## MAKING ROME A SEAPORT.

THE commission appointed by the Italian Government for the purpose of devising some adequate and appropriate means of celebrating the fiftieth anniversary of the proclamation of Rome as the capital of a united Italy has hit upon the project of making Rome a seaport as the most generally necessary and desirable piece of work for the government to undertake.

In a recent number of the *Nuova Antologia* is a long and detailed article on this plan, which it is hoped will be carried into execution at once and completed in time for the celebration in 1911, the date of the anniversary above mentioned. The author, who is most enthusiastic about the great benefits to be derived from the undertaking, divides these good effects into six broad classes, most diverse in nature, beginning with the least important and mounting to those which will change the industrial conditions not only of Rome but of the whole central part of Italy.

He first cited sea-bathing made possible for the poorer classes of Rome, who now have no relief from the excessive heat of the long Roman summers.

The city is twenty-four kilometers from the sea at Ostia, where the new seaport is to be placed, and already the city limits extend to the sea, although as a matter of fact Rome is as much an inland city as Paris, as far as any but the well-to-do are concerned. A waste of swamps, marshes and barren land lies between Rome and Ostia, over which it is proposed, as one of the first developments of the larger project, to run an electric tramway, which will carry people swiftly, frequently, and cheaply to the sea, very much as poor New Yorkers go to Coney Island.

In the second place, cheap and healthful lodgings could be secured for those who are now crowded together in immemorably old and unsanitary tenement-houses in Rome. The price of lodgings and food has been steadily going up in Rome for a number of years, till there is really a good deal of suffering among the smaller tradespeople, who cannot secure a decent place to live for a sum which leaves them anything to live on. It is not necessary to dwell on this phase of the author's arguments, for it is simply a recapitulation of the advantages of our own system of suburban residence for people of moderate means who are occupied in the city.



The system is, however, almost wholly unknown in Italy, and the well-known advantages of it,—good air, plenty of room, possibility for gardens and for gathering of congenial people, better health of women and children, etc.,—are insisted upon at great length.

In a similar way an American can take for granted the third point made, the benefits of a summer home elsewhere than in the city, even if it is not possible to spend all the year around outside of city streets.

The author then advances one argument which shows conditions quite different from our own, but which seem to have an importance even beyond the suburban homes idea. He argues that when the seaport Rome is built it should be partly planned to attract wealthy tourists looking for a winter resort,—the same class which enriches so bountifully the French and Italian Riviera, and Egypt. It is almost certain that if, to the attraction of Rome already existing, historical, artistic, social, and archeological, was added a modern, convenient, luxurious but not too expensive winter resort, quiet and restful, but close to a great metropolis, tourists of all nationalities would flock there in great numbers, bringing the golden shower of almost clear profit they bestow on every land they visit. The fact that the great steamship lines could deposit passengers directly at this port would also add to the number of winter sojourners, while Italians themselves and a more modest class of tourists from France and Switzerland would be likely to use the place as a summer resort.

It is on the last two arguments that the article concentrates most of its ardor: the tremendous commercial value of a seaport at that place, and the great boom it would give to the development of the rich *hinterland* of Central Italy back of it. The new port would not have to solicit business, the author thinks, for there are a number of interests which are fairly suffering for lack of it, and which would make use of it the moment it was available.

For one thing, the immense numbers of Italian emigrants who must now go south to Naples or north to Genoa would embark and disembark at maritime Rome, with much economy of time and money. As yet there is but little emigration from the center of Italy, perhaps for the very lack of a nearby port, but there is little doubt that the presence of such a port would bring out great numbers of them. As soon as one line of steamships stopped at Ostia all others would be forced to do so by the laws of competition, and such are the proportions of the steamship service to Italian ports that that would at once

insure the arrival of 300 ships a year, through emigration alone, which is in itself thus able to support a port.

This is, however, but the smallest part of the possibilities of the future. All the movement of eastern traffic, toward and from Egypt, India, China, Japan, and Australia, already passes the very spot where it is proposed to open maritime Rome; so that not the smallest deviation from its course would be necessary for vessels to stop there. This puts the markets of the world, both for export and import, virtually at the doors of Rome. The business men of that city would by means of a canal be able to carry their goods to the steamships with but one handling. What is almost more important, raw material of all kinds, cotton from Egypt and India, iron, coal, wool, etc., which are now brought to Rome from Genoa or Naples by railroad, at almost prohibitive prices and with the utmost uncertainty and delay, would arrive directly from the countries where they are produced and be delivered to manufacturers almost at first hand. This would place the center of Italy at once on a par with the north of Italy, where, as everybody knows, the growth of silk, cotton, and woollen manufacture has been prodigious of late years.

The general character of the inhabitants of central Italy favors this hope of an immediate emergence of the country into a manufacturing center. They are intelligent, industrious, honest, and capable of becoming admirably competent factory hands. Moreover, they are suffering from lack of work. An industrial future like the busy prosperous present of Lombardy and Piedmont is thus virtually assured to central Italy if the plan is carried into execution. Cotton, jute, and woollen mills, iron-foundries, glass-works and the like would spring up in almost instant response to the new conditions. Also more purely Italian processes like fine-furniture making, the manufacture of all kinds of macaroni, etc. The presence of cheap coal would supply motor power for all sorts of industries. Moreover, the life of the factory hands would be under pleasant conditions at maritime Rome, clean, new, modern, roomy, with sea-air and cheap hygienic houses.

Another most desirable end would be attained; *i. e.*, the improvement of life in Sardinia and Corsica. These two islands, with their obstinate backwardness, form one of the knottiest problems for Italian economists. They are fifty years behind the rest of Italy and show no signs of waking up.

## WHAT IS TO BE THE FUTURE OF TRIPOLI?

NOMINALLY Tripoli is Turkish territory, but as a writer on "New Africa" in *La Rivista Italiana di Sociologia* (Rome) remarks, the decision of the great powers in 1890 to recognize the rights of the Sultan has not proved able to withstand the revelation of the value of the land. Little by little France and England have "acquired" larger and larger tracts of so-called Turkish territory, until now all the *hinterland* of Tripoli, which should have gone with it, has been absorbed or is in process of absorption by one of the other of these powers.

Vittorio Nazari, in a vigorously written article in the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome) calls upon Italy to rouse herself and take action in securing her share before it is too late. Already, owing to the encroachments above mentioned, Tripoli has lost a great share of her commercial possibilities.

The British campaign has been most thorough. From the mouth of the River Niger they have established an excellent service of steamships, which carry freight direct to European ports. Up the river as far as Lakoja they have a swift service of river boats, which bring the freight down to the seacoast, and now they have projected a network of railway lines which will connect Lakoja with all the sultanates of the center. This means simply that the large and very important caravan trade from the Sahara and the trade with the populous regions of the Sudan, which for centuries have found their way to the sea through Tripoli, have been diverted from this natural route, leaving Tripoli with nothing but its agricultural possibilities.

It is too late to prevent this loss, but Signor Nazari urges Italian authorities to hasten and save what is left.

Tripoli, although now so neglected among the flourishing colonies of North Africa as to be called the Cinderella of the region, possesses many advantages which peculiarly fit it for being the scene of a great colonial campaign by Italy. In the first place, it is no uncertain venture. Its history shows that all it needs is intelligent cultivation to make it of great value agriculturally.

In the time of the Roman Empire it was famous for its fertility, especially the region now known as Barca. Prodigious quantities of olives were raised here in Roman times, as well as grains of all kinds and fruits famous for their abundance and excellence. The fertile soil and favorable climate have neither of them changed since those days, but centuries of the wretched and corrupt rule of Turkey, with its system of absentee and irresponsible officials, have reduced the people to the state of dull and despairing

apathy in which Egypt was before England took hold of it. The present flourishing condition of that country, and of Algeria, which was rescued by the French from similar misrule, shows what lies before Tripoli under a wise and just European administration. Another favorable factor is that there is no war of conquest against the native inhabitants needed as in the ill-fated Abyssinian campaign. The population, which is very sparsely scattered over the country, there being on an average only one inhabitant to a square mile, would welcome eagerly a change from their cruel and rapacious Turkish masters.

Signor Nazari warns his people, however, that a war is needed which is sometimes more difficult for a modern and bureaucratic nation to conduct than a war of conquest, and that is a campaign of strict economic wisdom and honesty, free from red tape, bold, full of initiative, honest, and persistent. Great engineering undertakings are needed to regulate the water supply, and in letting these contracts there must be the greatest care to avoid the disastrous corruption so flagrant in the French attempt in Panama. Signor Nazari seems inclined to believe that it will be better for Italy to turn all her attention to making Tripoli an agricultural region rather than trying (at least for some time) to do anything with commercial enterprises, and he shows many excellent reasons for this decision: The country is infinitely more adapted to farming by Europeans than is generally supposed. There are a number of false impressions about the soil and climate. For instance, tourists visiting the city of Tripoli report that the Desert of Sahara begins directly outside the city.

This is an erroneous idea, since the stretches of sand visible from the city are only sand dunes, blown in from the sea, such as may be seen from many seaboard European cities, while back of them there are hundreds of miles of plains which need only a regular supply of water to make them enormously fertile. The tropical and unhealthy nature of the climate is also much exaggerated. In many respects the climate is like that of Sicily and southern Italy, no harder for Europeans to bear, and capable of producing all the same crops.

Moreover, the whole region of Barca is a veritable Paradise run to seed, and is quite ready, with very little assistance, in soil, climate, and vegetation, to support hundreds of thousands of Europeans. It could thus be colonized at once and used as a base of opera-

tions in the reclamation of the more arid parts of the country, just as our Middle Western States have little by little conquered the region formerly known as the Great American Desert. The changes that will take place in a soil supposedly arid, under the influence of water and cultivation, are well known in themselves and are illustrated brilliantly in the agricultural successes of Algeria and Egypt, as well as in those parts of

Tripoli, near the city, which are already cultivated with the aid of Artesian wells.

The Italian writer closes his article by quoting Leroy-Beaulieu's famous words about Algeria, that it is a country which over more than half of its territory is as richly endowed as any country in the world, and that it constitutes a "new France" lying at the very ports of old France. Is not this exactly the relation which Tripoli bears to Italy?

## THE RUSSIAN DUSE IN THE UNITED STATES.

UNQUESTIONABLY one of the greatest, if not the greatest, of living Russian actresses, Madame Vyera Feodorovna Kommissarzhevskaya, will make her *début* on the American stage in New York City on the second of the present month. She has been called the Russian Duse, but when we think of the latter in Goldoni's plays, or in Dumas' *Camille*; and of Kommissarzhevskaya in Ibsen's play, or Sudermann's, or in Chekhov's, or Ostrovski's dramas, we are forced to recognize that, notwithstanding the realism common to both, Kommissarzhevskaya must still be regarded as a genuine Russian actress. To be sure, both are distinguished for their striking femininity, both know how to appeal powerfully to the sympathies of the public in delineating the characteristic traits of womanliness. Like Duse, this great Russian can awaken compassion, can fill one with tenderness, and can touch deeply. But as to style, Kommissarzhevskaya possesses something which is distinctly original, characterized by the Russian critic, Bellyayev, as follows:

Her style represents one of the most complicated forms of neurasthenia. Her nervous organization is extremely sensitive, to such an extent that in moments of greatest inspiration her entire being vibrates like a broken chord. She is then in a state of extreme nervous tension; she evidently does not spare herself, and I am convinced that in strongly dramatic scenes she absorbs impressions with all her senses at once. It is for this reason that she is constantly in a state of exaltation; it is for this reason that her sensibilities are so acute and her being so responsive. Hers is the organization of an Eolian harp.

The actress is an artist by right of inheritance. The daughter of the tenor Kommissarzhevski, a scion of a noble Polish family and in his day an operatic star in the imperial theaters of St. Petersburg and Moscow, she took her first lessons in dramatic art



MADAME KOMMISSARZHEVSKAYA.

from the famous artist of the imperial stage, V. N. Davydov, in St. Petersburg.

After a brief course of instruction she joined her father in Moscow and became his pupil in singing. In 1892, at the age of sixteen, she became the wife of Count Muraviev, but after a short period of unhappy married life she obtained a divorce and devoted herself to dramatic art. She made her first appearance on the provincial stage in Novo-Cherkassk (southern Russia) in 1893. She then played in Wilno, where her success was immediate. In 1896 she secured an engagement at the Imperial Theater of St. Petersburg, and achieved there a noted triumph in her rôle as Rose in Sudermann's "The Battle of the Butterflies."

The sensitive nature of the actress was

repelled by the officiousness and bureaucratic methods prevailing in the Imperial Theater. She left it suddenly to star in the provinces. So great was the enthusiasm provoked by her in all of the Russian cities where she appeared that the management of the Imperial Theater was forced to make her a very advantageous offer in order to induce her to return to the Imperial stage. Kommissarzhevskaya preferred, however, to retain her independence and to devote herself to the interpretation of dramatic art as she understood it. After a remarkable series of successes in the provinces she returned to St. Petersburg.

Her playing of Sudermann's "Magda" at the Panayev Theater in St. Petersburg in 1902 evoked a veritable storm of enthusiastic approval. The critics sang her praises unstintingly, and agreed in ranking her Magda with that of Duse. As one of the critics indicated: "Personal suffering as expressed by her appealed powerfully to the sympathies of her hearers. Her protest against this suffering, its realism, and its sincerity moved them strangely, and inspired them with admiration for the consummate skill of the artist." But what marks her as an artist of the highest rank is her masterly control of her passions in the most dramatic situations.

The Russian Duse so completely gained the affection of the theater-going public in St. Petersburg that she was practically forced by the latter to remain in the metropolis. In 1903 she built the present "Kommissarzhevskaya Dramatic Theater," acknowledged to be the best-appointed playhouse in Russia. She has surrounded herself by a troupe of

distinguished artists, and with their aid has consistently developed her interpretation of modern realistic dramas. The authors whose plays are prominently represented in her repertoire are Ibsen, Sudermann, Maeterlinck, Andreyev, Chekhov, and Ostrovski. To the characters created by these authors she has given an interpretation of her own, and her associates are both guided and inspired by her views.

One would hardly expect to find in the slender, girlish figure, with its almost childlike face and smile, that tense dramatic force and nervous energy that are revealed on the stage. But in Kommissarzhevskaya's eyes and their changing expression one may feel a great latent force. They seem to illuminate her entire being and to radiate waves of personal magnetism.

Kommissarzhevskaya comes to New York with a company of twenty-six artists. Her leading man is Bravich, and the manager Nicholas Orlov. The latter is known to the New York theatergoers as the stage-manager of Orlenev's company, where Nazimova gained her first laurels a few years ago. She brings also an elaborate collection of stage decorations. She will make her *début* here as Nora in Ibsen's "A Doll's House." This will be followed by Sudermann's "Fires of St. John" and "The Battle of Butterflies"; Maeterlinck's "Sister Beatrice"; Ibsen's "Master Builder"; Chekhov's "Uncle Vaniya," and other plays; Ostrovski's "Savage"; Andreyev's "Life of Man," and probably by other modern plays.

## THE PEOPLE'S THEATER AT ST. PETERSBURG.

RUSSIA has shown the way to other nations in at least one respect,—namely, in her ability to establish and successfully conduct a people's theater. Though other countries have attempted such an organization, none has as yet attained the success won by the popular theater in St. Petersburg, which was founded by the present Emperor. It was at the exposition of Nijni-Novgorod, writes M. Maheo in *The Monde Moderne* (Paris), that the Czar was inspired with the happy idea of suggesting to his Minister of Education that the great Hall of Arts might, at the close of the exposition, be rebuilt at St. Petersburg in the Alexander Park as a popular theater, where it appeared in due course, and is now known as the People's House.

The building is constructed of iron, stone, and cement, and is consequently fireproof. Besides the theater proper there are several large dancing and music halls, with, moreover, a large dining-hall, which is capable of seating several thousand persons.

The caterer for this department has a settled tariff of prices arranged by the committee of management, which he is bound to follow under pain of forfeiting his post. The cuisine is daily inspected by an official and a medical man. The waitresses receive no fixed salary, but derive, it is shown, a fair remuneration for their services from gratuities. A satisfactory lunch may be had in the hall for half a rouble, or little less than 30 cents. In one year the profits arising from this department alone amounted to nearly \$80,000.

The theater proper is the most imposing

hall of the building, measuring as it does some 34 meters in length, by 28 meters in breadth, and 14 in height. The hall, the flooring of which is of asphalt, can seat 3000 persons, and of the seats occupied by these people only 1247 are charged for, such seats being the orchestra-stalls. In case of danger from fire the stage can be entirely isolated from the body of the theater by a sheet-iron curtain and inundated in forty seconds. The actors are paid as follows: first rôles, \$125 a month; second rôles, \$100 a month; third rôles, \$75,—prices, says M. Maheo, which compare somewhat unfavorably with those given to performers at the imperial theaters, typically Russian as a rule in their extravagance. However, the people of St. Petersburg appear to be satisfied with their actors, who are gradually beginning to find that they can make their way to the imperial theaters if they show talent, an important point in developing the dramatic talent of aspirants. Nor is the people deprived of opera, whether comic or grand, an arrangement having been entered into whereby, for a smaller rate of payment than usual, the

singers of the imperial opera-houses consent to give their services for the benefit of the lower orders. The last year's receipts for the theater itself only amounted to some \$70,000, so small a sum that a further subvention of \$200,000 was required from the imperial treasury.

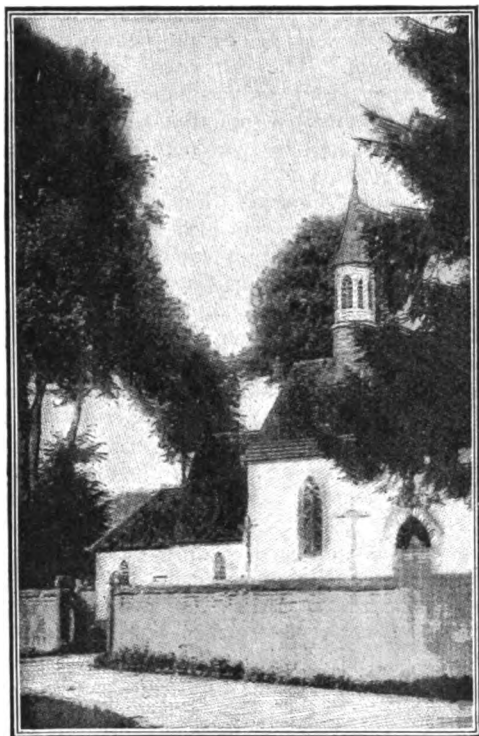
It is found, however, that the eternal policy of repression enters into the idea of the popular theater, notwithstanding the excellent spirit which its existence suggests. One result is that the popular mind is not at all stimulated by the proper kind of intellectual nourishment. For example, no play which breathes anything like a spirit of true liberty is permitted to be played. Melodrama of the most mediocre kind, bordering on the vacuous and the ridiculous, is the best a popular audience may expect. Even those scenes which depict the peasant's life as being tragic or slavish are summarily expurgated, and the melodramatist is encouraged, in composing his plays, to suggest to the Russian people that no possible existence could eclipse theirs in the matter of happiness,—clearly a stultification of the drama's purport.

## LONG-DISTANCE PHOTOGRAPHY.

IN a recent number of *Illustrirte Zeitung*, the long-distance photography of Belin is described.

Professor Korn at Munich is no longer the only one who is able to reproduce photographs at long distance by telegraphic means. In France, where much honor has been shown the German professor, many inventors are at present engaged in constructing new devices. Of these, the Lyonnaise physicist, Edouard Belin, has, so far, accomplished the best results with his so-called "telestereograph." Similarly to what the engineers Berjonneau and Grimaud have done, Belin has sought to get free of the fundamental principle of the long-distance photography of Korn,—that is, from the use of selenium. The electrical conductivity of this substance is capable of being influenced by light. Korn was the first to utilize this property for the reproduction of photographs over a wire. Selenium has been at once the strength and the weakness of telephotography, for the reason that complicated arrangements had to be devised in order to compensate for the variability of this metal after undergoing the effects of the electric current for a time.

The new apparatus of Belin, as well as those of Berjonneau and Grimaud, do not any longer make use at the forwarding station of the influence of light upon the electric transmission exercised by selenium. Professor Korn rolled, as is well known, his photograph about a kind of phonographic cylinder. This cylinder was spirally revolved by clockwork upon the interior of a metallic shell of such sort that every point of the photograph was compelled to pass a tiny orifice in the shell. An incandescent electric light in the cylinder sent through the photograph and the orifice in the outer shell a slender beam of light, which influenced, more or less,—according to whether bright or dark places of the photograph were passing,—the sheet of selenium which had previously been put in suitable position. The electric current passing through this plate was correspondingly affected. Now, the French inventors retained the phonographic cylinder of Korn, but in order to influence the electric current they utilized photographs direct,—in fact, the relief surfaces of these. First of all, Berjonneau and Grimaud transformed the photographs into the so-called facsimile-



PHOTOGRAPHIC VIEW OF A LANDSCAPE TRANSMITTED  
A DISTANCE OF 1700 KILOMETERS BY  
THE BELIN APPARATUS.

gravures, which are composed of minute points. Belin, on the other hand, had recourse to carbon photographs, over whose surfaces-in-relief a little metal point glides in spirals of 1-6 mm. This point transmits over the telegraph wire stronger or weaker electric currents in correspondence with the depressions or elevations of the carbon photograph by means of a transmitting arrangement of levers.

At the receiving station, Professor Korn applies in an ingenious manner a galvanometer. But Edouard Belin has recourse to the oscillograph of the savant Blondel. This consists of two extremely fine wires arranged in the form of an arc completing the electric circuit of the whole line. Upon this arc-shaped device a mirror of 1 mm. length by .7 mm. breadth is secured. As soon as a current passes through the fine wires, the arc turns in such manner as to result in the mirror facing towards the outside. It thus receives the vivid rays of a Nernst light. These are then reflected through an optical lens, behind which revolves in a metallic shell a sensitive photographic film wound

upon a roller,—similarly to the phonographic cylinder. By means of the lens, the photographic film is covered in a few minutes with the picture from the sending station. It is now possible through some technical procedures to enlarge the picture and to obtain a darker or brighter result. For Belin interposes between the oscillating mirror and the optical lens a piece of colored glass which varies from an opaque black to complete transparency. The electric currents passing through the minute wires incline the attached mirror in such manner that it throws the beam from the Nernst light through the lens, now upon the dark part of the glass, now upon the brighter parts.

Let it be noticed here that the object at the receiving station is to secure by the action of a beam of light a dark spot for a dark one in the original and so with the bright and intermediate spots. The differences in shades at the sending station are so managed as to produce corresponding variations in the current transmitted. So, likewise, at the receiving end these variations in the strength of the current as it arrives is utilized to produce variations in the strength of the light which falls upon the sensitive film. These variations in the strength of the light in correspondence with the variations in the current are secured by the oscillating mirror reflecting the beam of light upon the variously shaded portions of the colored glass. Although this causes the direction of the beam to change, correction is effected by means of the lens,—the result being that a beam of light varying in strength is continually focused at a certain point. Past this point the sensitized film is spirally revolved. Thus is produced a succession of minute and variously shaded spots covering the film. As these shadings correspond precisely with those of the original photograph, we obtain a faithful reproduction. To recapitulate: the variations of relief on the carbon print at the sending station are utilized to secure a current of varying strength. This varying current causes, by means of the oscillograph, a beam of light to fall upon variously shaded portions of the colored glass. This brings about variations in the strength of light of the beam. And the lens constantly directs this fluctuating beam to a single focus.

One is able at once to obtain positive and also negative clichés by means of a simple reversal of the glass plate (so that the bright and the dark parts are struck by the rays in reverse order). This is quite important for

purposes of reproduction. With the system of the engineers Berjonneau and Grimaud the receiving station is very similar. As an objection to both systems it must be observed that the preparations at the sending station are time consuming,—especially seeing that two hours are requisite for the production of a facsimile-gravure. The carbon photograph of Belin which furnishes the surface-in-relief also demands very precise arrangements.

Professor Korn works constantly upon the telephone lines between Berlin-Paris and London-Paris. Thus have been transmitted good photographs, but only portraits. Edouard Belin was the first who was able to reproduce telegraphically a landscape,—a

little church surrounded by trees. The French telegraph authorities put at his disposal at night the mutually connected telephone lines of Paris-Lyons-Bordeaux-Tours-Paris,—that is to say, a wire of 1717 kilometers. In exactly twenty-two minutes three seconds the sending apparatus had transmitted with great precision around through France back to the receiving apparatus standing upon the same table the little photographic view of the landscape. Although the last word in the department of telephotography may not be spoken for a long while, still the apparatus of Belin from its simplicity and perfection marks a real advance over the system of Korn.

## PORTUGAL AND SPAIN IN THE WORK OF CIVILIZATION.

TO the Iberian nations we must concede the credit of having furnished, however unconsciously or involuntarily, the first impulse to positive modern culture, says M. Phileas Lesbesque, writing in the *Mercure de France* (Paris). Spain's part in it was involuntary. The Portuguese discoveries, however, were the hard-earned results of patient and methodical effort. Vasco de Gama found the maritime route to India because he looked for it, but Christopher Columbus came upon a country that he had not expected to find, a country that he had never thought of.

The Portuguese plan of discovery was double; it covered the west and the south (as the Azores show), and it was personal to the nation. Dom Joao II. of Portugal warded off Columbus because he (Columbus) was not a Portuguese. Dom Joao was not disposed to give his fleets into the hands of an Italian. Portugal's idea was to rival the work of the lesser states and to put an end to the power of Venice. The discovery of America, the African voyage, and the first voyage around the world (Magellan's) worked a capital revolution in the action of humanity. Commercial speculation, industry, and general exchanges of all kinds took a new turn.

The fever of colonization, derived from the enthusiasm of the Crusades, succeeded that other fever, and by fighting against the Mussulman's power in the Orient Portugal saved Europe from a Turkish invasion.

Then the reaction came, and, after a century of dazzling splendor, Iberia sank back to her former poverty, so stripped, so ruined, and in such piteous condition that Cervantes could caricature her when he wrote the pathetic satire of "Don Quixote." The heroic figure

of a race just escaped from the trap of an outrageous fallacy is caricatured in every page of that mournful work. The character of Don Quixote is the type of the generous soul of a distressed but incorruptible people. The book "Don Quixote," as a whole, is like a last will and testament of chivalry and liberal Christian thought.

Camoens, the Portuguese, was the first of the modern poets. His works marked the positive conception of art, which was "less the product of a new attitude toward life than the revulsion of one state of the Atavic mind nurtured by Christianity and chivalry."

The influence of the Crusades was seen in the Iberian countries in the spontaneous creation of Gothic architecture. Poetic feeling was rejuvenated by the discovery of unknown continents, and "from the pure spring of the poetic sentiment painting and music drank deep."

The Villancico, which alternated, in the church, with liturgic chants, was a direct issue of the people's intuition. All singers sang in Portuguese; the language of Portugal was the natural language of song. We may classify the first steps of European civilization as Christianity, chivalry, poetry, the exaltation of the heroic effort, and music. Heliodorus of Paiva and Damiao de Goes spread out tradition before the feet of Palestrina. "Everything combined to fill the mind with splendid images and to give a higher idea of the human forces." (Humboldt).

Camoens was at one pole of Iberian genius; Miguel Cervantes was at the other. But the two heralds of the new era were equally true to reality. The descriptive features abounding in "Don Quixote" are life-like as life was then and in that place. In a





LUIS CAMOENS.

way diametrically different to Camoens, Cervantes was the verbal painter of his day.

The fires of Iberian genius burst forth from all points. "The sixteenth century was Iberia's age of gold, and it was also her age of clay." (Emile Chasles). Never did Spain carry her

audacity and her proud triumphs higher. Never was Spanish literature richer or more prolific. Never did art deploy its wealth more freely, more spontaneously, or by more clearly evident inspiration. Gil Vincent gave the literary form to the three spontaneous manifestations of the national drama. The great dramatists of the peninsula,—Guilhem de Castro, Tirso de Molino, Alarçon Lopez de Vega,—and the master author Calderon de Barca gave their fire to the world, and from Spain lighted the skies of France. Corneille wrote "The Cid," and Molière, who owes so much to Cervantes, sprang to the heights of comedy. Portugal was the native land of pastoral poesy. According to Theophilo de Braga, the new class of literature as well as its new form was born of the national traditions.

Portugal's conception of civilization was not simply the extension of Christian faith; it was "a broadening of the world, the realization of a dream, or, to speak better, a dream in action."

The Portuguese are the heirs of the Knights of the Round Table, the men whose individual impulses fomented the spirit of the French Revolution after the great discoveries forced them to bend before scientific positivism and the consideration of nature. Iberia's part in the work of universal civilization was so important that it merits the unqualified respect of France. The Iberian effort made it impossible for France to realize something very valuable from her effort. France found the active principle of her romanticism in the wellsprings of Iberia. Taken all in all, Victor Hugo's "Hernani" is Spanish, and so is Corneille's "Cid."

## WHAT GENIUSES EAT AND DRINK.

**R**EAD literally, the well-known line, "The world knows nothing of its greatest men," scarcely holds good to-day. Indeed, there is very little concerning our celebrities that is not known. Their recreations, their hobbies, their eccentricities, their loves,—all are brought under the searchlight of the curious investigator. The latest harvestings in this field appear in *La Revue*, and in the current number of the *London Review of Reviews*. In the former journal Dr. Regnault and M. Fernand Mazade present answers to inquiries addressed by them to French painters, writers, musicians, and other men of genius concerning the beverages used by them, and the effect of the same upon their work. The replies, a selection of which we give below, are interesting in themselves, and especially so as frequently showing the differences of opinion and usage among members of the same profession. Of the painters, for instance, Jules Breton regards alcohol as

the worst of stimulants; Bouguereau holds that good wine, like all the other good things in this world, is excellent for those who will enjoy and not abuse it. Among composers, Massenet abstains from alcohol; Indy drinks brandy, benedictine, and chartreuse. The veteran chemist Berthelot took neither tea nor coffee; the dramatist Sardou, at seventy-eight, cannot sleep well unless he has his demi-tasse of the latter after dinner.

The inquiries of the Frenchmen have elicited the fact that the musicians, painters, poets, sculptors, and writers are all agreed upon one point,—viz., that, as a stimulus to work, alcohol is useless, if not absolutely dangerous. Though it may temporarily sustain genius, it cannot create it; and it may seriously mar production that depends upon it. Here are some of the replies:

**M. BERTHELOT:** My usual drink is red wine and water; three parts water and one wine. To this I add at dinner after the soup a small

glass of old claret. . . . I drink neither tea nor coffee, nor do I take tobacco in appreciable quantities. . . . Alcohol, it seems to me, is hurtful to everybody. . . . It should never enter into a regular regimen.

PAUL BOURGET: For me, alcohol, in however small a quantity, and no matter in what form, is an absolute hindrance to work.

JULES BRETON: I believe there is no worse stimulant than alcohol for work in literature and the arts. Its abuse leads to delirium tremens of the imagination as well as of the body, and its use, even in moderation, ends in the blunting of the sensibility of the nerves.

JULES CLARETIE: I drink but little alcohol,—at times some sweet liqueur. I do not believe that alcohol should be used as an intellectual stimulant; it elevates temporarily but ultimately depresses. . . . The green and yellow muses are dead and tragic counsellors.

CAROLUS DURAN: I drink little besides water. Alcoholic beverages may have temporarily sustained certain writers and artists, but genius needs no stimulant. A sunset, a forest, a handsome child, a pretty woman, all the spectacles of nature; also a symphony, a fine work of art, a grand and noble emotion, sufficiently excite the genius of the poet, the painter, and the musician, and stimulate it more healthily than would the smallest or the most copious dose of alcohol.

CAMILLE FLAMMARION: I have never drunk water, and esteem it only for external use. I drink burgundy, claret, and champagne, when good, and on this point I am somewhat difficult to please. My grandfather was a vine-dresser, and died at the age of ninety.

VINCENT D'INDY: I drink indifferently brandy, chartreuse, and benedictine, but I regard them in no way as stimulants to work. . . . I find brandy the best preventative of sleep, when working at night. I have never considered alcohol of any utility in producing musical ideas; I would even go further and say that creation, if due to artificial means like alcohol, has every chance to be vitiated.

JULES LEMAITRE: I have ceased to take wine and alcoholic liquors, because they gave me a red face, which I found most objectionable. . . . I do not notice any difference between the things I wrote when I took alcohol and those I have written since I confined myself to water,—at least no difference as regards the facility and difficulty of work.

PIERRE LOTI: I am three-fourths Mussulman. I never drink, and I have never drunk, alcohol in any form.

F. MISTRAL: At my meals I drink wine of my own growth, mixed with two parts of water.

. . . . I consider the consumption of any alcohol whatever detrimental to intellectual work. . . . My father, who died an octogenarian, drank with his meals only a little wine largely diluted with water, and my mother, who lived beyond eighty, drank only water all her life.

GASTON PARIS: I have always taken wine with my meals. . . . I am unable to say whether I work better when I drink water, never having placed myself under that regimen. After coffee I take a small glass of brandy. All this is so regular with me that I am unable to note any influence on the cerebral activity.

C. ST. SAËNS: I drink when eating, I drink when thirsty, especially of mineral water, of

wine without excess. . . . Never do I use alcohol as a stimulus to work. . . . If I could have real spring water absolutely pure and absolutely fresh I should prefer it to any other beverage.

VICTORIEN SARDOU: I regard alcohol as a poison. I cannot tolerate a half-glass of brandy. I can say that never in my work have I had recourse to this stimulant. But I am a drinker of coffee,—three times a day,—and I do not sleep well unless I have taken a demi-tasse (without sugar) after dinner.

MELCHIOR DE VOGÜÉ: France has for a long time given to the world the most wine and the best; those who have used it have given to the same world the most powerful and the richest of modern literature. This seems to me to answer your question.

Following the lead of *La Revue*, the London *Review of Reviews* instituted an inquiry on a wider scale,—namely “What suggestions have the most eminent British men of letters, scientists, artists, etc., to offer their fellows as to the best way in which to preserve their health, insure their happiness, and generate the maximum amount of working power?” and the celebrities addressed were asked to state what life had taught them as to the best regimen as to food and drink and tobacco. Fourteen replies are printed, twelve of which are from men whose ages range from eighty-five (Sir Alfred Russel Wallace) to seventy (Dr. A. M. Fairbairn). The remaining two are from comparative youngsters,—Miss Ellen Terry, who, we are asked to believe, has arrived at sixty, and Mr. George Bernard Shaw, who can claim no more than fifty-one years.

As regards food, perhaps the most remarkable fact is that, while many of those whose answers are given have reduced their consumption of meat with advancing years, there is only one professed vegetarian among them, Mr. Shaw, who says: “I have not eaten meat for twenty-seven years. The results are before the public.” He finds “modern customs in eating among the unwholesomely rich people horribly monotonous.” He considers “that at present dinner and lunch are really two dinners, and that breakfast is rapidly becoming a third. The extraordinary popularity of afternoon tea is really due to the craving for a meal that is not a dinner.”

Sir Alfred Russel Wallace says that for seventy years he ate anything and everything he liked; and Mr. W. M. Rossetti, who is seventy-nine, still eats whatever he is inclined to, being “rather fond of cakes and sweets.” Mr. Frederic Harrison's rule with regard to food is to “rise from every meal

with some appetite unsatisfied." Miss Terry has often tried to forego animal food, and with the result that her voice became very weak.

In the matter of beverages, the proportion of total abstainers from alcohol to non-abstainers is five to nine. The former group includes Sir A. R. Wallace, who discontinued intoxicants twenty-five years ago; Sir William Huggins, the astronomer; Sir John Gorst, Dr. John Clifford, and Principal Fairbairn. Sir F. C. Burnand, late editor of *Punch*, advises one to drink what one finds the most suitable, "varying the proceedings with an occasional pint of the very best wine, the price of which must be no object." Also he objects to "fizzle-waters."

The smokers in this symposium number only five,—Mr. Rossetti, Sir William Crookes, Sir Henry E. Roscoe, Mr. Charles Santley, and Sir F. C. Burnand,—as against nine non-smokers. Mr. Rossetti, who, as has already been stated, is almost an octogenarian, smokes the whole day, with casual intervals, "beginning before breakfast and continuing until I am in bed." Among the non-smokers Mr. Frederic Harrison is very emphatic in his denunciation of the use of

tobacco: he considers smoking "a beastly habit which the future will proscribe as a disgusting nuisance." Mr. Barnard Shaw deems it insulting to be asked if he smokes. It will doubtless be interesting to our lady readers to learn that Miss Ellen Terry does not smoke, and equally so that she candidly admits having made the attempt. She says: "I tried,—but didn't like it at all."

As a whole, the replies from the eminent Britons addressed can scarcely be said to have furnished a suggestion for any new rule of living. They advocate that moderation in diet which common prudence would dictate, and record various adaptations of food and drink to those physiological changes in the human system inseparable from advancing years. Exceptions to living by rule are furnished in the case of Sir William Crookes and of Mr. Charles Santley. The former, at seventy-six, writes: "I have always eaten and enjoyed the good things of the table, and have taken wine and smoked as I liked, without noticing any 'dreadful' consequences. I have had excellent health all my life." The well-known baritone, now seventy-five, advises "anything eatable . . . anything drinkable . . . anything smokable."

## ARE GERMANY, CHINA AND THE UNITED STATES "NATURAL ALLIES"?

THE first "Roosevelt Exchange Professor," Dr. John W. Burgess, of Columbia University, in a recent address delivered before the Germanistic Society of New York, and afterward printed in full in the German-American monthly, the *Deutsche Vorkämpfer*, maintains that intimate relations between the United States and Germany are the "key to the international serenity of this country, the advancement of civilization and the peace of the world." The speech has been commented upon widely both in German and in German-American newspapers.

Professor Burgess claims that, in ethical, moral, and intellectual qualities the Germans stand nearer to the genuine American than do the people of any other European nation, even of the English nation. The Englishman, he says, is a German with a Norman-French veneering, and the conditions and experiences of American life tend to "remove this veneering and bring the German element in the German character again to the front."

Moreover, we are told, there are to-day as many citizens of the United States who are of German descent as of English descent, and the actually German-born citizens far outnumber the English-born. The political structure and relations of Germany with the United States are likewise ever converging and pointing to an even closer political harmony. The federal governments of both countries are, Professor Burgess insists, identical in essential principle. The professor then proceeds to examine the present political condition of the world, and comes to the conclusion that the welfare of the world requires that the three great Teutonic nations of the world, Germany, England, and the United States, shall move in perfect harmony. Unfortunately, the interests of the English Empire are at variance with those of the other two. Thus, Professor Burgess asserts, it would not be to the advantage of the United States, China, Germany, or the world in general if the awakening of Central Asia should come under the influence of Eng-

land's ally, Japan. Our possessions overseas, the Philippines, and, on this continent, Canada, may prove the apple of discord. Professor Burgess says on this point:

We know that England is allied with Japan. Exactly how far England is bound to support the policies of Japan or would do so, is not, and can hardly be, at present, fully known. But in casting the horoscope of the future we must always take into account such possibilities as are already in sight, and we know, well enough, that there are already above the horizon line points of possible dispute with Japan in which she may be sustained by her English ally.

It is conceivable that England, from her great vantage ground in India, and to free herself from the encroachments of Russia, may agree to divide Asia with Japan. England may, at almost any time, have a government which may entertain this gigantic plan, and that Japan would welcome it also, it seems to me, is something more than possible, to say the least. Such a solution of the Asiatic question as this would, however, as it seems to me, be hostile to the interests of the United States, and to those of Asia herself, and to those of the world at large. Against the possibility of this, it is our duty to guard ourselves and to warn the world.

Moreover, we must not shut our eyes to the fact that another now rapidly developing nation divides with us the North American continent, and has already become so strong and solid and self-conscious that it can no longer be ignored. It is true that it is also substantially a Teutonic nation and that the ethnical harmonies exist between us and it which should make for peace and friendship.

It has now become practically a very respectable power with well-organized government and with, in many respects, most admirable institutions. In twenty-five years more it will have twenty-five millions of inhabitants, and will, in many respects, be no mean competitor, in fact is not now, of the United States. And behind this power stands mighty England again with her great fleet on the Atlantic ready and able at any moment to sustain the interests of her offspring. In a word, we, the people of these United States, have got to come out of the old fancy that we are the whole North American continent, except a few Mexicans, Indians, and half breeds in the southwest corner of it, and face the fact that we must come into something more like the condition of Europe than we have before experienced. I trust that we shall always be able to live in peace and friendship with our growing northern competitor.

The relation of the United States to the other great Teutonic powers, regarded from the point of view of the world situation, the professor claims, is quite different. "There does not appear to be any likelihood or even

possibility anywhere of any conflict of interest arising between them in this great work of carrying modern civilization throughout the world." To quote further:

Germany's greatest mission is in rejuvenating continental Europe and protecting Europe against the anarchic tendencies of the Romanic races. This has been the prime mission of the Teutons for the last 1500 years. Ethnically, Germany is not the whole Teutonic world in continental Europe, but it is the greatest political representative of the continental Teutons, and it is the great impelling force in the spread of Germanism into the south and southeast of Europe. Silently, but irresistibly, this great ethnic force penetrates in all directions and as silently and irresistibly transforms the lands and people which it touches into its own likeness. It is the great everflowing reservoir of ethnical power sending its fructifying streams in all directions, especially toward the east and south, and, as the old races decay and die out, substituting for them populations of Teutonic blood and civilization. In the second place, Germany's colonial interests lie in Africa, where she holds sway over a territory four times the size of her European empire, and which will absorb the attention and the colonial activity of the home government for a century to come. In this mission, again, no points are possible, since the United States assumes to play no rôle in Africa. And when, in the third place, we come to the Asiatic world, we find that the interests of Germany and the United States are in entire harmony,—viz.: to redeem China and Central Asia, neither through the sway of Japan nor England, nor Russia, over them, nor by division of them among the three, but by holding the doors of commerce and intercourse therewith wide open to all nations and giving the natives a fair chance to work out their own civilization under these great transforming influences.

As Professor Burgess sees it, Germany is to-day as necessary to the United States as the United States is to Germany. The day when the American people could snap their fingers at "abroad" and live in proud and self-protected isolation, he points out, has passed away.

We have entered upon the era of world politics in our development, and we must adjust our policy to meet the new situation. To my mind, our course is as plain as a turnpike road, as Mr. Lincoln used to say, and it is made entirely easy for us by the very friendly, we might almost say affectionate, feeling of the Germans for us. . . . The great warm right hand of a powerful and ever increasingly powerful people is extended to us in all sincerity, and, to my mind, we shall greatly mistake our own interests and the interests of the world if we do not grasp it in the same spirit of cordiality in which it is offered. It means no lack of friendship for any other power, great or small, that we do so. On the other hand, it will induce or compel the friendship of all other powers, and thereby maintain the peace of the world, the progress of civilization, and the welfare of mankind.

## EDUCATING OUR BOYS: THE COST.

A THOUSAND dollars a year is the average cost of educating and maintaining a boy at our leading private, non-military boarding-schools and academies. He devotes therein about 150 days a year to original study, and his vacations and holidays are entirely disproportionate to the time spent in actual study. This system of education,—secondary education,—has been much neglected in this country, and this is owing to a misconception of what education is, and how it may be achieved.

Schools are only means, not ends, and education is simply character building. The young man just out of college is truly only beginning his real education unless his early mental attitude and environments have been fortunate. Results too often show that his training was defective, partly due to the system of education and partly to the student himself. Any school can be successful if the boy is willing, and the best equipped is useless without the co-operation of the pupil and parent.

Primary education includes all grades up to the close of the grammar grades, and is supposed to cover eight years. Secondary education,—high schools, academies, etc.,—covers four years, and embraces an elementary study of the classics, modern languages, mathematics, history, literature, science, and philosophy. Higher, or superior, education includes the college or university academic courses, and, nowadays, professional schools.

In sixty years great strides have been made in primary and superior education, but secondary education, the mean between these extremes, has not been given the popular attention it deserves. To get better results from our primary schools it will yet be necessary for the class register to be reduced to twenty or twenty-five children for each teacher, instead of forty, the present average. Individual instruction is impossible now.

Secondary education comes at the crucial time in a boy's life,—a time when pregnant idealism is his chief mental characteristic, and when he needs the most patient, tender, and intelligent care. From sixty selected schools, embracing every phase of private secondary schools for boys, Mr. Joseph M. Rogers, in *Lippincott's Magazine* for March,

furnishes valuable and interesting statistics on the cost of private education and maintenance in secondary schools.

He informs us that the average cost of tuition therein is \$182 a year. The average charge for board, tuition, room rent and ordinary incidentals at boarding-schools is \$608 a year. Music, vocal instruction, dancing, and drawing are extras. Also, athletic fees and church sittings, which with one extra will amount to \$80 a year, on a conservative estimate. Books, stationery, spending money, (50 cents or \$1 a week), athletic uniforms, clothing, and traveling expenses will bring the aggregate cost of a boy's education and maintenance at the average private secondary school to a round thousand dollars, as previously stated.

This must not be taken to mean that the average boy pays this much. The figures given represent the school average. As the cheaper schools are those most largely attended, the average individual cost would be less than \$1000,—probably \$750. Three generations ago it was \$100. Sixty years ago boarding-schools were many where a boy was educated and kept for \$75 a year. Indeed, it used to be said of Connecticut that its principal industries were making Yankee notions and conducting boarding-schools.

The modern boarding-school boy lives in fine buildings and dormitories, equipped with all modern improvements. He has a library, reading-room, gymnasium, swimming tank, athletic field, and bowling alley. He has a large corps of instructors ever ready to instruct him and develop in him character, to fit him for the battle of competitive modern life.

Student work and prizes help a few to lessen the cost. Schools like Phillips Exeter, Peddie, Berea, and Mercersburg, says this writer, are the cheapest, but in these the lowest average cost for those without scholarships is \$400, exclusive of clothes or traveling expenses. Only seventeen of the sixty schools investigated give the first cost without extras at \$500, or less, a year. The cost of secondary education seems to be greater than that of superior education; because, at the university, the boy can earn money in leisure hours, and is also better fitted for roughing it.

## LEADING FINANCIAL ARTICLES.

### BOND OR MORTGAGE?

**M**ANY high-grade railroad bonds may be bought so low at present that their income compares favorably with that from most real-estate mortgages. Now the bond offers two great advantages over the mortgage: the ease with which it may be converted into cash, and its prospect of increasing in value as well as decreasing.

There is no "market" for real-estate mortgages in the sense in which there is a market for railroad bonds in all the larger cities. And the owner of the mortgage has everything to lose and nothing to gain by fluctuations in real-estate values. A mortgage never-brings more than its face value, no matter how high real estate may boom, whereas the holder of a railroad bond, advised by a sensible banker, can often buy the bond when it is cheap and sell it at an advance. On the other hand, a real-estate depression often obliges the mortgage-holder to take over the property himself; and if he wants his money quickly, and attempts a forced sale, the property may bring much less than the amount of his mortgage. "In other words," says George Garr Henry in *System*, "he receives no direct benefit from an increase in the value of the property, but has to stand the larger part of the risk of a decline in its value."

Owing to this characteristic, real-estate mortgages should only be purchased when general conditions in the real-estate market are distinctly favorable. Not only should the purchaser of a mortgage have sufficient margin of security in the particular piece of property upon which he

is loaning money, but he should also be satisfied that general real-estate values are relatively low, that there has been no undue speculation, and that conditions favor an advance rather than a decline in real-estate prices.

Certain classes of mortgages, such as those secured by unimproved real-estate or dwellings, afford no direct security of interest payment other than the threat of foreclosure. Other classes, such as mortgages upon stores, hotels, or office-buildings, are often protected by a large income from the direct operation of the mortgaged premises, thus furnishing a security for the annual interest payment. The margin of protection in these cases varies greatly.

A thoroughly well secured mortgage, of course, offers a higher rate of interest than can be had from almost any other investment equally as safe, but the lack of convertibility into cash should make the prospective small investor think twice. If he does decide upon this form of investment, he might do well to sacrifice part of his income for the sake of receiving a mortgage that is guaranteed.

Guaranteed mortgages are real-estate mortgages guaranteed as to principal and interest by substantial companies having large capital and surplus. In addition to the guaranty the companies usually search and guarantee the title, see to it that the taxes, assessments, and insurance are paid, and perform the other services of a real-estate broker. Their compensation varies somewhat, but probably averages  $\frac{1}{2}$  per cent.—that is, they loan at 5 per cent. and sell guaranteed mortgages to the investor at  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent.

Allowing for some drawbacks, the private investor, unless so situated as to give personal attention to the details of his investments, will probably do well to purchase his mortgages in guaranteed form.

### CAUTIONS FOR BOND BUYERS.

**S**OME bond advice worth having is contributed to the *World To-Day* by N. W. Harris out of his successful experience during more than a generation in the purchase and sale of high-grade bonds. For each of the different classes of bonds known as municipal, railroad and public service, an essential warning is given:

Municipal bonds which are issued to aid railroads and manufacturers, etc., although they

may be legally issued, should be avoided, for the reason that public sentiment sometimes arises against railroads and other corporations to such a degree that attorneys and others who would benefit by litigation use their influence to bring about a default on the part of a municipality and force its bondholders either to accept a compromise or go through a long period of litigation. Municipal bonds purchased for investment should be those issued for strictly municipal purposes.

Railroad bonds are classed by Mr. Harris

among the most desirable forms of investment. He enlarges upon the comprehensive annual reports of the railroads, which give the investor more chance of really understanding what he is about than do the reports of most other companies.

In general, bonds which are a legal investment for the savings banks of Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New York are among the safest investments, as the restrictions covering the investments of such institutions in the States named are the result of many years of experience and of careful legislation for the protection of the large number of small depositors in the industrial centers.

When it comes to public-service bonds, Mr. Harris's point is well taken that they are worth the investor's consideration, "when the physical and financial condition, capitalization, franchise rights, and all legal phases of the security have first passed the scrutiny of a conservative banking-house and its corps of experts."

The question of franchise is very important, and the purchaser should only purchase the bonds of those companies whose franchises extend well beyond the maturity of the bonds.

When the net earnings, after providing for taxes, operating expenses and proper maintenance, are sufficient to equal at least double the interest upon the bonds outstanding upon the property, such a security can generally be considered as a choice and safe investment.

#### IF DEPENDENT UPON INCOME.

There are just two actions for the investor dependent upon income to take if he wants to start right and stay right: (1) realize that nothing can compensate for safety; (2) in the search for safety go to an established investment banker or other responsible authority.

Charles Lee Scovil in *Success* says that "there are instances innumerable to demonstrate that this is the only wise policy for persons dependent upon income to pursue. *The first principle of all sound investment must ever be the quality of the security afforded the capital, the interest; or income yield, being of secondary consideration.*" Mr. Scovil describes further just how the banking-house helps the investor:

Practically all of the railroads and corporations sell their bonds, short-term notes, or other fixed obligations direct to investment bankers, who, in turn, dispose of them to their clients. These firms usually have representation on the boards of directors, and are more or less responsible for the supervision and management of the particular companies whose securities they may handle. However, in the case of the very large corporations, which are known from one end of

the land to the other, and whose securities are actively traded in upon the New York Stock Exchange, such a representation is not always enjoyed. Moreover, even in cases where members of these firms are directors in such corporations, the responsibilities are not usually so great. The reason for this is that the affairs of the big corporations are more or less public property,—or, at least, they most certainly should be,—and their general policies are freely discussed by the various newspapers and other publications throughout the country.

The situation is again different as applied to many of the smaller public-utility and industrial corporations, whose securities are not always listed, or, if listed, are closely held by individual investors, and are rarely traded in upon the New York Stock Exchange. It is most essential that investment bankers recommending such securities to their clients should have intimate knowledge of the affairs of the corporations. Otherwise, they would decline to risk their reputations and standing by recommending their purchase. They would not be in a position to protect the interests of the buyers if the corporations should experience any embarrassments. This is the stand always taken by reputable firms when offering for sale the securities of the special companies in which they may be directly interested. It is generally recognized as being a fact that such investments, when recommended by reputable firms, offer exceptional investment opportunities for persons who must receive the largest possible income compatible with the safety of the principal.

#### DON'T INSURE SMALL INVESTMENTS.

"Why should I buy bonds paying only 4 or 5 per cent., when I can get stocks that pay 5 or 6 per cent.?" To the average investor, the man with only a few thousand dollars, the answer is this: Because you cannot afford to go into *the investment insurance business*.

A fair rate for money on good security is 4 or 5 per cent. Anything that you accept above that is insurance for a certain risk. Now if you invested \$1,000,000 and split it up among 50 or 100 different companies, averaging 6 or 7 per cent., you might win out over a period of years, because the amount of your investment would be so scattered that, as they say of a life-insurance company, "the risk would be distributed."

But the average investor, especially when all the money is put into one security, is foolish to accept an undistributed risk upon his little all. He is hunting trouble for the sake of only \$10 or \$20 a thousand annually.

It is in a financial-panic year, of course, that small investment insurers get hit. The *World's Work* prints an article entitled "Shall One Buy Stocks Because They Are Low?" which comments upon the desirability of bonds over stocks in hard times.



"Although last year saw disaster and panic, there was no default in the interest of bonds issued by important railroads or industrials and properly secured by mortgages."

The mere recital of this fact, emphasized as it has been by the many dividends omitted, by dividends on stocks paid in scrip, by default in many forms, should answer the oft-repeated question: Why should I buy bonds that give me only 5 per cent. when I can get good stocks to yield 7 per cent.?

Yet, during the ten weeks ending December 15, 1907, more than a dozen large mining companies either reduced or omitted dividends. The list includes such companies as the Anaconda

and the Amalgamated Copper. In the purely industrial field five companies of importance either reduced or omitted dividends, or went into bankruptcy. Three large public-utility concerns stopped dividends. The Western Union and the Atlantic Coast Line Railroad declared dividends in scrip. The Chicago Great Western Railroad ceased paying interest on its debenture bonds.

The author admirably sums up this question of investment insurance in the form of high dividends on stocks when he says: "In selecting such investments any man may make a mistake. Danger is part of the price one must pay for larger revenue."

## GOOD CHEER FOR 1908.

FROM an important source comes a prophecy of good cheer to every holder, present or prospective, of American stocks and bonds. No less a financial authority than the *London Statist* predicts for the current year "probably the greatest superabundance of money that has ever been witnessed." The more money, of course, the lower the rates of interest will be, and the lower the rates of interest, the higher will be the price of bonds whose interest is secured, and of stocks whose dividends seem safe.

Only after an elaborate calculation and survey of the entire world does the *Statist* reach this conclusion. It realizes the vast production of gold during the last few years, the unprecedented amount circulating throughout the world, now added to by the mines at the rate of \$750,000,000 a week, and the lessened amount which will be absorbed by the useful arts this year, as in other years of trade reaction.

So far as the United States and Germany are concerned, the recent activity in building must be followed by a period of great slackness, and this slackness will tend greatly to reduce the demand for capital and for money. Therefore, we do not anticipate that the new issues of capital which will be made in the current year will prevent a great accumulation of cash in the hands of bankers or will prevent probably the greatest superabundance of money that has ever been witnessed.

### WAITING FOR PROSPERITY.

If history may be trusted to repeat itself, it is possible to outline how soon trade, money, and security prices will recover from our late panic. In *Pearson's Magazine* some tables are drawn up by J. H. Gannon, Jr., which point to about two years as the duration of the trade depression; to a period of

low-interest rates for money (thus agreeing with the calculation of the *London Economist*), and to not more than a year before the permanent upturn of the price of stocks and bonds.

First, the effects of financial troubles upon trade as represented by railroad earnings, steel, copper, and the statistics of commercial failures, are most acute in the year following the actual outbreak of the disturbances, while recoveries generally come at the end of the second year and are very rapid.

Second, the banking world is well over the troubles before they have had their full effects upon the commercial world, and the second year is marked among the banks by a piling up of cash, which leads to easy money rates.

Third, the permanent recoveries in prices of securities usually begin about a year after the first indication of disturbance, although in the meantime there are usually more or less temporary upturns in stocks and bonds.

### MR. MUNSEY'S OPTIMISM.

One man who certainly believes in a bright future for American business, and for investment securities, is Mr. Frank Munsey. The last talk in his magazine rings with a belief that "the price of securities will show a marked advance with the easing off in the rate of interest on money, and with the general improvement in business which cannot be delayed very long."

I am advising *investments*,—stock or bonds taken out and paid for, not speculation. Avoid speculation as you would avoid death. Where one man wins at this game of chance, thousands lose. We hear of the winners,—their winnings are published to the whole world with great *reclame*, while the myriad of losers fall unnoted by the wayside, some perishing, others impoverished and embittered for life. But investing in good securities,—*buying outright*,—is as legitimate as any other form of employing your money.

Mr. Munsey names the railroad and industrial stocks that seem attractive to him as investments, and follows with this list of bonds:

## BONDS.

	Rate of interest.	Yield to purchaser.
Atchafson (convertible).....	4	4.6
Atlantic Coast Line.....	4	4.7
Brooklyn Rap. Transit (convertible).....	4	5.8
Chicago, Bur. & Quincy (joint).....	4	4.3
Delaware & Hudson (convertible).....	4	4.3
Erie (convertible).....	4	7.2
Lake Shore.....	4	4.5
Louisville & Nashville.....	4	4.2
Norfolk & Western.....	4	4.3
Northern Pacific.....	4	4
Pennsylvania (convertible).....	4	4.4
Reading (general).....	4	4.2
Southern Railway.....	5	5.3
Union Pacific (convertible).....	4	4.7
United States Steel (sinking fund).....	5	5.9
Wisconsin Central.....	4	5

## NO INTEREST IN STOCK PRICES.

The different degrees of "industrial stress" are what the London *Economist* is watching in America just now. This magazine, as one of the first financial authorities of the world, should comfort security-holders by its disregard of the sadness on the New York stock market. The *Economist* declares that the fluctuations of stock-exchange prices just at present mean little or nothing to productive industry. Since current "purchases" and "sales" may be regarded as highly professional, caused largely by the swapping of stocks back and forth between the brokers themselves, therefore "London still looks on disinterested."

## FINANCIAL WARNINGS.

QUITE revolutionary is W. H. Allen's idea of what caused the panic. After some careful international bookkeeping in the *Sewanee Review*, he reaches the conclusion that America is *in debt*. This is surprising. Financial authorities have been declaring for years that our excess of exports over imports makes us a "creditor nation"; that Europe owes us money; that any little panics that may arise are purely the result of internal adjustments; that if international books were settled up America would be far ahead.

Mr. Allen, however, supports with elaborate figures his contradiction of such authorities as Frank A. Vanderlip, Alexander D. Noyes, the *Wall Street Journal*, the *Bankers Magazine*, the *New York Times*, Secretary Gage, George E. Roberts, and a host of financiers. The reason for this gigantic misconception, as Mr. Allen views it, is the failure of statisticians to emphasize several big debit items against the United States. Mr. Allen gives his estimate of these items for the year 1905:

Interest, dividends, and profits on foreign capital.....	\$300,000,000.00
Immigrants' hoards.....	200,000,000.00
Expenses of Americans abroad....	125,000,000.00
Cost of ocean freight, etc.....	125,000,000.00

Total.....\$750,000,000.00

These figures granted, the United States not only had no surplus in 1905, but had run behind some \$350,000,000.

Concerning American securities, Mr. Allen offers a great deal of history of the large blocks sent abroad to prevent Europeans from calling on America for gold.

Some idea of the extent of this burden may be gathered from the fact that in the five years prior to December, 1905, the two leading representatives of foreign capital, J. P. Morgan & Co. and Kuhn, Loeb & Co., floated \$2,700,000,000 worth of railroad securities, and the reports show that the bulk of them were taken for foreign account. Other large amounts were floated abroad by Speyer & Co. and other foreign banking-houses.

The clearest proof that we have thus been piling up an enormous debt abroad is furnished by certain facts that came out in 1906, concerning which there is no dispute. According to an investigation made by the London *Economist* and the London *Statist*, our borrowings from London and Paris alone in the six months prior to June, 1906, reached the enormous total of \$450,000,000. We also borrowed large sums from Holland and Germany. During this period foreign bankers took over \$500,000,000 worth of securities, including two issues of Pennsylvania bonds, \$100,000,000 (sold in Paris), \$50,000,000 telephone bonds, \$35,000,000 Lake Shore bonds, and a big block of New York City bonds. How many of these issues went as collateral for the loans, I am unable to say.

The assertion that we have bought back a great number of these securities is combated by Mr. Allen. He quotes a letter from Mr. Vanderlip, in which the writer confesses his inability to give definite authority to his statement that "the United States had bought back from Europe about \$1,200,000,000 of our securities." Mr. Allen's strongest argument, perhaps, is his quotation of a statement from the French Finance Minister, Caillaux:

"At this writing violent recriminations are being indulged in against the Bank of France for what is called its 'refusal to advance gold to a group of American financiers.'" This has

led to a published statement by Minister Cailiaux through his *chef de cabinet*: "First, the American Government cables the French Government to inquire if the loan can be obtained; second, the French Government, after consulting with the bank governors, cables back: 'Yes, if the American Treasury guarantees repayment.' President Roosevelt now replies that this is impossible, that the bank must accept the bankers as sole guaranty,—which was impossible by the bank's own charter."

This refusal of French bankers to lend money without a guaranty by our Government, along with the refusal of London bankers to help us out, not only precipitated the October panic, but it also disclosed, in a very striking manner, the main cause of that trouble.

Here we have a flat contradiction, by the very highest authorities, of all this talk about foreign liquidation of American railroad securities.

Investors will wait with interest for replies to these figures, which, if they are unqualified, certainly "should warn the American people that their country is rapidly drifting toward financial slavery."

#### OBJECTIONS TO THE ALDRICH BILL.

In the opinion of Prof. J. Laurence Laughlin the Aldrich bill to amend our currency system is the latest example of the deadening effect of politics and the lack of expert knowledge on banking by Congress.

Its presentation shows on the part of its sponsors a failure to comprehend that the central difficulty in the recent crisis was the inability of the banks to lend money to needy borrowers, resulting in many failures and business cessations. The limitation on the banks in reference to loans was: Their limited capital, and the ratio of lawful reserves to demand liabilities in the form of deposits. To loan, says he, in the *Journal of Political Economy* for February, is to increase the proportion of deposits to reserve. When a panic comes lawful reserves are drawn down and the banks cannot lend to borrowers in need. "How, then, can it help the banks in such a crisis to be permitted to issue their own notes?"

"The plan seems to be based on the stupidity of supposing that a borrower in need cannot pay his debts by a certified check, but only by bank-notes. If a bank never issued a note under the Aldrich bill, it could help business men to at least five times as much in loans by keeping its reserves, lending, creating the usual deposit account, and giving the borrower the right to draw on demand on that account. To issue more bank-notes would

not increase its reserves; and a bank's ability to lend is in no way touched by the right to increase,—not its reserves,—but its liabilities. 'The Aldrich bill is another of the curiosities of our currency legislation.'"

By its own provisions the Aldrich bill is practically unavailable, and, in a crisis, would necessitate a resort to clearing-house certificates. To vest in three officials in Washington discretionary power to permit a Chicago bank to make a loan and issue its own notes,—without knowledge of the collateral or the borrowers' standing,—"implies a quality of naïveté in Congress which would grace a child of six, but disgrace a man of sixty."

In wiping out the restriction on the retirement of bank-notes (\$9,000,000 per month) it is a step ahead, because it provides elasticity through contraction when notes are not longer needed; but that which comes through expansion is wholly absent. In putting out bank-notes to meet a run for cash the bill is to be commended; but basing such currency on securities removes this advantage, because the run would be over, and the bank closed, before these emergency notes could be obtained.

#### WHAT THE RAILROAD STOCKHOLDER HAS BEEN GETTING.

Some of those who believe that railroad stockholders have grown rich through "charging all the traffic will bear" will be startled by the figures in the case. One part of the attack made by State laws and politicians on present railroad rates lies in the assertion that the stockholders have received unreasonable profits. The actual facts as quoted by Samuel O. Dunn in *Moody's Magazine* show that the railroad stockholder has had a hard time of it. In 1895 the chances were two out of three that he would receive no dividend on his stock at all. This percentage became nearly reversed by 1906, but there was still 38 per cent. of railroad stock paying no dividends at all. When it comes to the rate of dividend received on the investment, the railroad stockholder is not at all to be envied. Even during the twelve thriving years, from 1895 to 1906, inclusive, the average per cent. of dividend on railroad stock capitalization, starting at the low figure of 1.58 per cent., rose only to 3.63 per cent. The true percentage, of course, is higher than this, because much of the stock was bought by present holders at less than its par value.

## THE NEW BOOKS.

### NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

#### BIOGRAPHY AND MEMOIRS.

An extremely attractive biography of Thomas Alva Edison,—“Sixty Years of an Inventor’s Life,”—has been written by Francis Arthur Jones (Crowell). With the exception of President Roosevelt, probably no living American is better known the world around than is our famous inventor. His life of threescore years has been made up of a series of romances, each vying with the others in popular interest. No American personality is more attractive to the mass of living Americans, east and west. Mr. Jones has made the most of his materials, and the result is a volume of captivating and unusual interest. Among the illustrations appears a photographic reproduction of the famous railway newspaper, the *Grand Trunk Weekly Herald*, printed and circulated by Mr. Edison on Grand Trunk trains when he was a fourteen-year-old newsboy. Of course the more important of the Edison inventions and applications, especially in the field of electricity, are fully described, though for the most part in non-technical language.

Since the publication of “The Life and Letters of Phillips Brooks,” by Prof. A. V. G. Allen, in 1900, an abridgment of that three-volume work has frequently been called for on the ground that many people who would like to know Phillips Brooks have not the time to read



DR. WILLIAM E. DODD.



THOMAS A. EDISON.

so full a biography. To meet this demand Professor Allen has prepared a condensed one-volume sketch of “Phillips Brooks, 1835-1893, Memories of His Life with Extracts from His Letters and Note-Books” (New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.). The process of condensation, it is only fair to say, has not in any way detracted from the clearness of the picture which Professor Allen draws of the man and his ministry. This, like the more elaborate biography published eight years ago, is an inspiring and compelling human portrait.

The latest accession to the series of “American Crisis Biographies” (Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.) is a sketch of Jefferson Davis, by Dr. William E. Dodd, of Randolph Macon College, Virginia. The author declares that it is not the purpose of this short biography to justify or even defend the course of the great Confederate leader, but simply to relate the story of his remarkably tragic life and in so far as the limitations of time and space permit to correlate his career to the main current of American history. He evidently anticipates criticism from both the ardent admirers of the Confederate President and from extreme advocates of nationalism in the North. To the former he pleads that he has kept as close to the “sources” as possible, while to the latter he frankly expresses his doubt “whether there was a real and vital nation within the limits of our Republic before the issues for which Davis gave his life were settled.” There seems good reason to believe that the interest in the life of Davis is steadily



growing, both North and South. If this be true, it seems to us peculiarly fitting that so wise and sane a writer as Professor Dodd has been intrusted with the preparation of what is likely to become the most widely circulated and popular of the "lives" of the Confederate hero.

The address delivered by Judge Theodore S. Garnett at the unveiling of the equestrian statue of Gen. J. E. B. Stuart at Richmond on May 30, 1907, appears in book form (New York: The Neale Publishing Company). Although the official records and reports of campaigns of the Army of Northern Virginia mention the name of General Stuart as prominent in every great battle and in the numberless engagements between the opposing cavalry corps, no adequate life of General Stuart has yet been produced. The address by Judge Garnett furnishes a good outline of Stuart's career and is at the same time a tribute to the great commander of Lee's cavalry. It is hoped by the publishers that this address may form the basis and prove the inspiration for a more elaborate work to be undertaken by the author.

Although the Provençal poet Frédéric Mistral has been known to the world of literature for two decades, it was not until (in the summer of 1907) the Nobel Prize for Literature was bestowed upon the French poet that the great reading public of the world gained any adequate knowledge of his contributions to the literature of his country and humanity in general. Mistral's "Memoirs," which were published last year in Paris, have been brought out in English translation by the Baker & Taylor Company. The volumes contain not only the memoirs but some Provençal lyrics, translated from the original by Alma Strettell. The rendering of the general text into English is by Constance Elisabeth Maud. It is interesting to note in passing that the proceeds from the Nobel Prize have been devoted by the poet to the purchase of an ancient palace in Arles to be devoted to a museum for the literary, artistic, and social relics of Provence.

In the form of a biographical study of "Saint Catherine of Siena" (London, Dent; New York, Dutton), Mr. Edmund G. Gardner has given us a monograph on the religion, literature, and general history of the fourteenth century in Italy. The volume is illustrated. It is really a history of Italian life and thought grouped about the work and personality of one of the most wonderful women that ever lived,—the successor of Dante in the literature and religious thought of Italy, and the connecting link between St. Francis of Assisi and Savonarola.

Miss Annie Russell Marble's studies of patriot writers of the Revolutionary periods have been published in book form by the University of Chicago Press, under the title "Heralds of American Literature."

#### CONTRIBUTIONS TO HISTORY.

Almost all the great mass of description and comment on Russian affairs during the crisis which has marked the past two years of Muscovite history has been written by foreign observers, who gave us with as much truth as they could the facts in the case. The real truth, however, had never been told about the Czarism by one of the innermost circle until Prince Urussov



PRINCE URUSSOV.

wrote his memoirs. These records and impressions, which are bound to take their place among the permanent documents of Russian history, have now been translated from the Russian and edited by Herman Rosenthal. They come from the press of Harpers, under the title "Memoirs of a Russian Governor." Prince Serge Dmitriyevich Urussov, prince of an ancient family, a member of the first Duma, and a patriot of such courage and ability that he is by many looked upon as the Moses to lead the Russian people out of their wilderness, was governor of the province of Bessarabia shortly after the terrible massacre of Kishinev (in 1903). In these memoirs, which have been carefully and helpfully edited by Mr. Rosenthal, the Aristocrat, Liberal, and Constitutional Democrat lays bare the truth about the intricate machinery of the Russian autocracy, the schemes of the police department, and the intrigues and corruption that underlie the entire fabric of the Russian Government. Prince Urussov was a member of Count Witte's cabinet formed after the issue of the manifesto of October, 1905, but withdrew because he could not work with the hated Durnovo. He was elected to the first Duma, and his maiden speech before that body is regarded as one of the most notable in the history of the Russian fight for constitutionalism. A portrait of Prince Urussov is the frontispiece to this volume.

Most of us have derived our ideas of the so-called "Border Ruffians" of Kansas "squatter-sovereignty" days from the narratives of anti-slavery leaders and participants in the struggles of those times. It is a novel experience, certainly, to read the frank statements made by R. H. Williams, who was a lieutenant in the Kansas Rangers, in the volume entitled "With the Border Ruffians: Memoirs of the Far West, 1852-1868" (New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.). Mr. Williams was a restless young Eng-

lishman who early journeyed to "the States" in quest of fortune or adventure of any sort. Within a comparatively few years he had joined in the westward migration of the '50's, identified himself with the pro-slavery cause in the famous Free-State struggle of Kansas, became a member of the Knights of the Golden Circle in Texas, joined the Texas Rangers, and taken part in the war of secession. He had also had his share of Indian fighting, and we can imagine that the story he had to tell on his return to the old home in England must have amazed and horrified the friends of his youth. As recorded in the present volume the story is well told and has its place as a contribution to the stirring history of that period.

For most Americans the episode known in history as Bacon's Rebellion is little more than a name. Until very recent times little has been known of either the causes or the results of this uprising. Perhaps the first connected account that embodies the recently discovered facts of this picturesque chapter in Virginia history is contained in the little book entitled "The Story of Bacon's Rebellion," by Mary Newton Stanard (New York: The Neale Publishing Company). The rebellion itself is represented by Mrs. Stanard as the most determined and long-lived struggle for popular rights in colonial America. The two leading characters in the drama were Sir William Berkeley, the Governor of Virginia, and Mr. Nathaniel Bacon, Jr., who, although the champion of popular rights, was himself a gentleman born and a university graduate.

"Mattapoisett and Old Rochester, Massachusetts" (New York: The Grafton Press) is an admirable example of local history intelligently compiled by the co-operative method and written with a view to a larger than purely local interest. A committee of five persons, representing the town of Mattapoisett, prepared this record, which is copiously illustrated with pertinent and interesting photographic views.

"In Olde New York" (New York: The Grafton Press) is a volume made up of sketches of old times and places in both the State and city, by Charles Burr Todd. Many of these sketches were written twenty years or more ago and describe types and conditions, especially in the city itself, that no longer exist. It is well that this valuable and curious information, at first prepared for more ephemeral publication, has been preserved and collected in this tasteful volume.

An essay on "The Political Opinions of Thomas Jefferson," by Dr. John Walter Wayland, of the University of Virginia, is published by the Neale Publishing Company, of New York and Washington. Prof. Richard H. Dabney, in an introduction to the book, commends it as giving the "quintessence of Jefferson's political views, in clear and readable style, yet sufficiently brief to find readers among the busy, rushing people of to-day." Dr. Wayland has certainly made an interesting and useful classification of Jefferson's political doctrines, and while he does not regard him as infallible he reverences him for the ideals which he held before his generation, even though he did not at all times live up to those ideals. The discussion falls under five heads: (1) concerning government; (2) concerning the American States; (3) concerning the United States Government; (4) concerning

the United States in relation to foreign powers; and (5) concerning various questions of importance. Under this latter head the author takes up Jefferson's position on African slavery, the American Indians, the liquor traffic, money and banks, and expansion of territory.

A permanent record of what is already regarded as an historic episode in the West is contained in "The California Earthquake of 1906," a volume edited by Dr. David Starr Jordan and published by A. M. Robertson at San Francisco. Besides President Jordan, the contributors to this work are: Prof. John C. Branner, of Stanford University; Prof. Charles Derleth, Jr., of the University of California; Mr. Grove Karl Gilbert, of the United States Geological Survey; Mr. Stephen Taber, of Stanford; Dr. F. Omori, of the Japanese Imperial Earthquake Commission; Mr. Harold W. Fairbanks; and Mary Austin, author of "The Land of Little Rain," who gave a personal narrative of earthquake experiences in San Francisco. These essays and descriptive papers give perhaps as well as writings can give a clear, comprehensive, and accurate view of the great earthquake and its associated phenomena. Several of the writers are men of science who had a peculiar professional interest in the earthquake, while at the same time they were actual observers of some of the most striking of its phenomena. The book as a mechanical product is a credit to its publisher, who has done much to encourage native Californian literature.

#### POPULAR SCIENCE.

Dr. Elie Metchnikov, sub-director of the Pasteur Institute, Paris, is one of those rare scientists whose privilege it is to present to the world in attractive, untechnical language the results of scientific research. His investigations in the field of biology have made him world famous, and his work "The Nature of Man," published several years ago, was one of the really remarkable books of the decade. He has devoted several years' study to the subject of old age and its amelioration and prolongation. His latest work, "The Prolongation of Life," which is sub-headed "Optimistic Studies," has just been brought out in English (translated and edited by Mr. P. Chalmers Mitchell, Oxford) by Putnams. His aim, he says, is to "suggest means of prolonging life and health while contemplating natural death with serenity." Some of the essays in this volume concern themselves also with psychological matters, with questions of science and morals, and with optimism and pessimism. In general, he says, despite the pessimists, it would be a useful thing to prolong human life.

Dr. David Starr Jordan, president of Leland Stanford, Jr., University, has made a new departure in his monumental book on "Fishes" in the "American Nature Series," which is being issued in sumptuous mechanical form by Henry Holt & Co. Technical language is avoided, and the description begins naturally with a simple definition of a fish ("a backbone animal which lives in the water and cannot ever live very long anywhere else"), proceeding then to develop the entire vast subject by inviting the reader to go out to a small swimming-hole and catch a sun-fish. The volume is illustrated with eighteen

colored full-page plates and 673 other illustrations. Dr. Jordan has aimed to make this volume interesting to nature-lovers and anglers, he says, and instructive to all. He has purposely omitted the technical material relating to the structure and classification of fishes. The fish as a food and as a subject of sport is treated, and proper attention is paid to all existing as well as all extinct families of fishes.

#### ECONOMICS AND POLITICS.

Prof. John B. Clark is our greatest and most brilliant economic scholar. His latest book, "Essentials of Economic Theory as Applied to Modern Problems of Industry and Public Policy" (Macmillan), follows logically his previous works dealing with the distribution of wealth, and the phenomena of economic statics and the laws which govern them. He has from the very beginning noted the tendency toward the massing of capital and its use in monopolistic directions, and has been our keenest mind in the application of the principles of economic science to the profound changes occurring about us in the business world. The present work is an attempt to state a few of the laws of economic dynamics. Professor Clark groups the more general economic changes which affect the social structure in the following order: (1) increase of population, involving increase in the supply of labor; (2) increase in the stock of productive wealth; (3) improvements in method; (4) improvements in organization; (5) changes in consumers' wants. Professor Clark has omitted a large part of what elementary text-books in economics usually contain, presenting much that they do not contain and which may properly be used to supplement them.

Among recently published economic treatises two may be said to have especial timeliness,— "The Growth of Large Fortunes," by G. P. Watkins, published for the American Economic Association by the Macmillan Company, and "The Distribution of Ownership," by Joseph Harding Underwood, one of the Columbia University series of studies in history, economics, and public law, also published by the Macmillans. Both of these studies involve, of course, a somewhat full discussion of various phases of corporate ownership. Dr. Underwood in his monograph reviews not only the liberty of corporate ownership but the abuse of the power in the various forms of regulation, together with the various ameliorations of inequitable distribution.

A compilation has been made of the records in the recent Colorado Springs lighting controversy by Henry Floyd, consulting engineer (New York: Illuminating Engineering Publishing Company). In this controversy the two parties were the city of Colorado Springs and the Pike's Peak Hydro-Electric Company, of the same city. It decided for the first time in a judicial way three questions of importance to those engaged in the business of electric lighting: (1) the meaning of the phrase "an arc light of standard 2000 candle-power"; (2) the monetary damage accruing by the substitution of a 6.6 ampere series alternating-current arc lamp for "an arc light of standard 2000 candle-power," and (3) the financial damage resulting from the failure to maintain the substituted



PROFESSOR DAVID STARR JORDAN.

lamps at their normal operating conditions. The opinions of many of the leading experts of the country on questions of lighting, arc lamps, and illumination were put on record under oath. This fact, taken together with the importance of the questions settled, has led to the publication of the full history of the case in book form.

Prof. John A. Fairlie's "Essays on Municipal Administration" (Macmillan) is a series of papers and articles dealing (1) with problems of organization and the legal relation of cities to the State; (2) with municipal functions and activities, and (3) with municipal government in Europe as observed by the author during a visit in the year 1906. The final essay treats of instruction in municipal government.

A series of four lectures on municipal ownership delivered at Harvard University last year by Leonard Darwin is published in New York by E. P. Dutton & Co. These lectures afford the American reader an excellent opportunity to obtain the current views held in England on the relation of taxation, wages, direct employment, and so forth, to the question of public ownership.

#### A PSYCHOLOGICAL STUDY.

"A Mind That Found Itself: An Autobiography," is the title of a work that immediately challenges the attention (Longmans, Green & Co.). The author, Mr. Clifford W. Beers, a graduate of Yale, had the misfortune to become insane a few years ago and to be committed, first to a private sanitarium, and later to a State hospital for the insane. This book is an account of his experiences, written several years after recovery, and as regards its credibility it is supported by no less an authority than Prof. William James, the psychologist, who declares that as for contents it is fit to remain in literature as a classic account from within of an insane person's psychology. In



presenting the book the author had in mind the advocacy of the method of non-restraint, so called, in dealing with the insane, the founding and endowment of a society for public education on the subject, and the inducement of the wealthy to subscribe funds for the erection and endowment of model institutions wherein mental and nervous diseases in their incipient and curable stages may be treated. The author's narrative in itself is unique in literature. In the words of Professor James, "in style, in temper, in good taste, it is irreproachable. Although it discloses abuses in the management of institutions for the insane, the remedies that it proposes are carefully conceived, and have met with the approbation of many intelligent experts."

#### SANITATION AND HEALTH.

A much-needed work on "The Production and Handling of Clean Milk" comes from the press of the William R. Jenkins Company (New York). The author, Dr. Kenelm Winslow, is not only a practicing physician, a graduate of a medical, a veterinary, and an agricultural school, but has also had practical experience with animals and with the production and distribution of certified milk, and his service as an official in charge of a laboratory having the supervision of the milk supply of a large city has given him unusual facilities for studying all sides of his subject. Just at this time, while health authorities the world over are making and enforcing more rigid requirements for market milk, it is important that all should keep in touch with the progress of these new scientific methods. With this in view Dr. Winslow has written an eminently practical treatise which may well serve as a guide to the production and distribution of clean milk for farmers, health officers, milk inspectors, and all others interested in matters pertaining to dairying and hygiene. Many of our readers are already familiar with Dr. Winslow's method of dealing with hygienic topics through the numerous chapters which he contributed to "The Home Medical Library" published by the REVIEW OF REVIEWS Company.

Five recently issued works on health in its more general and higher aspects are: the two-volume "History of Nursing" (Putnams), by M. Adelaide Nutting and Lavinia L. Dock, illustrated; "Maternity" (Neale Publishing Company), by Dr. Henry D. Fry; "House Health" (Duffield), by Dr. Norman Bridge; "Woman and the Race" (The Ariel Press, Westwood, Mass.), by Gordon Hart; and "Hospital Training School Methods and the Head Nurse" (W. B. Saunders Company), by Charlotte A. Aikens.

Mr. William Paul Gerhard, C.E., has written a useful little work on "The Sanitation of Public Buildings" (New York: John Wiley & Sons). In this work especial attention is given to the sanitary construction and arrangement of hospitals, churches and theaters, school buildings, and, finally, markets and abattoirs. It is believed that this is the first American book to treat these subjects in a practical way. The author promises a separate discussion of public bathhouses in a later volume. The sanitation of dwelling-houses, apartments, and tenement-houses has already been treated by him in a

work entitled "Sanitary Engineering of Buildings."

#### OTHER BOOKS OF THE MONTH.

Among notable new editions, collections, or translations of classics we have received Edmund Gosse's study of Ibsen ("Henrik Ibsen"—Scribners) in the series of literary lives edited by Dr. W. Robertson Nicoll; the first two volumes of the complete works of Ibsen which are being edited in eleven volumes for the Scribners by William Archer; the two volumes of Björnsterne Björnson's "In God's Way" (Macmillan), translated by Elizabeth Carmichael; several volumes of Scott and Dickens which are being brought out by McClurg & Co. in the Prairie Classics series; and Jane Austen's "Northanger Abbey" (Dutton), illustrated in color by C. E. Brock.

That the college curriculum in the United States is a growth and not an accident is the theme of a scholarly monograph ("The College Curriculum in the United States") by Dr. Louis Franklin Snow, formerly register of the Teachers' College, Columbia University. This historical study has been brought out by the Teachers' College at Columbia.

Among the great number of literary travel books of special interest issued during the past few weeks we note: Arthur Symonds' "Cities of Italy" (imported by Dutton); "Through Italy with Car and Camera" (Putnams), by Dan Fellows Platt, a finely printed volume, illustrated with reproductions of classic paintings and photographs by the author; "Stained Glass Tours in France" (John Lane), by Charles Hitchcock Sherrill, illustrated; and Vernon Lee's "Sentimental Traveler" (John Lane).

Two new books worth while reading on Oriental topics,—dealing particularly with the near East,—are Gertrude Bell's "Syria, the Desert and the Sown" (Dutton), and Dr. Samuel M. Zwemer's "Islam, a Challenge to Faith." Miss Bell's work is not a book of travel, but an account of the people who live in the valley of the Tigris and Euphrates, written from the standpoint, as far as possible, of the Syrians themselves. The volume is copiously illustrated. Dr. Zwemer's work is an informing study of the Mohammedan religion and "the needs and opportunities of the Mohammedan world from the standpoint of Christian missions." Dr. Zwemer is secretary of the Student Volunteer movement and a missionary in Arabia. The Foreign Missionary Board publishes the book, which is helpfully provided with diagrams, charts, and maps.

George W. Jacobs & Co. have imported a volume of English origin which will prove of considerable interest to readers who like social gossip about royalty and aristocracy. It is entitled "Society in the Country House," and is by T. H. S. Escott, author of "King Edward and His Court."

The English "Who's Who" for 1908, revised and considerably enlarged, containing in all 2040 pages of text, comes from the Macmillan Company. This is the sixtieth year of issue of this indispensable adjunct to every complete library and editorial office.

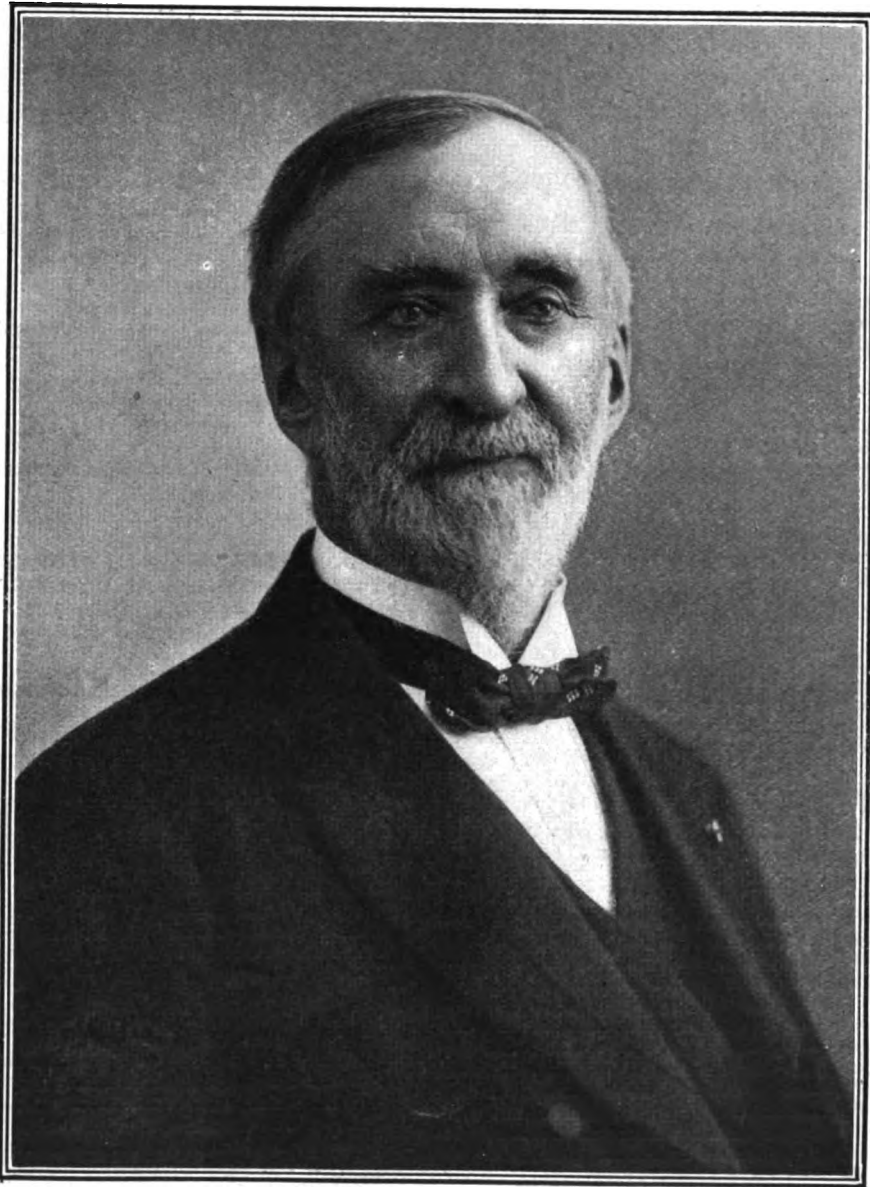
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EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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### SENATOR REDFIELD PROCTOR, A GREAT VERMONT.

(Senator Proctor was completing his third consecutive term as representative of Vermont in the national Senate when his death occurred on March 4, in his seventy-seventh year. Senator Proctor had a distinguished record at the bar, as a soldier, in commercial life, and in the service of his State and the nation at large. He held the rank of Colonel of the Fifteenth Vermont Volunteers in 1862. Beginning as a member of the Vermont Legislature in 1867, he had been almost continuously in public service since that date. He was Governor of his native State (1878-1880), Secretary of War in President Harrison's cabinet, and was elected United States Senator in 1891. In March, 1898, he paid an extended visit to Cuba to investigate conditions there. Upon his return his speech in the Senate on the Cuban reconcentrados attracted wide attention and did a great deal toward arousing Congress and the American people.)

# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

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No. 4

## THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*Ebb and Flow  
in Labor  
Markets.*

The internationalism of capital and labor has far outstripped that of politics, diplomacy, and the mailed fist. The world movements at the present time are commercial and industrial, with the labor factor of chief importance. The migration of peoples and races in the nineteenth century, under the motive of economic advantage, was greater than anything that the world had ever known before, but it is already evident that the mobility of labor is to be far greater in this new century than it was in the preceding period. For example, the backward flow of laborers from the United States to Europe, as witnessed during the past few months, affords just as striking an evidence of the remarkable development of the international labor market as is shown by the great tidal wave of labor migration to this country in the prosperous seasons just previous to the business reaction of 1907. So far as European immigrants are concerned, the situation now regulates itself precisely as we have at various times in this magazine pointed out to our readers.

*The  
Eastward  
Movement.*

When the influx becomes very large the advocates of restriction grow deeply in earnest and they bring forth many facts to show that something ought to be done to reduce the swollen volume of immigration. But it invariably happens that, just as their arguments seem to impress the country deeply, the steamship companies,—with their varied sources of information and their careful and constant study of the subject,—begin to find evidence of a turning of the tide. There are always many returning laborers, particularly Italians who go back to Naples or Sicily for the winter months. But it is not usual to find almost five times as many steerage passengers embarking from New York for Europe as

are arriving at Ellis Island. Yet this was the situation in some weeks of December and January. In March about three times as many foreigners were going back as were arriving. The people who return are of course for the most part a class of men who are either unmarried or have not yet brought their families to the United States. They are able to earn perhaps five times as much per day in this country as in Italy or elsewhere in southeastern Europe; and when steady work ceases here they can live much more cheaply and happily on their savings by going back to the provinces of their origin.

*Some  
Remarkable  
Figures.*

We may assume that steerage or third-class passenger travel represents the labor movement to which we have reference in the present discussion, and we may ignore the volume of first and second class travel. With this understanding, our readers will be interested in certain figures which we have obtained from the highest statistical authority in the employ of the steamship companies. Giving round figures for the purposes of easy comparison, 340,000 people went back to Europe from Atlantic ports in the year 1906, while 560,000 went back in the year 1907. An even more significant comparison is to be found by taking the last three months of the two calendar years. In October, November, and December of 1906, 121,000 steerage passengers returned to Europe, while 264,000 returned in the corresponding months of 1907. Still more interesting, perhaps, are the figures for the opening weeks of the present year as compared with those of last year. We have obtained statistics for the ten opening weeks, including January, February, and nearly half of March. During these weeks, to give the exact figures compiled by the steamship companies, the arrivals from Eu-

rope were 44,712, and the departures from America for Europe were 131,740. We are, of course, confining our comparison to third-class passengers. The figures for the opening ten weeks of 1907 were almost exactly reversed,—that is to say, 139,052 arrived from Europe, and 43,642 took the return voyage. The steamship companies thus carried about the same number of passengers, but last year three-fourths of the steerage travel was from Europe to America, while for the corresponding period this year three-fourths of the travel has been from America to Europe. There is to-day no great movement based so precisely upon accurate information as the movement in the labor market. European workmen do not come here unless there is a definite demand for their services, and millions of letters going back and forth stimulate or retard the movement, according to conditions. There is of course a normal return migration that has to do with the seasons of the year and certain kinds of employment. But beyond that normal movement, changes in the ratios are to be regarded as a sort of barometer indicating the condition of industry and trade in the United States.

*Limits  
of  
Control.*

Their long marches and voyages as members of the world's army of workers help to train and educate these people. In due time the energetic ones establish themselves with their families either on this side of the water or in Europe. If they settle down in their old homes

they are the more progressive citizens for what they have learned in America. In the majority of cases, however, they prefer the United States, become useful citizens, send their children to our schools, and become part and parcel of our great English-speaking democratic community. In a general sense, this freedom of labor migration as between Europe and America is not a harmful thing, and ought not to be hampered by harsh or arbitrary restrictions. Its careful and intelligent regulation, on the other hand, is both possible and desirable. There is no reason why, under cloak of the freedom of the labor market, we should allow this country to be a dumping-ground for the dependent or the vicious classes. Since the steamship companies have the largest motive in the promotion of this kind of migration, it is a good plan to throw heavy responsibilities upon them and to compel them to aid our Government in every way by sifting the unfit from the fit in the provinces of their origin or at the ports where they take passage.

*Conditions  
in  
New York.*

Almost all of those who now arrive know exactly where they are going and what they are to do. The immigration movement is far less haphazard or unguided than most people suppose. It subjects us to many critical and difficult problems, particularly in our great cities, but we have been dealing with such questions upon the whole in a satisfactory way. New York is now the largest Italian city in the world excepting possibly Naples. Buenos Aires, where there are a good many influential Italians, is often mentioned in the United States as a great center for people of that race; but as compared with New York there is only a handful of Italians in the Argentine capital. The Italian children in the public schools of New York are a host of bright and patriotic little learners, and the Italian voters of New York are a mighty phalanx. It will be a good while before they rise to the ethical political standards of the Citizens' Union, and Tammany will know how to manage them better than the reformers. But the public schools will make good citizens out of the rising generation, and even Tammany itself responds somewhat to the improving standards



BACK FROM AMERICA.

THE GERMAN MICHAEL: "Welcome! You come at the right moment to help pay the new German taxes."  
From *Ulk* (Berlin).

of civilization and municipal government. The great desire of educational leaders like Dr. Maxwell, who is at the head of the New York school system, is to make education practical and to make the work of the schools contribute directly to the demand for trained workers and good citizens.

*Jews  
in the  
Metropolis.*

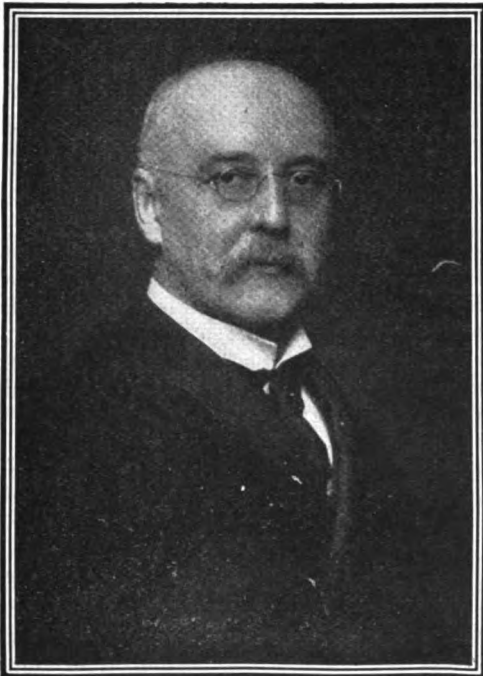
As for the Jewish race, it has found its Zion in America, and New York is its Jerusalem. The prosperity and swift progress of the Jewish immigrants is almost beyond belief. The schools are crowded with Jewish children, who are hopeful, ambitious, and studious to a degree quite unsurpassed. The College of the City of New York, which is at the top of the public-school system of New York City, and which is now flourishing under the brilliant and indefatigable headship of President John H. Finley, is fast becoming the foremost Jewish institution of learning in the world. It is said that about 80 per cent. of the students in the City College are Jews. They are eager for advancement in the business and professional world, and they are not slow in making their way. Already, even with the Jewish influx so recent in its



Photograph by Pirie MacDonald, N. Y.

DR. JOHN H. FINLEY.

(President of the City College.)



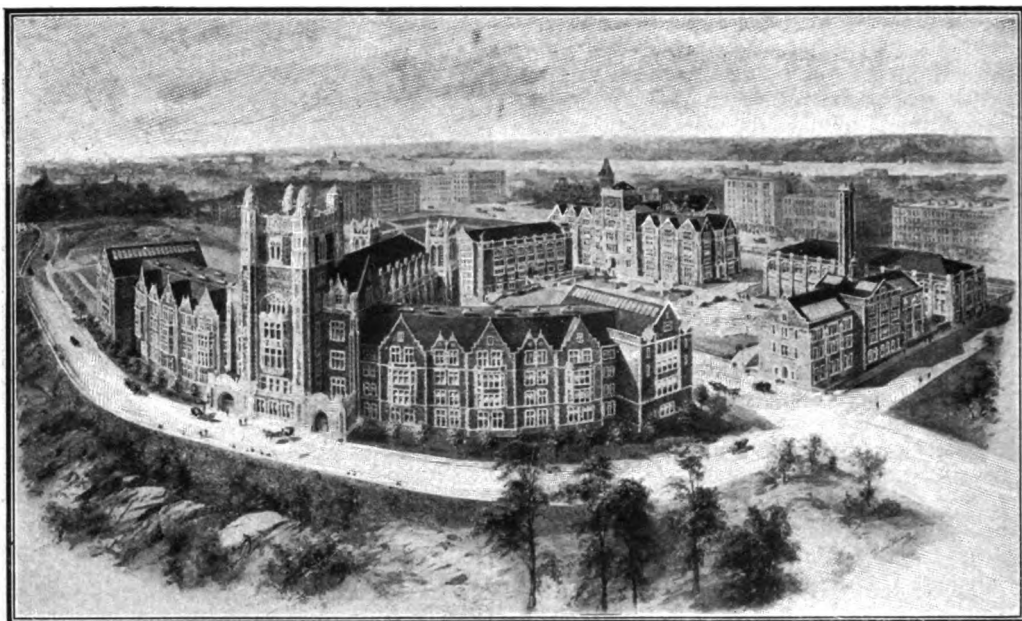
Photograph by Hollinger, N. Y.

DR. WILLIAM H. MAXWELL, THE ABLE SUPERINTENDENT OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM OF NEW YORK CITY.

large proportions, it is stated that of 11,000 lawyers in New York City more than 5000 are of the Hebrew race. The proportion of the doctors of medicine is very large, while in successful mercantile pursuits it is fair to estimate that the men of Jewish birth are even more dominant than in the professions. But for two or three powerful factors, they dominate in the field of finance. They own most of the great department stores. Men of Jewish origin own a majority of the New York newspapers. Their advancement here has been under conditions of free opportunity, and in return they clearly owe a debt of patriotism to the institutions of this country that should be to them fully as sacred as their sense of race feeling.

*Some  
Incidents of  
Change.*

There was a time when every detail of Irish politics was followed so closely in the United States that our leading politicians of both parties felt obliged to give close attention to every phase of the Irish question. But the Irish here have become so fully Americanized that they no longer force British politics into American campaigns. St. Patrick's



THE CITY COLLEGE OF NEW YORK, NOW SIGNIFICANTLY CALLED "THE GREATEST JEWISH UNIVERSITY IN THE WORLD."

Day last month had as little bearing upon politics in its pleasant and kindly observance as a Scotch celebration of St. Andrew's Day. But at that very moment last month the Italians of New York, in so far as they had come from the Island of Sicily, were compelling the whole metropolis to take note of the fact that a Sicilian in the Italian cabinet was under charges and in disfavor. And when their festive days and seasons come about, the Italians of New York celebrate more ardently and elaborately than any other element of the city's great cosmopolitan population. It is very instructive to note the work of the health authorities of New York as they bring scientific administration to bear upon the protection of the city from epidemics and the reduction of the death-rate.

*Health  
and  
Overcrowding.*

It is natural that a vast influx of foreign population should result in the overcrowding of tenement houses. But in spite of the difficulties on Manhattan Island due to restricted territory and other peculiarities of the situation, the change for the better has been amazing during the past fifteen years. When the subject of tenement-house reform was first agitated in New York, when men like Mr. Jacob A. Riis were writing on unsanitary East-Side houses, when the movement for small parks

and public bathhouses began, when Mr. Gilder and his associates made their first report on tenements and overcrowding, and later when Mr. De Forest made his great analysis and study of the situation and secured the present laws and administrative system regulating the subject, there were conditions existing that have now to a great extent been remedied. The slums of New York as they existed twenty years ago are as extinct as the Indian tribe that sold Manhattan Island for the traditional handful of trinkets. Population is still far too dense, but the situation is comparatively manageable. The fundamental remedy lies in the improvement of transit facilities; and therein lies the importance of the great project for an electric railroad under the Hudson River, the completion of which is described by a member of the staff of this magazine in an article beginning on page 425 of the present number.

*Transit  
Progress.*

The municipal subway system now runs trains to Borough Hall, Brooklyn, by way of a tunnel recently opened, and the other tunnels and bridges now under construction or definitely planned will send hundreds of thousands of people into homes in New Jersey, Long Island, and Westchester County. Such improvements do not, of course, send the poorest



class of people to the suburbs, but they relieve the pressure upon housing facilities, and so give the poorer classes who remain in the congested districts a little more elbow room, and make it more feasible for the municipal authorities to enforce proper regulation. Last month the whole subject of congested population was most ably discussed in New York at a series of conferences held in connection with an ingenious exhibition in the Natural History Museum which illustrated by means of models and various devices the whole subject of New York's housing conditions.

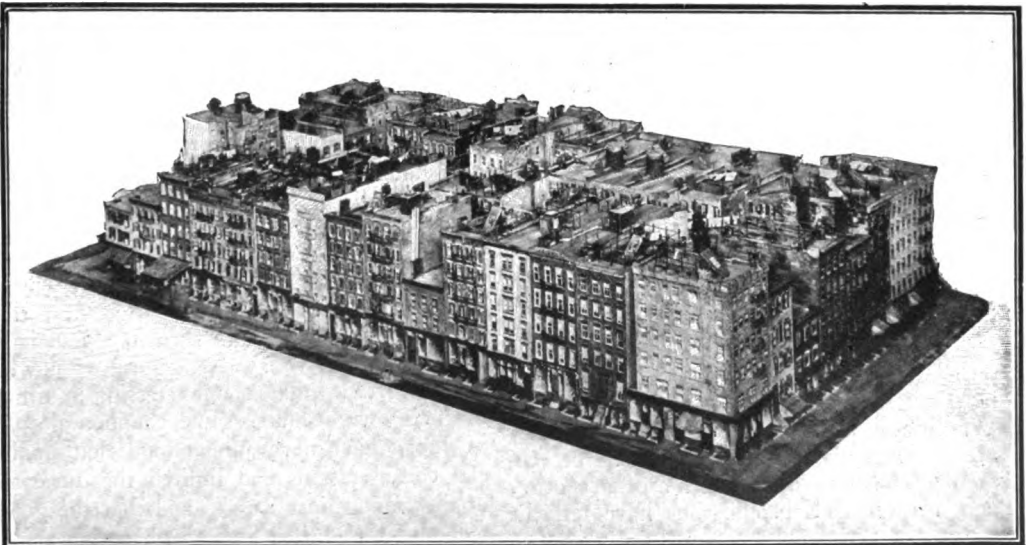
*Political  
Improvement.*

As remarkable as anything is the condition of comparative good order in political life that has come about, not through convulsive reforms, but by a steady movement that all classes of politicians have had to recognize. Election frauds are doubtless to some extent perpetrated even under present conditions, but they are of little magnitude and result when compared with conditions that prevailed twenty or thirty years ago. In those days the whole country was apprehensive, whenever a Presidential year came around, lest the national outcome might be determined by frauds perpetrated in the lower wards of New York City. One of the chief forms of fraudulent activity in Presidential years was

the improper granting of naturalization papers. A chief objection, indeed, to the rapid influx of foreigners was their manipulation for political purposes by unscrupulous party bosses, who had them naturalized in droves and handled them at the polls like cattle, paying so much a head for their votes. It is not feasible at present to apply the test of reading and writing to the incoming laborer. But it is altogether feasible to refuse the political franchise to any foreign-born inhabitant of this country who is not well qualified to cast a ballot. All over the country this year there is a dearth of the old-time rush and scramble for the issuance of final papers to crowds of foreigners who can barely speak the English language and whose claims would not bear close inspection.

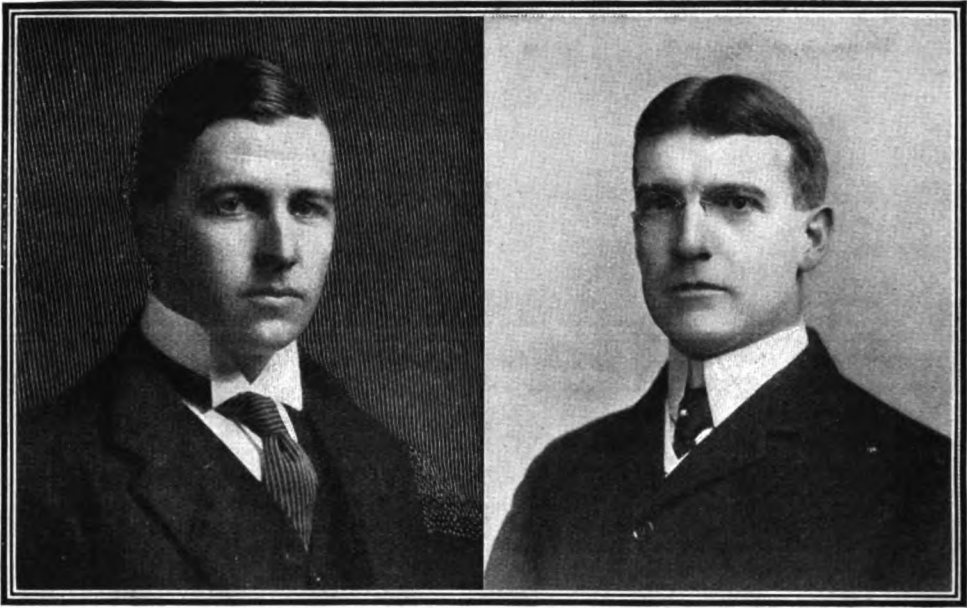
*Naturalization  
Reform.*

The new situation has been brought about chiefly through an improvement in the law and its administration. What this means is shown in an article contributed to our pages this month by the Hon. Alford W. Cooley, of New York, now Assistant Attorney-General at Washington. Mr. Cooley gives full credit to the work of the commission on the naturalization laws headed by the Hon. Milton J. Purdy, whose report resulted in the present improved system. Mr. Purdy has for some years been chief assistant to the At-



PHOTOGRAPH OF A MODEL SHOWN BY THE CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY AT THE EXHIBITION TO ILLUSTRATE NEW YORK'S CONGESTED POPULATION.

(This block on the East Side shows conditions prior to 1900. It contained nearly 3,000 people, living under improper conditions. A great change has already been accomplished.)



Hon. Alford W. Cooley.

Hon. Milton J. Purdy.

IMPORTANT MEMBERS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE AT WASHINGTON, WHO HAVE BEEN SPECIALLY IDENTIFIED WITH THE REFORM OF OUR NATURALIZATION SYSTEM.

torney-General and has borne an important part in the work of the Department of Justice under three successive Attorney-Generals. But with all his efforts for the enforcement of the laws against restraint of trade, he has perhaps done nothing of so much practical use as his work for the reform of the laws relating to the admission of foreigners to our citizenship. These laws could in the future be made still more severe with great advantage to the country, and without injustice or hardship to any applicant.

*The Pacific  
Labor  
Market.*

The problems that concern the nations now occupying the coasts of the Pacific Ocean have also become industrial, and the state of the labor market furnishes the key to several difficult situations. Thus the Japanese question, in so far as it concerns our Pacific Coast, is purely one of labor. The Japanese can earn ten times as much in California, Oregon, or Washington as they can earn in Japan. They are no longer content to live under the economic conditions of a quarter of a century ago, because as a people they have felt the stirring of new ambitions and have perceived great possibilities within their grasp. They are a prolific people, and they produce a surplus population that is not content to starve on a handful of rice a day, but that is ener-

getic enough to push out into the international labor market, where the awards are rich and sure. The Japanese laborer can earn as much in a few years on our coast as in an entire lifetime at home. Every son of Japan who goes forth to seek his fortune elsewhere is under bonds to return whenever needed or called for, and he is working as much for the welfare of his country as for his own personal benefit. The intense patriotism of the Japanese is a thing hard for us to understand, and it explains many things that must be taken into account by nations and governments having to deal with the Japanese people.

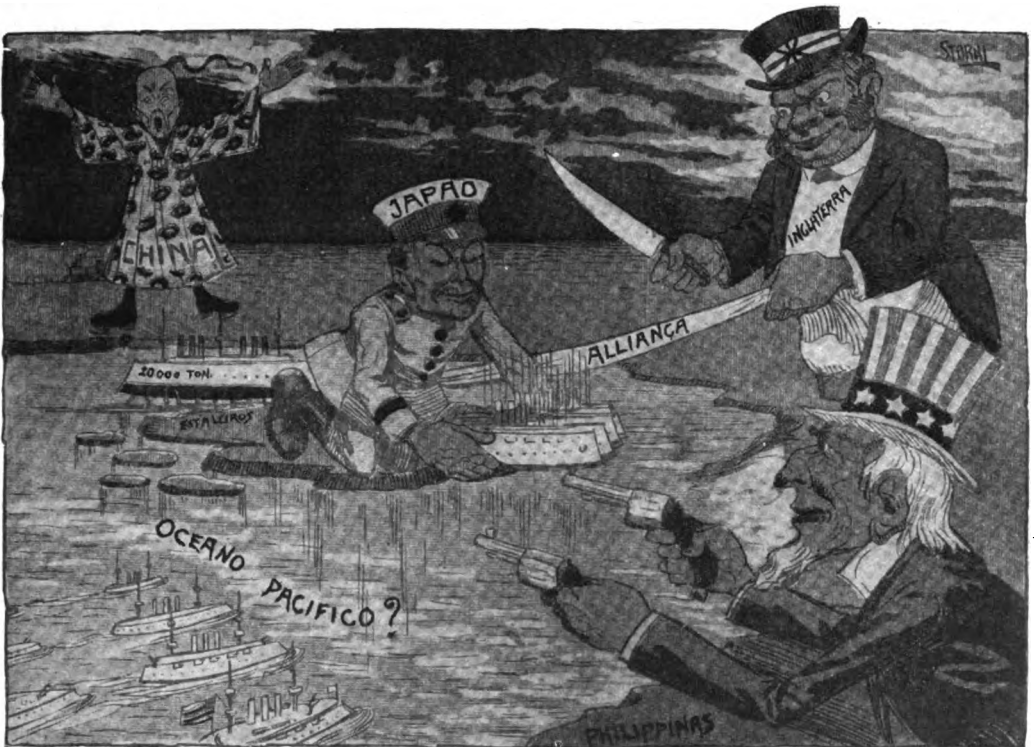
*Japanese  
Senti-  
ment.*

The success of Japan by land and by sea in fighting first the Chinese and then the Russians has naturally given them a sense of power and importance that is embarrassing at times to their own leaders. The common people of Japan have never understood that financial considerations had limited the duration of the war against Russia, and that the good offices of the United States in bringing about the Peace of Portsmouth were deeply appreciated by the Japanese statesmen. The feeling of the Japanese against this country is due to the belief among the soldiers and

common people that our Government lifted its hand to stop their irresistible march across Russia, and prevented their seizure of territory and their exaction of a large money indemnity. It is this feeling that has made it more difficult than it otherwise would have been to arrange with Japan about the labor question. But the relations between the two governments have been cordial at all times, and the influx of Japanese coolies has now almost entirely ceased. The visit of our fleet to the Pacific has brought about no irritation such as was predicted in certain quarters, and there seems no prospect of our considering at Washington a Japanese exclusion law. The Japanese Government has such control over the movements of every Japanese subject that it can divert the coolies from our ports, and see that they are employed somewhere else. And it will undoubtedly accomplish this object for the present.

*A  
Hard  
Situation.*

It is, nevertheless, a rather hard situation, inasmuch as the United States offers so tempting a field to Oriental laborers who are eager for high wages. As communication grows easier, and the habit of travel to find lucrative employment becomes more widely diffused throughout the Orient, this problem of the international labor market along the shores of the Pacific is not going to be solved without serious future difficulties. The Australians appreciate its gravity quite as much as do the Californians. It has for some time been a crucial question in South Africa, and it is becoming an uppermost theme in South America as well as Canada. We have chosen to hold the United States for a white man's country, and we shall probably succeed, although the future has its own history to write in ways not yet wholly determined. The competition of races is only begun.



WHAT WOULD HAPPEN IF UNCLE SAM SHOULD MAKE WAR UPON THE MIKADO.

(The above cartoon, from a South American paper, is typical of many that have appeared in Europe and throughout the world. It intimates that in case of trouble between America and Japan England would at once break the alliance now existing with the Japanese Government, while China looks upon the whole situation with an air of helpless distress. The cartoon is interesting in view of the fact that our Government on March 20 accepted a cordial invitation from the Japanese Government to have the fleet visit Yokohama in the course of its peaceful progress around the world. The visit of our fleet will remind Japan of Commodore Perry's visit long ago and of the numerous evidences of good will toward Japan shown by the Government and people of the United States.)

*American  
Race  
Problems.*

It is now a hundred years since the United States abolished the foreign slave trade. But for that law, which went into effect at the beginning of 1808, we should have been in a very different position when emancipation came. Some of our Southern States would have been permanently African, like Haiti and Jamaica. Our race problem in the South is sufficiently delicate and difficult as matters stand. It requires a great deal of patience and forbearance, and it can only be solved by the slow processes of advancing civilization. The negro race is not making a success of its Haitian Republic, and it could not have made a success of the permanent administration of South Carolina, Mississippi, or Louisiana. It must make further solid gains in civilization before it can succeed well in the work of government. It is to be hoped that the present troubles in Haiti will lead to an arrangement under which that republic will accept the protection of the United States under conditions which will guarantee financial stability and freedom from revolutions. With the friendly aid of our Government, the negro race in Haiti may by degrees prove to the world its capacity to make progress and govern itself. Our own educated negroes should take a deep interest in the West Indies, which are destined to belong mainly to their race.

*Clannishness  
Among American  
Negroes.*

It is only natural that a race so recently enslaved should be clannish. The Hebrew people,—put to disadvantage in many countries,—have been driven to an intense loyalty to their own people as against Gentiles. The Japanese, wherever scattered, are absolutely for one another and for their own government. The Irish, smarting under a sense of their wrongs, were always united in their opposition to England, however they might quarrel among themselves. It is not strange that the American negroes should be bound together by a deep racial instinct so powerful that it controls them under all circumstances. Since they possess this instinct, it is extremely important that their leaders should learn wisdom and self-control. Because of several earlier incidents which seemed favorable to their race, the American negroes were almost idolatrous in their support of President Roosevelt. Then came an incident of army discipline which happened to affect colored troops; and those who knew the negroes

best were of opinion that not one colored man in a thousand would have voted for Mr. Roosevelt if he were coming up for reelection. And in this swift change of feeling the 8,000,000 or 10,000,000 negroes in this country were to a large extent led by the educated men of their race, who should not have been so prejudiced or so mercurial. In the very nature of the case, the disbanding of the colored troops in consequence of the outrage at Brownsville, Texas, could not have been due on the President's part to race prejudice, and it should have been treated as an army question, and not as one relating to negroes as such.

*The Brownsville  
Affair in  
New Phases.*

Steps for the re-enlistment of the members of the disbanded companies had already been taken by the President when the process of re-enlistment was interrupted by the long and exhaustive Senate investigation in response to Senator Foraker's demand. A majority of the Senate committee has supported the action of the War Department and the President in a report made last month. Senator Foraker and three others,—namely, Senators Hemenway, Scott, and Bulkeley,—made a minority report. Meanwhile, the President had acted in pursuance of the conclusion of the Senate's inquiry, and on March 11 he summed up the case in a brief message to Congress, reminding it of the action taken by the War Department for re-enlisting the discharged soldiers in December, 1906. The President now asks Congress to extend the time within which the department may permit the re-enlistment of as many as are deemed free from guilty connection with the Brownsville outrage. The incident in our judgment could from the beginning have been left safely to be solved by the War Department. The political purposes of the long agitation that has been maintained are too obvious for discussion.

*As  
Concerns  
Mr. Taft.*

There has been no pretense or secrecy in the claim that, by attacking the Administration upon its action in discharging these soldiers, the opponents of Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Taft would be enabled to control the Southern negro delegations to the national convention, and would also control the important negro vote in Indiana, Ohio, New York, and some other States. But the claim has been too open and the motive has been too obvious.

But for the approach of a Presidential election the whole affair would have been handled in an entirely different way. The thing for negro leaders to see is that this incident has subjected them to a serious test. If their race prejudice could be played upon so easily, it would only show that they were not growing as fast in sagacity as their real friends had hoped. They gain little for their race by acting together as a political class. There are ample reasons to afford explanation for their solidarity, but it will be to their advantage to learn to act in public affairs in disregard of the race line. It has been said that the Brownsville incident would make Mr. Taft's nomination impossible, or that if he were nominated it would prevent his election. The prospects now are that it will not stand in the way of his receiving the nomination at Chicago; and, if he should be nominated, it is hardly to be thought that negroes who have usually voted the Republican ticket would fail to vote for so representative a leader of their party. Mr. Taft has never in any way shown himself other than broad-minded in dealing with race questions.

*Presidential  
Prospects.*

There is no reason for haste in making political prophecies, and the present prospect that Mr. Taft will be the Republican nominee may be greatly changed by unknown considerations that may subsequently appear. West of the Alleghany Mountains Republican sentiment seems to be almost solid for the Secretary of War. Indiana and Illinois are still nominally for their declared candidates; but it would not be surprising if Vice-President Fairbanks and Speaker Cannon should advise their supporters to join in making the thing unanimous for their genial and long-time friend William H. Taft. In New York there is a very cordial feeling toward Mr. Taft, which has found easy and constant expression without any hostility in it toward Governor Hughes. Conceding the Governor

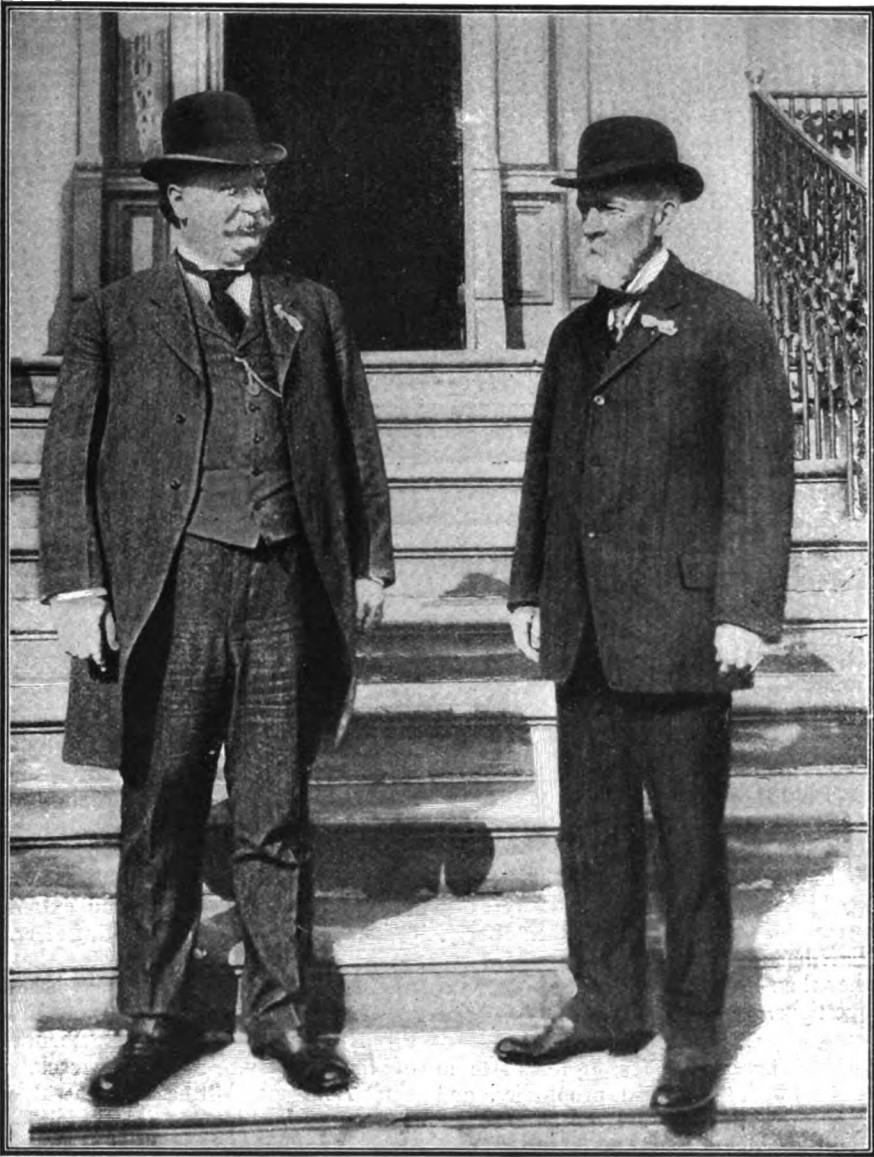


HON. FRANK H. HITCHCOCK, WHO IS IN CHARGE OF THE TAFT CAMPAIGN IN THE EAST AND SOUTH.

to be the first choice of the Empire State, Mr. Taft is undoubtedly the second choice of the Republican voters by a vast majority. A good deal has been published in the newspapers about the activity and extent of the organization that is promoting Mr. Taft's candidacy, and the costliness of the preliminary canvass. Mr. Vorys, with headquarters in Ohio, remains in charge of the movement throughout the West and some other parts of the country. Mr. Hitchcock, recently First Assistant Postmaster-General, with his office in Washington, is looking after the Taft canvass in the East and a part of the South. In so far as money has been spent, it seems to have been entirely on the surface. The preliminary fight in Ohio must have cost something for printing, traveling expenses, and the other legitimate outlays.

*Money in the  
Preliminary  
Canvass.*

It is not for a moment charged by any one that money has been spent improperly in the promotion of Mr. Taft's candidacy, nor is there any mystery about the origin of the money that has been used. Friends of Mr. Taft who have offered to contribute generously have been told that no money was needed. Mr. Charles P. Taft, of Cincinnati, is a



Photograph by J. R. Schmidt, Cincinnati.

SECRETARY WILLIAM H. TAFT AND HIS BROTHER, MR. CHARLES P. TAFT, OF CINCINNATI.

man of very large fortune. Inasmuch as a great deal has been said about the use of money in the Taft campaign, it is well that the country should be informed that Mr. Taft is under no obligations in any direction and that he is aware of no lavish or improper expenditure for his benefit. All that has been done in his behalf seems to have been entirely frank and open. It must not be supposed that money in very considerable sums has not also been used on behalf of other candidates. It will perhaps never be

known how much certain so-called Wall Street interests have expended on the general project of discrediting the Administration and trying to prevent the control of the Republican convention by those in sympathy with the policies of the President.

*Hearst's  
New  
Party.*

Nothing has happened to change the prospect that Mr. Bryan will be nominated by the Democrats in their Denver convention. The position of Mr. William R. Hearst is naturally giving

the Democrats much concern. On February 22 there was a conference at Chicago composed of the leaders of Mr. Hearst's Independence League, and plans were then and there made for the launching of a new national party as yet unnamed. This new party is to wait until after the Republican and Democratic conventions have been held. A national committee was formed with authority to choose the place and fix the date for the convention. Mr. Hearst, as head of the movement, delivered a carefully prepared speech, which was regarded as sounding the keynote of the new national party's principles. After a series of generalities in commendation of the principles of the Declaration of Independence, the platform as adopted at Chicago announces the purpose to "destroy the power of selfish special interests by wresting from their hands their main weapon, the corruption fund." The next purpose stated is to "correct some of the obvious financial and economic evils of the day." Another object is to "develop the resources of the country." In characterizing the present parties Mr. Hearst says that the most bitter and uncompromising antagonism is to be found between the radical Democratic party and the conservative Democratic party. To some extent he finds such a cleavage also in the Republican party. He declares it to be uncertain as yet which wing of either party will be in control of the approaching conventions.

*His Opinion  
of the Old  
Parties.*

Mr. Hearst proceeds as follows:

It depends upon what particular clique secures control of the Republican machinery whether that party declares for Roosevelt and radicalism, or Cannon and conservatism, or Hughes and hypocrisy.

The Democratic party has stood heroically for Bryan and bimetallism, one year; for philanthropy in the Philippines, one year; for conservatism and a campaign fund, one year, and for public ownership for PART of another year,—until, indeed, that deep-rooted conviction collided with the Jim Crow car.

The Democratic party accuses Roosevelt of having stolen its clothes.

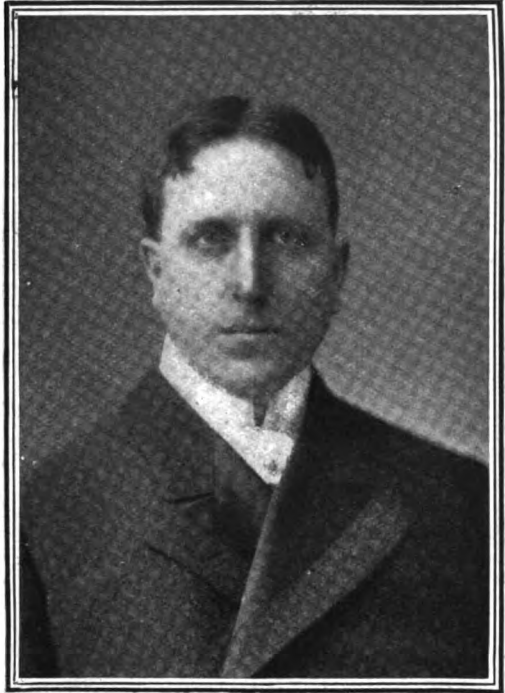
What clothes?

Which suit?

If Roosevelt appropriated any Democratic garments, he probably found them lying around unworn, uncared for, unclaimed.

The political clothes of the average politician are not much to steal. They too often resemble the harlequin attire of a masquerade.

Moreover, by way of diversion, if Roosevelt, attired in the boots and breeches of the Democracy, has frightened the country into financial fits, what will the probable effect on the community be of a Democratic President, arrayed in the contrasting colors of the full Democratic regalia?



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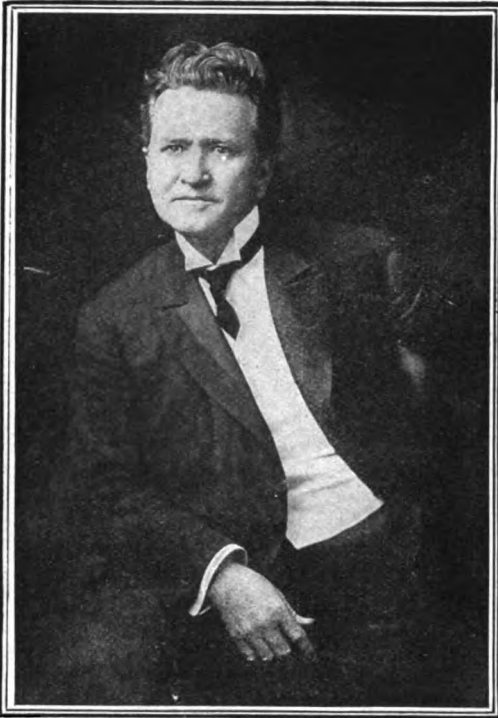
HON. WILLIAM RANDOLPH HEARST.

With all due respect to the honest citizens in the Democratic and Republican parties, I maintain that the reforms we advocate cannot well be accomplished either with the old parties or in conjunction with the old parties.

*La Follette's  
Posi-  
tion.*

It had been supposed that Mr. Hearst and the Independence League would support Mr. Bryan upon a radical platform. But the breach now seems complete. It was widely reported last month that Senator La Follette would be nominated for President by the new party. Mr. La Follette, however, is a candidate for the Republican nomination. Although he has broken the old party ranks all to pieces in Wisconsin, he has always fought his battles as a Republican. His friends state by authority that he will continue to assert his views within the party where so many men of his general way of thinking are still to be found. In the course of the Senate debate on the Aldrich currency bill last month, Mr. La Follette made a powerful attack upon the concentrated power of a well-known group of men who control the financial, transportation, and industrial interests that have their business headquarters in the Wall Street district.





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HON. ROBERT M. LA FOLLETTE.

(United States Senator from Wisconsin.)

Unfortunately, attention was diverted from Mr. La Follette's argument by the publication of his list of about a hundred men who are said to control the economic affairs of the country. It was a mistake to attach so much importance to particular individuals. If anything is wrong it is the system; and there are thousands of individuals who are just as responsible for the development and maintenance of our centralized business conditions as are the hundred gentlemen who happen to be named in Senator La Follette's list.

*Business  
Leadership.*

If we are to have great transportation systems, great industrial corporations, and great banks and insurance companies, the only thing that can save them from ruin is strong and masterful leadership. It is not a crime for a man to have become powerful and conspicuous in the business world, unless indeed it be a crime to be a business man at all. To deal with the rule and not with the exceptions, it is fair to say that our American business men who control large affairs are trusted by many whose interests are at stake, and that they

hold their high positions because of merit. We are going to continue to have great corporations, and they will require men of shining talents to conduct them. Some of our great corporations have been plundered by the men at their heads, while others have been administered honestly for their stockholders, but in a manner adverse to the public interest. It is possible for law and government to help protect the stockholders and also to safeguard the public interest. But the great corporations must go forward, and their welfare is bound up with the country's prosperity.

*To  
Unshackle  
Business.*

President Roosevelt has been advocating a modification of the Sherman Anti-Trust law. It is hoped that a bill to this end may be passed in the present session. The National Civic Federation, as a result of the great conference held last October at Chicago, has been helping to secure an agreement of all interests upon a measure of this kind. As construed by the courts, the Sherman law forbids all large combinations of a monopolistic tendency, whether reasonable or unreasonable in their nature and conduct. If the law is modified its prohibitions will apply only to trusts and combinations that are not fair and reasonable in their principles and working. Along with this modification of the law it is desired by the Administration to secure the national licensing or registration of large corporations, coupled with provisions for a certain amount of publicity and for the governmental oversight of corporate methods and operations. If legislation of this kind can be enacted, American business will be in a position to follow its normal course of development without detriment to public interests. There ought to be no instinctive antagonism between business and government. Some modifications of the law and some much needed reforms in our business methods ought to set American industry and commerce upon the most fortunate and prosperous period in all its history.

*Labor  
and Its  
Combinations.*

As we have constantly pointed out, the normal trend of business in this country, as in Europe, is toward large combinations. For law and government to attempt the breaking down of combinations as such is demoralizing and it is absurd. Regulation and the prevention of abuses are to be desired in the interest of business itself. It is equally true that the

tendency in the labor world is toward large organizations. But the principles that relate to trades-unions are in their nature so different from those that relate to combinations of capital that there would be much harm and no benefit in trying to regulate the two things under the same statute. The Sherman Anti-Trust law was never intended to be applied to trades-unions or to limit the methods employed by unions in their conflicts with capital. In the proposed modifications of the Sherman Anti-Trust law there can be no sensible objection to the demand of the labor leaders that their unions should not be subjected to precisely the same forms of restriction and regulation as the combinations of capital. Perhaps never before in the history of the country has organized labor been so powerfully represented at Washington as last month. For one thing, the Government officials were mediating under the terms of the Erdman act to prevent if possible a general strike of employees on the Southern railroads. The question at issue was the proposed reduction of wages all along the line. The American Federation of Labor, under the leadership of Mr. Gompers, was at work for a re-enactment of the Employers' Liability bill, with good prospects of success. There also seemed some chance for legislation restricting the use of injunctions in labor cases.

*The Decision in  
the Hatters'  
Case.*

The demand for the exemption of labor unions from the operation of the Anti-Trust law involved difficulties that led to serious disagreement. The labor unions have been greatly aroused over a recent decision of the Supreme Court. On February 3 the court handed down an opinion in a case referred to it for the express purpose of testing the question whether or not the Sherman Anti-Trust law is applicable to a trades-union using its established methods. A firm of hatters in Danbury, Conn., had been boycotted by the trade-union known as the United Hatters of North America. The case was first brought in the United States Circuit Court, which sustained the labor union and held that Loewe & Co. had no recourse against the union under the Sherman act. The boycotted firm carried the case by writ of error to the Circuit Court of Appeals. This court, by agreement of plaintiffs and defendants, referred the point of law, with a brief statement of the facts, to the Supreme Court. The decision, delivered by Chief Justice Fuller, reversed the lower court, and declared that the aggrieved firm

could bring action for damages against the United Hatters under the Sherman law. All sorts of unexpected things have been done by the courts in their interpretation of that unfortunate law of 1890.

*The Law  
and  
the Courts.*

Whatever may be said against boycotting by labor unions or against the practice of blacklisting by combinations of employers, it is at least certain that Congress, in passing the Anti-Trust act, had no thought of dealing with the methods used by labor and capital in their disputes with one another. The Supreme Court is an able and honest body, but the members of the United States Circuit Courts are also able and honest; and upon the same statement of facts the two courts reach exactly opposite conclusions as to the meaning and intent of the law. The whole business world of America is in confusion because of decisions which have made the prohibitions of the Sherman act applicable to reasonable and beneficial agreements as well as to unreasonable and harmful ones. The recent fashion of speaking of labor as a commodity and of labor unions as "trusts," analogous to the great industrial combinations, is purely rhetorical and fallacious. The decision in the hatters' case makes it all the more necessary that the Sherman law should be either modified or repealed. Unless these questions are dealt with squarely and frankly by Congress, they must needs play a large part in the coming political campaign.

*Prohibition  
and  
Politics.*

Another question that will play its part, although in ways that are somewhat puzzling and hard to predict, is that of the drink traffic. Dr. Iglehart's article, which will be found on page 468 of this number of the REVIEW, states in a succinct manner the essential facts in the present movement for the closing of drinking-saloons in the United States. Waves of prohibition sentiment have swept across the country several times in previous periods; but the movements of the nineteenth century were none of them so extensive or so effective as the one that is now suppressing the saloon throughout the greater part of our territory. The present movement is not under the direction of a national political party, and it cannot be said to have any marked partisan complexion. It proceeds differently in the different States according to circumstances. It has less fanaticism about it than the corresponding movements

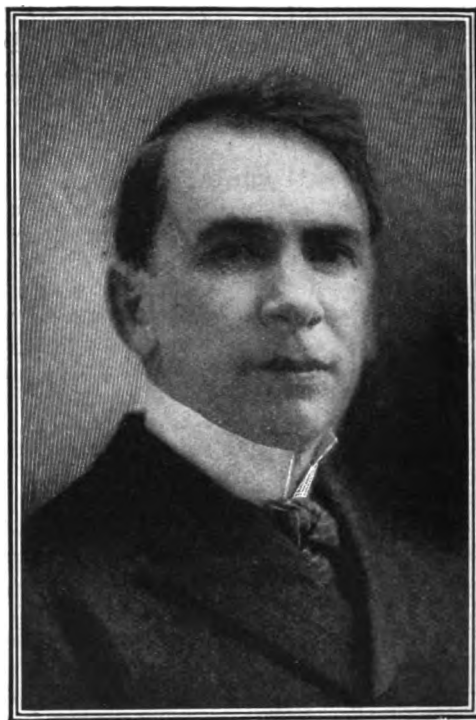
of the last century. The effectiveness of prohibition in certain States a generation ago was marred by a decision of the United States Supreme Court, which made it possible for the liquor traffic to avail itself of the interstate commerce privilege as against the police powers of the State. The Prohibitionists are now trying to secure legislation at Washington to remedy this situation. At present the brewer, distiller, or wholesale dealer, locating just outside of a prohibition State, may distribute his wares freely to purchasers throughout the prohibition territory, and may thus do what a citizen of the State in question is forbidden to do under penalties of law. There are two sides to the question, but it would seem as if the States in the treatment of the drink traffic ought to have full and undivided authority.

*For  
Tariff  
Revision.*

Although Senator Beveridge's bill for a tariff commission is not likely to become a law in the form in which it was introduced, there seems a good prospect that his advocacy of that measure, together with the support of the Manufacturers' Association, may lead to something fairly equivalent. The object of Mr. Beveridge's bill was not to turn the revision of the tariff over to an outside commission, but to have capable and expert men set at work promptly to study all essential facts and prepare data for the use of the committees of Congress in the near future. In the various bureaus of the Treasury Department and that of Commerce and Labor there are a number of highly qualified men who could be set at the preliminary tasks of tariff revision. If Congress by joint resolution should authorize the President to form a statistical tariff bureau, or an expert commission within the departments, the country would regard such an arrangement as businesslike, and would be assured that tariff revision was something more than an empty promise. In one way or in another such tariff work ought to be entered upon without further delay.

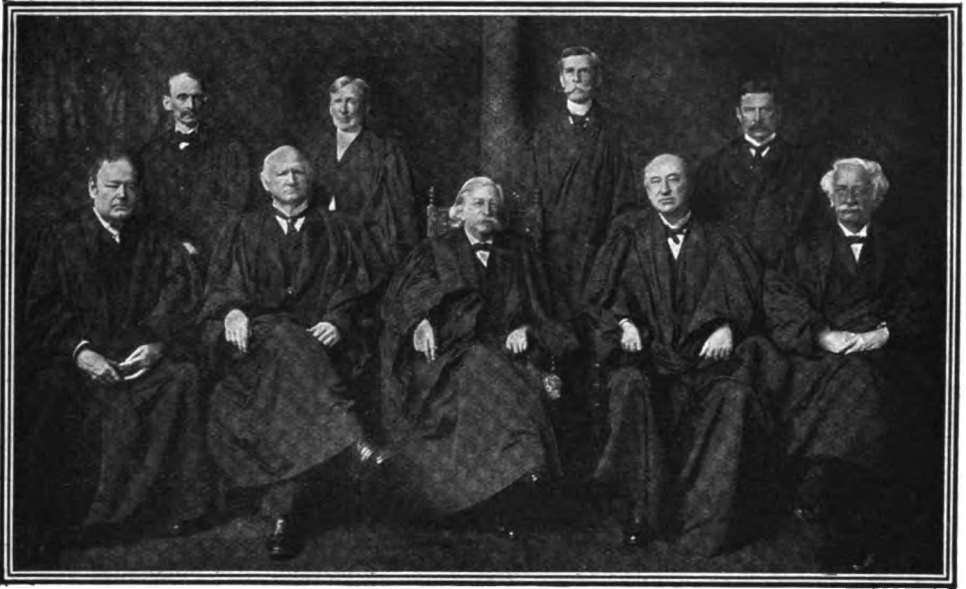
*Attacking the  
Aldrich  
Bill.*

The Aldrich Currency bill met with more opposition than had been expected. The provision for a limited use of railroad bonds as security for an emergency issue of bank-notes was so strongly assailed that it had to be given up. The leader in the attack upon this feature of the bill was Senator William Alden Smith of Michigan. Senator Allison and other



HON. WILLIAM ALDEN SMITH.  
(Senator from Michigan.)

sagacious leaders of the Middle West were of opinion that their States would disapprove of the railroad-bond feature. It was accordingly dropped just as Senator La Follette began his drastic two-days' speech against the bill. It was said that the railroad feature was to have occupied a large part of his time. His speech was a general arraignment of the concentrated financial and industrial interests, which he charged with having brought on the panic and with having manipulated the currency situation in its own interest. It is worth while to note the fact that the Aldrich bill is now regarded as a mere palliative, and that almost every thoughtful and well-informed man favors a complete reform of our entire currency system. Mr. Carnegie's remarks characterizing ours as the "worst banking system in the world," made at a recent dinner of the Economic Club in New York, have been quoted everywhere in the country and have met with surprisingly little dissent. The system cannot be changed this year, but change will have to come in the near future. Meanwhile the Aldrich bill would give some needed elasticity to the present system in a period of emergency.



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Justice Day. Justice McKenna. Justice Holmes. Justice Moody.  
Justice White. Justice Harlan. Chief Justice Fuller. Justice Brewer. Justice Peckham.

THE CHIEF JUSTICE AND ASSOCIATE JUSTICES OF THE SUPREME COURT OF THE UNITED STATES.

*The  
Supreme  
Court.*

The profound importance of the questions that are coming before the Supreme Court has brought fresh attention to the personnel of that body. It has nine members, and some of the most far-reaching of its recent decisions have been made by a bare majority of the group. It is not to disparage the learning, wisdom, and high character of the Supreme Court judges to say that many of the judges of the lower federal courts are quite as eminent and have been appointed in some cases for reasons of a legal and judicial experience greater than that of some of the members of the highest court. It is well known that Judge Taft has more than once had the opportunity to become a member of the Supreme Court, but his work, first in the Philippines and then at the head of the War Department, has kept him from doing the thing that he would personally have preferred. It is probable that the next President of the United States may have to fill more than one vacancy on the Supreme bench. Chief Justice Fuller and Justice Harlan were both born in 1833 and are therefore seventy-five years old this year. Justice Brewer is seventy-one, and Justice Peckham is seventy. Justice Holmes is sixty-seven, Justice McKenna sixty-five, Justice White sixty-three, Justice Day fifty-nine, and Justice Moody fifty-five. Justice Harlan has

been on the bench thirty-one years, and Chief Justice Fuller was appointed twenty years ago. It is fairly probable that either Mr. Taft or Mr. Bryan will appoint their successors. It would probably make some difference in the attitude of the court toward critical questions whether the vacancies were filled by one President or by another.

*Our  
Natural  
Resources.*

Next month the conference of State governors and delegates called by President Roosevelt to consider the conservation of our natural resources will be held in Washington. The range of topics to be discussed by this conference is very broad. The discussions will almost certainly bring to light a great mass of information about our timber preserves, coal deposits, and water powers that will exhibit in a striking way the Government's own activities in this vast field. Some idea of these activities in one direction is afforded by Mr. Mitchell's article in this number of the REVIEW on American swamp-lands and what may be done with them. To most readers, we venture to say, this article will be a revelation. Meanwhile, Congress is called upon to act, and to act promptly, on the Appalachian Forest bill, the urgency of which is clearly demonstrated in Mr. Will's article on page 450 of this number.

*A Remarkable Cruise,* "Fleet in better condition than when it left Hampton Roads and ready for any service at an hour's notice." Rear-Admiral Evans' message to the Navy Department from Magdalena Bay, where the fleet arrived two days ahead of schedule time, marked the completion of a successful voyage from Callao, Peru, into North American waters. The announcement made by the Navy Department on March 13 that the fleet would complete the circumnavigation of the globe and return to this country by way of Suez and the Mediterranean has evoked considerable satisfaction, not only in this country, but in Europe as well. Already naval experts on the Continent have pronounced encomiums upon our fleet of sixteen heavy battleships, so well constructed and so well managed as to be able to steam 13,000 miles without mishap or necessity for repair. The voyage has made for universal peace, our European critics are saying. Russian journals contend that (we quote the *Slovo*, of St. Petersburg) "all danger of war in the Pacific has disappeared, thanks to the vigorous, enlightened statesmanship of President Roosevelt, the prudence of Japan, and the good offices of Great Britain."

*Home via Japan and Australia.* The invitation of the Japanese Government to the American Government to have our battleship fleet visit some Japanese port on its homeward cruise was transmitted by Ambassador Takahira to the State Department on March 20. After consideration by the President and his cabinet, it was decided to accept the invitation, and it is believed that Yokohama will be the port at which the visit will be made. An invitation to visit Chinese ports would complete the natural course of the fleet's itinerary in Oriental waters. The commonwealth of Australia has heard with gratification the announcement that our ships will visit its two great cities of Melbourne and Sydney. It is expected that the return journey will be begun on July 6, the ships reaching New York some time in the spring of next year, having traveled altogether more than 30,000 miles. At his own request Rear-Admiral Evans will be relieved of the command of the battleships on May 8, at the close of the great naval review in San Francisco Bay. He has been for some years a sufferer from rheumatism and does not feel equal to the task of commanding the fleet on its return trip. Temporarily he will be succeeded by Rear-Admiral Charles M. Thomas,

but before the fleet leaves San Francisco for the Orient Admiral Thomas will also be relieved and Rear-Admiral Charles S. Sperry will be elevated to the command. Admiral Sperry, it will be remembered, was one of the delegates representing the United States at the Hague Conference last year. He is an officer of experience, dignity, and ability, and under his command our ships may be expected to maintain the record for efficiency which has characterized them in the first part of their world voyage under Rear-Admiral Evans. We are glad to call the attention of our readers in this connection to the article on another page this month (456) on the cruise from Hampton Roads to Magdalena Bay, by Winthrop L. Marvin.

*The Quebec Tercentenary.* In the month of July all the Dominion of Canada will join the quaint old city of Quebec in celebrating the three hundredth anniversary of its foundation, and in dedicating as a national park the historic battlefields of the province on which is to be erected a joint monument to the two heroes, Wolfe and Montcalm, who fought out the issue between Great Britain and France in the new world 150 years ago. It is expected that his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales will be present and participate in some of the ceremonies and afterward perhaps visit the United States. It is now more than half a century since his father, King Edward VII., then Prince of Wales, paid an extended visit to the Dominion and passed through the larger cities of this country. It is expected that French warships will fraternize with the British fleet in Canadian waters at the celebration, and that American ships-of-war will also be present. The presence of American ships on such an occasion would be a gratifying indication of the cordiality which has marked our relations with the Dominion during the past year or more. Ambassador Bryce's recent visit to the Dominion has, as already pointed out in these pages, resulted in clearing up more than one clouded situation. According to Mr. Bryce, good feeling in the United States toward Canada and in the Dominion toward the United States was never greater than to-day. While negotiations on the Newfoundland fisheries treaty are proceeding slowly, their progress is satisfactory, and it is confidently expected that before long a treaty with the Dominion will be signed, covering all points at issue between the two nations.

*The  
Revolt  
in Haiti.*

There has been no revolution in Haiti since 1902,—six long years,—when General Firmin, who leads the present revolutionary movement, and the present President, General Nord Alexis, were rivals for the Presidential chair. Reckless personal ambition is in a majority of cases the occasion of revolutionary

movements in Caribbean island countries, as well as in the nations of South and Central America. It was no doubt due to the ambition of General Firmin to regain power in Haiti that, early in March, hostilities broke out in the northwestern part of the island divided into the two inflammable nations of Haiti and Santo Domingo. The revolutionary forces were, however, soon defeated by the government troops, and General Firmin, with 120 other revolutionists, took refuge in the French consulate at Gonaïves. The demand of General Nord Alexis that these refugees be delivered up to his soldiers, and the attacks on some German, British, and Spanish merchants, precipitated the trouble. The presence of British, German, and American warships in the harbor of Port-au-Prince, and the execution of fifteen alleged revolutionists by the Haitian Government, had by the middle of March made the situation assume serious proportions. The representatives of European powers interested are in complete accord with the attitude taken by our own Government and its representatives in Haitian waters, and it is an open secret that these nations would highly approve of some arrangement by which our own State Department would exercise with regard to Haiti the same care and maintain the same disinterested position of adviser as it now maintains toward the other half of this fertile but unfortunate island. Revolution and disorder in Haiti and Santo Domingo are as much an international nuisance and menace as in Cuba.

*Dictatorships  
in Portugal  
and Argentina.*

By a remarkable coincidence, dictatorships in a European monarchy and a South American republic came very near ending simultaneously



HAITI AND ITS SISTER REPUBLIC, SANTO DOMINGO, IN THEIR RELATION TO CUBA AND PORTO RICO.

with the assassination of the nation's head. The Franco dictatorship in Portugal, held by many students of Portuguese affairs to be responsible for the royal tragedy at Lisbon on February 1, was provoked by the obstructive tactics of the Cortes, which arbitrarily refused to adopt the necessary budget,—a refusal, the Francoists maintain, due to the fact that the Premier would not provide in that budget for the traditional political "graft." The suspension of constitutional guaranties in Portugal, while apparently the only means of foiling the corrupt political conspirators, was undoubtedly the direct occasion of the murder of King Carlos and the Crown Prince. The attempt to blow up by a bomb Dr. Alcorta, President of Argentina, just four weeks later than the tragedy at Lisbon, has called the attention of the world to a dictatorship in one of the most stable and liberal of the South American republics, which, while differing in some respects from the Portuguese situation, presents striking analogies to the problem in the ancient European monarchy. Nearly a year ago the Argentine Congress refused to vote the budget for the maintenance of the government. A special session of Congress last November repeated the refusal, and then the President, supported by his cabinet, dismissed Congress, and by an executive decree, which was entirely extra-constitutional, declared that the budget for the preceding year should be in force for the current year and the appropriations made without sanction of Congress. Until the next session of the Argentine Legislature, which begins in May, therefore, the Argentine Republic is under an extra-constitutional régime, with President Alcorta acting as virtual dictator. It is to be hoped that next month Congress and President will agree.

Argentine  
Pros-  
perity.

The country itself is prosperous economically and is advancing rapidly in matters of commerce, industry, and education. Its relations with its neighbor, Chile, are constantly becoming more cordial and close. The Chilean section of the trans-Andean tunnel, when completed, will link the existing Chilean and Argentine railways and shorten the time between Santiago and Buenos Aires by six hours. Chile, by the way, has also definitely decided to complete her much-discussed longitudinal railway, which will extend from the frontiers of Peru to the Straits of Magellan, a total distance of more than 2300 miles. The recent decision of the International Bureau of American Republics to hold the next Pan-American Congress in Buenos Aires, beginning May 25, 1910, makes that important and increasingly significant occasion coincide with the celebration of the one-hundredth anniversary of Argentine independence. A great world's fair is projected for that date, at which Argentina will show to the world how she and her neighbor nations have progressed since May, 1810, when the wars for American independence from Spain began within her borders.

Two  
Popular  
Young Kings.

Sympathy with republican sentiments in Portugal is quite possible without any toleration whatsoever for the exultation of some Portuguese Republican leaders over the assassination of

King Carlos and Prince Luiz Filipe. The attitude of the Latin-American republics, and indeed of all progressive republics of the world, toward assassination is shown by the cartoon we reproduce here from the Brazilian journal *O Malho* of Rio de Janeiro. In the Iberian peninsula itself interest in the past month has been divided between the dignified and sensible course being pursued by the young Portuguese monarch Dom Manuel II. and the dramatic visit of the dashing, impulsive Spanish King Alfonso to Barcelona. King Manuel has convoked the Portuguese Cortes for May 29. The elections, which are being held as we go to press with this number of the REVIEW, indicate a decreased Republican representation and the almost complete disappearance of the Francoists from the Parliament. King Manuel has already annulled the addition to the civil list made by ex-Premier Franco and has handed back all gifts appropriated from the public treasury. King Alfonso, who early in his reign won the affection and respect of his people, has greatly increased this popular admiration by his visit, early last month, to the chief city of Catalonia, a province which has always been unfriendly, often to the point of open hostility, to the reigning Spanish house. The young monarch was enthusiastically received in Barcelona and returned safely to his capital after a three-days' visit to the chief commercial city of his kingdom, a visit which has greatly increased his already high prestige throughout all Spain.



HOW BRAZIL WOULD REGARD A PORTUGUESE REPUBLIC BORN OF ASSASSINATION.

(The comment of *O Malho*, of Rio de Janeiro, on the assassination of the Portuguese King and Crown Prince. The banner thrust into the breast of the dead King Carlos contains the Portuguese words for Equality, Fraternity, and Humanity.)

Legislation  
at  
Westminster.

It is coming to be looked upon in England as a certainty that in the early summer Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman will retire from the premiership to give place, Liberal journals assert, to Mr. Herbert Asquith, now Chancellor of the Exchequer. Sir Henry's poor health and advanced age make his early retirement a certainty. His premiership, while almost American in its ca-



capacity for work and speed, has, even its friends confess, so far been a disappointment. Many of the ante-election promises remain unfulfilled, and the Labor element in the party is bitter in its denunciation of the party for what it has not done. Yet it may be properly said that the Liberal government has really done a great deal for the Labor element in its ranks. It has secured the enactment of a law exempting the funds of trades-unions from liability for damages caused in pursuance of orders by these bodies. It has also secured the enactment, as far as England is concerned, of a law which makes easy the acquirement of small land holdings, and it has twice sent to the upper house, only to be rejected, a similar measure applicable to Scotland. It is definitely committed to the passage of an old-age pension law. It has, however, failed signally in its first education bill, and has given the traditional quietus to the woman's suffrage measure by referring it to the Committee of the Whole House, which, as everybody, including the suffragists themselves, knows, means the death of the measure. Elsewhere this month we give the woman's side of this much mooted question as stated by one of the Suffragette leaders.

*The Unemployed  
Workmen's  
Bill.*

On the proposition providing for the unemployed, as well as in the enactment of a new licensing law, the Liberal government has come into sharp conflict with the Laborites and their friends the Socialists, which would seem inevitably to force a break-up of the alliance between these parliamentary groups. The Unemployed Workmen's bill, which came into very long and heated discussion in the Commons last month, provided, to state the matter in general terms, that local authorities throughout the United Kingdom must find work or maintenance for all unemployed persons within their respective jurisdictions. The debate showed that the Socialist members of Parliament were in favor of this, but that the Laborites were divided in its support. After speeches in opposition by Mr. Asquith and Mr. John Burns, the bill was practically killed by the passage of a substitute amendment. The rejection of this bill was made the occasion, on March 13, of an important speech by Lord Rosebery, as president of the Liberal League, in which the ex-Premier announced that the triumph of the bill would have meant a triumph of Socialism, and that if the Liberal

party must choose between Socialism and Mr. Chamberlain's policy of tariff protection, he would, "much against his will, advocate its siding with the latter, in order to uphold



THE RT. HON. HERBERT ASQUITH, CHANCELLOR OF THE BRITISH EXCHEQUER.

(Mr. Asquith, around whose radical licensing bill introduced in the Parliament last month a great deal of heated discussion raged, is looked upon as the most probable successor of Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman when the latter retires.)

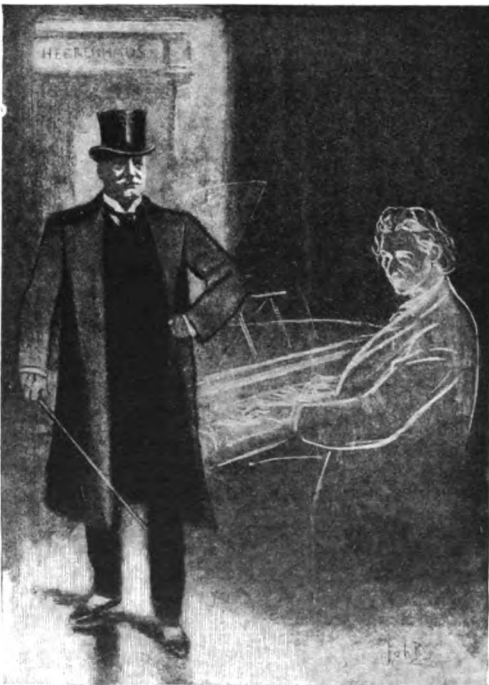
the stability, the freedom, and the prosperity of the British Empire."

*Anti-Liquor  
Legislation  
in England.*

It is around the Liberal government's licensing bill, introduced in the Commons on February 28 by Mr. Asquith, however, that the most animated and even bitter discussion rages. The new measure, a revenue-raising one primarily, fixes the time limit for existing licenses at fourteen years, and proposes to reduce the number of public-houses in England and Wales, now 100,000, by one-third. One to every 750 inhabitants in cities and one to every 400 in rural districts is the proposition, the result being, it is hoped, the abolition of some 30,000 drinking-places throughout the United Kingdom. Other provisions of the bill are: (1) Sunday-closing outside London, (2) a minimum journey of six miles to entitle a traveler to be served with liquor, (3) all clubs to be liable to police visits at all

times, and (4) the local veto by a bare majority in the case of all new licenses, a community decision not to be challenged within three years. The effect of Mr. Asquith's measure upon the national revenue is a matter of speculation. Of its social, economic, and moral benefits there can be but little doubt. In this connection, by way of comparison with conditions in this country, it will be interesting to read Dr. Iglehart's article (on page 468) in this issue dealing with the spread of prohibition in the United States. The new British Education bill, introduced last month by Reginald McKenna, President of the Education Board, is regarded as a weak modification of the Birrell bill. It is satisfactory to the Non-Conformists, partially satisfactory to the Catholics, but has excited the violent opposition of the Established Church. It also will no doubt be rejected by the House of Lords.

*The Kaiser's Letter to Lord Tweedmouth.* That a large section of the British public is really nervous over the steady, progressive increase of German naval strength was made evident last



TRYING TO KILL A PEOPLE.

CHANCELLOR VON BULOW (leaving the Prussian House of Lords after the passage of the Polish Expropriation Bill): "What music is that?"

THE GHOST OF CHOPIN: "The Dead March."  
From the *Amsterdamer* (Amsterdam).

month by the outburst of popular wrath against the German Kaiser which followed the announcement made in the London *Times* on March 6 that the Kaiser had attempted to influence British naval policy by secret correspondence with Lord Tweedmouth, First Lord of the Admiralty. The anti-German party at once concluded that the German monarch was trying to meddle, by underhand methods, in the most vital of Great Britain's national interests. A great deal of discussion was had in the press over the matter, but Lord Tweedmouth's explanation was so simple and straightforward that the excitement soon subsided. The letter, he declared, which had been received through the postoffice in the regular way, was on a personal matter, was quite friendly and informal in tone, and, moreover, had been immediately shown to Sir Edward Grey, Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, who agreed that it was a private and personal matter and therefore should not be made public or laid before Parliament. In this contention Lord Tweedmouth and the Foreign Secretary were supported not only by the Prime Minister but by Mr. Balfour, leader of the opposition. The outcome of the matter has not added to the reputation of the "Thunderer," which, on this occasion, had permitted its traditional anti-German feelings to get the better of its prudence. If the Kaiser really intended to arrest the advance of British naval and army strength the appropriations for the current year will disillusion him as to his epistolary powers. The combined estimates for army and navy show an increase of \$3,000,000. In presenting the demand Lord Tweedmouth explained that Britain would maintain the two-power standard in her navy and that by the first of the present month there would be under construction seven new battleships and five cruisers, besides smaller vessels of war. What the rest of the world would like to know is what did the Kaiser, who, it will be remembered, is an honorary admiral in the British navy, really say in this now famous letter to Lord Tweedmouth?

*Expropriating the Poles.* By a substantial majority last month the Prussian Diet passed the Polish Expropriation bill. The majority for the bill consisted of the Conservatives and National Liberals against the Catholic Center, the Radicals, and of course the Poles. The principle of the bill as stated officially is as follows:

In the districts (the provinces of West Prus-

sia and Posen) in which the safety of the endangered German element cannot be insured in any other way than by strengthening and rounding off German settlements by means of additional allotments to German settlers, the state shall have the right to acquire, if necessary, by expropriation the land required for this purpose to a total area of not more than 70,000 hectares (173,000 acres). Exempt from expropriation are (1) buildings consecrated for divine service and burial places; (2) land which is the property of churches and corporate religious societies, provided that the rights in such property were acquired before February 26, 1908, and (3) land which is the property of recognized charitable foundations, provided that such property was acquired before February 26, 1908.

This REVIEW has already explained the racial situation in Prussia. Elsewhere in this number (page 490) we present a more extended review of the measure, together with the opinion of a number of representative people of all nationalities, written in reply to an open letter by the eminent Polish author, Henryk Sienkiewicz. The bill is a confession of the failure of the entire scheme of the so-called Colonization Commission for settling Germans among the Poles in Prussia. It is a remarkable measure, affirming as it does the right of a great constitutional nation to make one set of laws for one class of its people, and another set for another class.

*Was it a  
Wise  
Measure?*

Chancellor von Bülow, in speaking of the bill, paid deference to the public opinion of the world. He declared that in the matter of this law, however, "which we regard as necessary to ward off serious danger to the interests of the state," Prussia would regard "with complete indifference" the opinion of the rest of the world. Just now, when the Berlin government is facing popular demonstrations over the inequality of the suffrage right and in memory of the "Storm and Stress" period of 1848, it would seem a wiser plan, a cheaper and more effective one, for the Prussian Government to attempt to win the loyal affection of the Poles by even-handed justice. This, unfortunately, is not the Prussian way,—at least, it is not the way of the Junker, who, though not particularly distinguished for his culture and statesmanship, at present rules Prussia by the aid of an antiquated and unfair suffrage law. It is a rather interesting comment on the passage of the new law that but a few days afterward Colonial Secretary Dernburg, in the course of a brilliant speech in the Reichstag, should have uttered these words:

Our colonists must be treated as associates in

government and not as an oppressed and conquered race. We must follow the successful British system of fitting ourselves to circumstances in new countries instead of making the mistake of endeavoring to force the people of our colonies to accept our ideas.

*The Russian  
Naval Bill  
Defeated.*

The Russian Duma is stiffening up its backbone. The loyalty to and respect for the personality of their sovereign and his family that made the visiting Duma delegation at the Czarskoe-Selo palace last month enthusiastically cheer the Empress and the little Czarevitch could not prevent the Duma, in deliberative session, from rejecting almost in toto the government's proposed naval appropriation of the vast sum of \$1,000,000,000 to be spent, during the next decade, in the reconstruction of the Russian navy. Reform in the admiralty is absolutely necessary, the committee appointed to consider the bill declared, before reconstruction of the fleet is advisable, or, indeed, possible. Moreover, Russia has really no urgent need for a navy. Her relations are friendly with all the powers, especially with the great naval powers. Besides, Russia has no oversea colonies and scarcely any oversea trade. There can be no doubt that with one-third of her population on the brink of starvation, the other two-thirds crushed under excessive taxation and honeycombed with discontent, with a treasury already unable to pay the interest on the public debt without borrowing, the expenditure by Russia of \$1,000,000,000 for a navy that is not needed would be an indefensible proposition. The condemnation last month by a military court of Lieutenant-General Stössel to death for the surrender of Port Arthur to the Japanese in 1904 before all means of defense had been exhausted, and the subsequent commutation of this sentence to ten years' imprisonment in a fortress was also an event of world interest.

*A New  
Economic Era  
in the political  
development of the  
Balkan states.*

It may be that a really new era in the political and economic development of the Balkan states will follow upon the definite announcement last month of Baron von Aehrenthal, Austro-Hungarian Minister of Foreign Affairs, that the Vienna government has decided to take advantage of the permission granted Austria by the Treaty of Berlin to construct a railroad across the Sandjak of Novi-Bazar (a Bosnian province occupied by an Austrian military force but governed civilly by Turkey), connecting existing Austrian and Turk-

ish systems, so that there will be one continuous railroad line from Vienna to Salonika. The Turkish railways end at the latter point, and the new Austrian line when completed will not only assure the quick transportation of Austrian and German products to Turkey and the Near East, but, should occasion require it, will permit Austrian troops to penetrate Albania and Macedonia at almost an hour's notice. It would undoubtedly provide a great stimulus to Austrian trade, and be of immense economic benefit to all the Balkan states. Whether it would also, as Russian journals and opponents of the scheme are contending, make Serbia really little more than an Austrian province and establish the Dual Monarchy as the real protector of the Balkan Slavs, is perhaps not so certain, although it is a question for political speculation. Russian comment on the speech of the Austrian Foreign Minister contains the half-veiled threat that Russia also may secure Turkish consent to build a neutralizing line which would cross this projected Austrian one and connect the Danube with the Adriatic Sea. Italy, moreover, has economic and political ambitions in Albania, which include the construction of a railway.

*Diplomacy  
the Turk  
Understands.*

The government at Constantinople, no doubt rightly enough, regards this disagreement between Austria and Russia as the practical annulment of the famous Mürzsteg program,

agreed upon some years ago for the settlement of Macedonian difficulties, and is, of course, gratified at this unmistakable sign of a break-up of the European concert in the matter of the interminable Near Eastern question. The main political and economic bearings of this phase of the railway question in the Balkans are set forth in one of our Leading Articles this month. The British Foreign Office regards the matter of sufficient importance for Foreign Secretary Sir Edward Grey to make a public announcement of its gravity in Parliament. The possibility of another European congress to consider the Macedonian question, which is only a part of the larger Turkish problem, is being discussed in the European press generally.

*The  
"Tatsu Maru"  
Affair.* When the Russian Minister to

China, Pokotilov (who died last month), was in Portsmouth two years ago at the treaty-making between Russia and Japan he was asked what in his opinion was the most important and interesting problem in the Far East. He replied: "Tokio's game at Peking." What this game is cannot be clearly seen from the outside, but a Chino-Japanese war is not part of it. At least such is the verdict of more than one Japanese and Chinese statesman who have been surprised at the interpretation in the West given to the differences last month over the *Tatsu Maru* affair. Early in February,

while anchored off Macao, the *Tatsu Maru*, a Japanese steamer, upon which were found several cases of rifles and a great deal of ammunition, was seized by the Chinese authorities. This cargo, consigned to a Portuguese merchant, was, the Peking authorities contend, really destined for Chinese revolutionists. Therefore its seizure was justified. The Japanese Government denied that the arms were intended for Chinese, and demanded an immediate apology, indemn-



AUSTRIAN AND RUSSIAN RIVALRY IN THE BALKANS.

RUSSIAN BEAR (to Sultan Abdul Hamid): "Look here, my good friend, I object to your letting that double-faced bird go down for a dip; but if he goes I go, too."

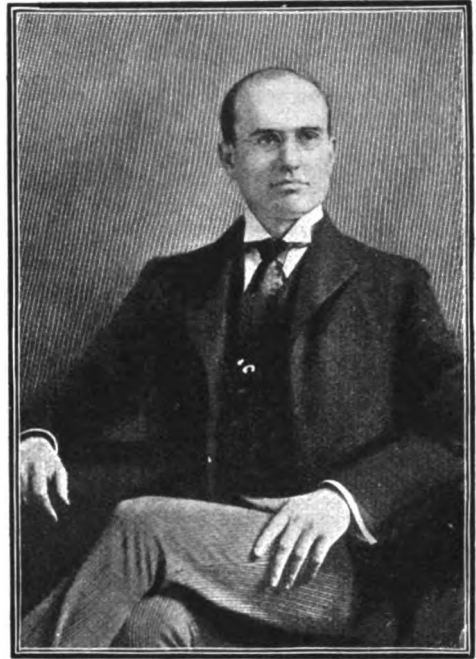
From *Punch* (London).

nity, and restoration of the vessel. China demanded an inquiry and arbitration. Japan maintained that the seizure by the Chinese was unjustified, because the vessel was in Portuguese waters, Macao, the quaint old island at the mouth of the Canton (where, by the way, the famous Portuguese poet Camoens wrote his celebrated poem, "The Lusiad"), being a Portuguese colony. The incident was finally closed by China agreeing to give up the vessel, apologize, and salute the Japanese flag, but declining to pay indemnity for the confiscated arms. The Chinese have had a full-grown revolt in the south on their hands for some years, and have been endeavoring to stamp it out, and, of course, cannot be blamed for their vigilance in the matter. The importance of the incident, while another indication of friction between China and Japan,—a friction which has at times seemed to assume serious proportions over the Manchurian situation,—has been overestimated. While there is a disposition in Europe to believe that Japan is "crowding" China, it is undoubtedly true that the Island Empire, in common with the western powers generally, recognizes the Chinese Government's right to protect itself against internal revolt as well as against outside enemies.



IS THIS JAPAN'S METHOD OF INTRODUCING PROGRESS INTO CHINA?

(The artist of Toklo Puck suggests that if China will not adopt the civilization of the twentieth century she must be forced to do so.)



JUDGE LEBBEUS R. WILFLEY, OF THE UNITED STATES COURT AT SHANGHAI.

*A Just and Fearless Judge.*

The exoneration and commendation by President Roosevelt and Secretary Root of Judge Lebbeus R. Wilfley, of the United States Court at Shanghai, China, against whom charges had been preferred and whose removal had been asked for, will be gratifying to every American who is concerned as to his country's prestige in the Far East and who cares at all for morality in public office. Every traveler in the East knows that Shanghai is one of the worst of those places "east of Suez," where, it might almost be added, "there aren't no Ten Commandments." The center of evil influences from Oriental and western sources, it has provided a great deal of work for the courts and suffered under a great deal of official corruption. Some years ago it was decided to relieve the American Consul at Shanghai of his judicial duties, which were becoming very onerous, and to appoint a special judge to take charge of the legal business of the consulate. Judge Wilfley was chosen. After investigation of the charges now made against him, the President and Secretary Root found that "the charges were due to the fearlessness and integrity with which Judge Wilfley had stamped out vice and crime in Shanghai." In his report to the President, Secretary Root says:

There is a broader view to be taken of this petition as a whole and of the proceedings of the United States Court for China, from which the petitioner has picked out certain details for criticism. American administration in Shanghai had long been notoriously lax and ineffective, and the gamblers and prostitutes of Shanghai generally flourished under the claim of American citizenship and the protection of American indifference. . . . One of the principal causes urging to the formation of the new court was the necessity of doing away with this disgraceful condition of affairs. The evidence is overwhelming that Judge Wilfley has accomplished this work effectively and thoroughly and has cleared the American name from the disgrace that rested upon it. It was not an easy task, and it could not be done except by the stern and active administration of justice. Such an administration necessarily creates resentment and enmity. My opinion is that Judge Wilfley is entitled not to condemnation but to commendation and high credit for his conduct in office.

In indorsing the report the President gives this as his opinion:

It is clear that Judge Wilfley has been attacked not because he has done evil but because he has done good. The assault on him is simply an impeachment of decency and zeal for the public good, and if successful would tend to cow and discourage every honest public servant who dares to withstand the forces banded together for evil, and would do grave damage to the honor and interest of our country in the Orient.

*Japan's  
Financial  
Troubles.*

Questions of finance are troubling Japan even more than problems of emigration. The cost of the war with Russia, the large appropriations for the army and navy, and the purchase of railroads by the state have necessitated large increases in taxation and a rise in the cost of living,—at least 100 per cent. in the past five years, according to some Japanese statisticians. Chinese competition has helped to reduce wages, and the necessity for still further taxation has precipitated almost a revolt in the Mikado's empire. The foreign trade of Japan has also suffered as a result of the financial depression all over the world, although the figures for the empire's trade with Europe and the United States show an increase of approximately 9 per cent. As far as the two governments are concerned there are no more differences on the question of the immigration of Japanese laborers to the United States. Last month our State Department formally approved the suggestions of Japan for the issuing of passport regula-

tions preventing Japanese coolie laborers from coming to the United States. These regulations, in addition to that already issued from Tokio providing that no coolie laborer shall be allowed to leave Japan for Hawaii unless he has relatives there, cover practically the entire ground of difference. It is interesting to note in passing that during the month of February, according to the report of the Bureau of Immigration, 1232 Japanese were admitted, as compared with 3389 in February of last year.

*Arbitration  
Treaties in  
the Senate.*

Thirteen treaties adopted by the Hague Conference last summer, ten of which were signed by the American delegation, were submitted to the Senate by President Roosevelt on February 27 for ratification. The subjects of these were:

(1) For the pacific settlement of international conflicts, being an amendment of the corresponding agreement of July 29, 1899; (2) relative to the discovery of contractual debts; (3) relative to the opening of hostilities; (4) concerning the laws and customs of war on land; (5) concerning the rights and duties of neutral states and individuals in land warfare; (6) regarding the treatment of the enemy's merchant ships at the outbreak of hostilities; (7) regarding the transformation of merchant ships into vessels of war; (8) in regard to the placing of submarine mines; (9) concerning the bombardment of undefended towns by naval forces; (10) for the adaptation of the principles of the Geneva convention to maritime warfare; (11) imposing certain restrictions upon the right of capture in maritime war; (12) providing for the establishment of an international prize court; (13) defining the rights and duties of neutral states in maritime war.

The President also sent to the Senate a declaration, signed by the American delegation, relating to the launching of projectiles from balloons and airships. Six of the treaties,—those relating to the opening of hostilities, the laws and customs of wars on land, the rights and duties of neutral states and individuals in land warfare, the placing of submarine mines, the bombardment of undefended towns by naval forces, and the adaptation of the Geneva convention to principles of maritime warfare,—were at once unanimously approved by the Committee on Foreign Relations and reported to the Senate. It is interesting to note in passing that on February 20 the Senate ratified the general arbitration treaty with France.

# RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From February 18 to March 20, 1908.)

## PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

February 21.—In the Senate, Mr. Perkins (Rep., Cal.) speaks in defense of the battleship cruise....The House devotes the day to District of Columbia business.

February 22.—In the House, an amendment to the District of Columbia Street-Railway bill, providing for "Jim Crow" cars, is rejected.

February 24.—In the Senate, Mr. Gallinger (Rep., N. H.) and Mr. Depew (Rep., N. Y.) speak in support of the Ocean Mail Subsidy bill, and Mr. Whyte (Dem., Md.) and Mr. Simmons (Dem., N. C.) attack the Aldrich Currency bill....The House begins consideration of the Army Appropriation bill.

February 25.—The Senate considers currency legislation and the Indian Appropriation bill. ....The House debates the Army Appropriation bill.

February 26.—The Senate passes the bill to revise criminal laws.

February 28.—The Senate passes the Indian Appropriation bill....The House restores to the Army Appropriation bill the provision for increased pay for enlisted men.

February 29.—The House passes the Army Appropriation bill.

March 2.—The Senate passes the bill of Mr. Lodge (Rep., Mass.) to reorganize the consular service....The House adopts a resolution for an investigation of peonage in the South; 400 private pension bills are passed.

March 4.—The Senate considers the Currency and the bill for increased pay in the army.... The House debates the Postoffice Appropriation bill.

March 6.—The Senate passes the bill increasing the pay of officers and enlisted men of the army....The House adopts a resolution to investigate the charges made by Representative Lilley (Rep., Conn.) of corruption in connection with submarine boats.

March 9.—In the Senate, Mr. Bailey (Dem., Texas) speaks in advocacy of his substitute for the Aldrich Currency bill.

March 10.—In the Senate, Mr. McLaurin (Dem., Miss.) speaks on the pending Currency bill....The House considers the Postoffice Appropriation bill.

March 11.—In the Senate, a message is received from the President in regard to the reinstatement of the soldiers who can prove their innocence in the Brownsville affair.

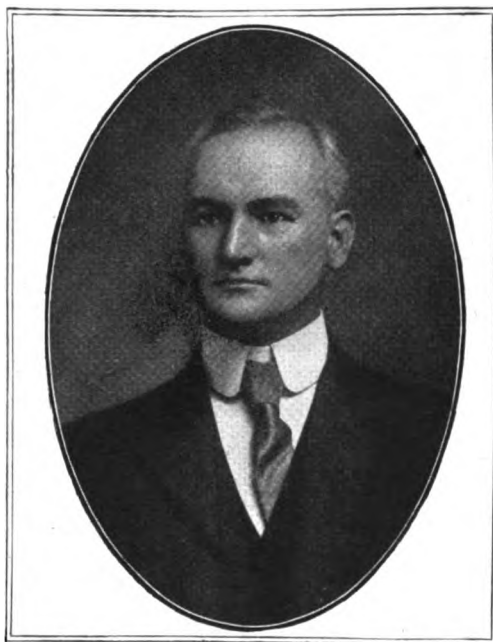
March 12.—In the Senate, Mr. Lodge (Rep., Mass.) speaks in favor of, and Mr. Paynter (Dem., Ky.) against, the Aldrich Currency bill. The House considers the Postoffice Appropriation bill.

March 13.—In the Senate, Mr. Bacon (Dem., Ga.) speaks on alleged executive encroachments on the legislative power, and Mr. Simmons

(Dem., N. C.) in support of the Ship Subsidy bill....The House passes the Postoffice Appropriation bill.

March 14.—The House considers the Pension Appropriation bill.

March 16.—In the Senate, the resolution offered by Mr. Tillman (Dem., S. C.) providing for an inquiry into the conduct of national banks in the recent panic is adopted after a lively debate....The House passes a bill restor-



SENATOR-ELECT FRANK B. GARY, OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

ing the motto "In God We Trust" to the coinage.

March 17.—In the Senate, Mr. Aldrich (Rep., R. I.) reports the amendment to the Currency bill exempting railroad bonds from use as the basis for emergency currency; Mr. La Follette (Rep., Wis.) speaks at length on the Currency bill.

March 19.—In the Senate, Mr. La Follette (Rep., Wis.) continues his speech on the causes of the recent panic....The House passes the Pension Appropriation bill and adopts a resolution asking the President to state the authority by which he governs the Panama Canal Zone.

March 20.—The Senate passes the Ocean Mail Subsidy bill....The House defeats a resolution calling for information collected by the Bureau of Corporations.



## POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

February 19.—A letter from President Roosevelt to the Interstate Commerce Commission calling for data in regard to the matter of the reduction of wages by railroad companies is made public.

February 23.—Ex-Governor Richard Yates (Rep.), of Illinois, announces his candidacy for re-election.

February 24.—Secretary of the Treasury Cortelyou issues a call on national bank depositaries for about \$35,000,000 of the public funds.

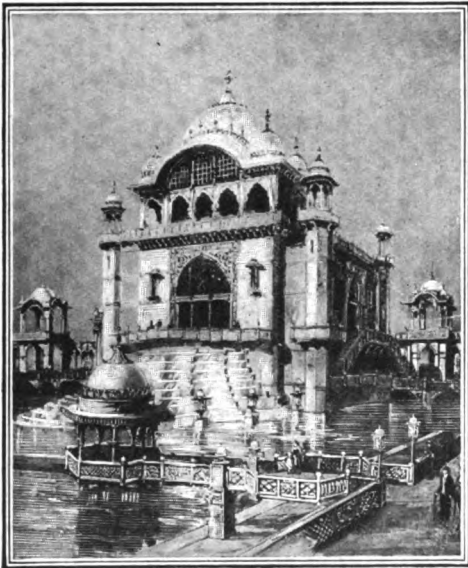
February 26.—The New York State Senate, by a vote of 30 to 19, refuses to remove Otto Kelsey as State Superintendent of Insurance.

February 28.—Ex-Governor W. O. Bradley (Rep.), of Kentucky, is elected United States Senator by the Legislature.

March 3.—The State Republican Convention of Ohio is carried by Secretary Taft by a sweeping majority.

March 4.—Republican State conventions in Ohio and Kansas instruct delegates-at-large to the national convention for Secretary Taft.

March 5.—The Democratic and Populist State conventions of Nebraska endorse William J. Bryan for the Presidential nomination.



THE CONGRESS HALL OF THE FRANCO-BRITISH EXPOSITION.

(One of the interesting international events of the year in England will be the Franco-British Exposition, to be held at Shepherds Bush, London, from May to October. It is officially supported by both the British and French governments and will be devoted to the products of Great Britain and France and their colonies, including Canada. Probably the most popular feature will be the high stadium or amphitheater, accommodating 80,000 people, in which will be held—beginning July 13—the fourth revival of the Olympic Games.)

March 6.—The South Carolina Legislature elects Frank B. Gary United States Senator to succeed the late A. C. Latimer.... The State Democratic Committee of Minnesota endorses Governor Johnson of that State for the Presidency.... The New York Court of Appeals decides that the ballot boxes in the New York City election of 1905 may be opened.

March 7.—The Republican State Committee of New York adopts resolutions indorsing Governor Hughes for the Presidency.

March 9.—The special committee of the House of Representatives begins the investigation of the charges of corruption in connection with contracts for submarine boats brought by Representative Lilley (Rep., Conn.).

March 12.—The Nebraska Republican State Convention instructs delegates to the national convention for Secretary Taft.... Complaints are filed with Governor Hughes, of New York, asking for the removal of Mayor McClellan and Police Commissioner Bingham, of New York City, for failure to enforce the excise laws.

March 13.—In the prosecution of the Pennsylvania Capitol frauds, four of the defendants are found guilty, after a seven-weeks' trial.

March 16.—Governor Hughes, of New York, appoints ex-Chief Judge Charles Andrews, of the Court of Appeals, as commissioner to hear certain charges brought against District Attorney Jerome, of New York County.

March 18.—The State Republican Convention of Iowa instructs for Secretary Taft, indorses Senator Allison (Rep.) for re-election, and approves the tariff-revision plank in the Ohio Republican platform.

## POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

February 18.—A British royal commission, with Lord James of Kierford as chairman, is appointed to investigate the manufacture of whiskey.... A new ministry is formed in Queensland, of which Mr. Kidston is premier and chief secretary.... In the German Reichstag the colonial estimates are considered.

February 19.—The Governor of Natal signs a warrant releasing 1500 native prisoners.

February 20.—The trial of the Russian officers concerned in the fall of Port Arthur concludes at St. Petersburg; General Stössel is condemned to death.... The French Senate approves the policy of the government in Morocco.... Russian naval plans call for the expenditure of over \$1,000,000,000 in the next nine years.

February 21.—The National Liberal Federation of Great Britain meets at Leicester.

February 22.—The French naval officer Ullmo is found guilty of treason and is condemned to transportation for life.

February 24.—Nunzio Nasi, former Italian Minister of Public Instruction, is sentenced by the Senate sitting as a high court to eleven months and twenty days in prison for thefts from the state treasury.

February 26.—The Czar of Russia receives 320 members of the Duma and urges the passage of the government's measures for agrarian reforms.



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GOV. JOHN A. JOHNSON.

(Minnesota's candidate for the Presidency.)

February 27.—The Polish Expropriation bill passes the Prussian Diet in its original form.... The Chancellor of the Exchequer introduces a bill in the House of Commons which will wipe out 30,000 licenses in Great Britain.

February 28.—The British House of Commons passes on first reading and shelves for this session the Women's Enfranchisement bill.

February 29.—The Canadian House of Commons adjourns at midnight, after a fifty-seven-hours' sitting over the estimates of the Marine Department.... King Manuel of Portugal issues decrees fixing March 5 as the date of a general election, and convoking the regular Cortes on May 29.

March 4.—The Chinese Government approves the series of laws intended to introduce western banking methods.... The Swedish Parliament passes the bill providing for a railway ferry between Trelleborg and Sassnitz.

March 6.—The Russian Government urges the Duma to take action on the budget.

March 8.—In the Argentine elections the government secures a majority of 70 in the Chamber of Deputies.

March 11.—The British House of Lords refuses to advance the government's Scottish Small Holdings bill to second reading.

March 12.—Lord Rosebery in an address declares Socialism to be a greater menace to the British Empire than Protection.

March 13.—The British House of Commons rejects by a majority of 149 the Labor party's Unemployed Workmen's bill.

March 15.—The Russian Minister of Justice asks the Duma to vote \$1,000,000 to enlarge the overcrowded prisons.

March 17.—The German Government refuses the proposal made by members of the Reichstag Appropriation Committee to use the war fund of \$30,000,000 in gold stored in Potsdam to relieve the current needs of the empire.... The Czar confirms the Russian court's recommendations to commute the death sentence passed on General Stössel to ten years' imprisonment.

March 18.—The Porto Rican Legislature adjourns after passing the Public-Utilities bill and large appropriations for good roads and education.

March 19.—Scores of persons are injured in suffrage riots in Berlin, Germany.

#### INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

February 19.—The Japanese Government concedes further emigration restrictions to the United States.

February 20.—The United States Senate passes the arbitration treaty concluded with France.

February 21.—An invitation for the American battleship fleet to visit Australia is received by the Navy Department at Washington.

February 22.—France decides not to surrender to Haiti the refugees in the consulates, and will deport them under promise not to return to Haiti during the term of President Nord.

February 24.—Great crowds visit the American battleships in Callao Harbor, Peru.

February 26.—The British House of Commons adopts a resolution urging the speedy transfer of control of the Congo Independent State.

February 29.—Japan demands an apology and an indemnity from China for the seizure of the *Tatsu Maru*.

March 1.—China decides to surrender the steamer *Tatsu Maru* to Japan.

March 2.—Chinese at Vancouver file claims aggregating \$150,000 for damages sustained in the riots of September, 1907.

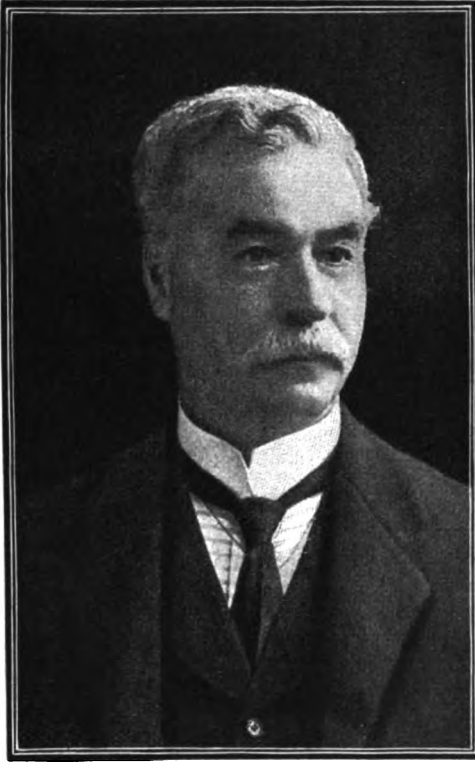
March 3.—President Castro of Venezuela again specifically declines the request of the State Department at Washington to arbitrate American claims.... The Colombian agent sent to settle the disputes with Venezuela regarding navigation and boundaries reports that he has been unable to reach an understanding.... It is announced that the diplomatic difficulties between Mexico and Guatemala have been settled; Mexico will establish a separate legation at the Guatemalan capital.

March 5.—The terms of the Congo annexation treaty show that the rights of King Leopold of Belgium are to last during his lifetime, and that the concessions to American companies are guarded.

March 7.—Wu Ting Fang, the new Chinese Minister to the United States, arrives in Washington.

March 8.—Venezuela pays to Mexico the first installment of a loan originally made to Colombia and assumed by Venezuela.

March 11.—Signor Tittoni outlines Italy's



THE LATE HUGH BONNER, THE WORLD'S GREATEST  
FIRE-FIGHTER.

(Fire Commissioner of New York. Organizer of the Manila Fire Department, and inventor of much fire-fighting apparatus used all over the world.)

policy in the Near East before the Chamber of Deputies, indicating his belief that the powers will reach an agreement on all questions....The Russian Duma passes a bill establishing an embassy in Japan.

March 13.—It is announced that the American battleship fleet on its return to the Atlantic will complete a cruise around the world, visiting Hawaii, Samoa, Australia, and the Philippines.

March 14.—It is announced that China will pay an indemnity to Japan and retain the arms seized on board the *Tatsu Maru*; Japan will enforce regulations restricting the importation of arms into China....The Superior Court in Venezuela affirms the decision of the lower court imposing a fine of \$5,000,000 on the New York & Bermudez Asphalt Company for promoting the Matos rebellion.

March 16.—British, French, and German cruisers are ordered to Haiti.

March 20.—Peruvian troops in pursuit of smugglers enter a Chilean town in Tacna despite opposition of the police....An invitation for the American battleship fleet to visit Japan is accepted by the Government at Washington.

#### OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

February 20.—The American battleship fleet arrives at Callao, Peru....A bequest of \$300,-

000 to Harvard University is made in the will of Frederick Sheldon, filed at Newport, R. I.

February 21.—Turkish troops raid the frontier village of Carina, in the province of Van, and capture fifty-one Armenians, eight of whom are sentenced to death and the others to life imprisonment....In a coal-mine explosion near Durham, England, fourteen men are killed.

February 22.—Employees of all the railroads in Uruguay go on strike.

February 23.—Father Leo Heinrichs, a Catholic priest in Denver, is shot and killed by Giuseppe Alio, a Sicilian anarchist.

February 24.—A provisional agreement ending the strike in the Tyne shipyards is reached in London.

February 25.—The first of the Hudson tunnels connecting New York City with New Jersey is opened (see page 425).

February 26.—The Texas Supreme Court confirms the decision of the lower courts ousting the Waters-Pierce Oil Company from the State and assessing damages of \$1,600,000.

February 28.—An unsuccessful attempt is made on the life of the Shah of Persia.

February 29.—The American battleship fleet sails from Callao, Peru, for Magdalena Bay.

March 1.—Thirteen persons are killed and fifteen injured by an avalanche in Switzerland....A blizzard in Scotland and parts of England and Wales causes much suffering and damage....Seven Russian Terrorists are hanged for conspiracy against Grand Duke Nicholas Nicolaievich and the Minister of Justice....Tampa, Fla., suffers a loss by fire estimated at \$600,000....Excavation for the Panama Canal aggregates 28,414,934 cubic yards, or one-fifth the total estimate.

March 2.—The Banco de Minero, of Mexico, owned by Ambassador Creel, is robbed of \$300,000 Mexican....As a result of an alleged anarchist plot, Chief of Police Shippy, of Chicago, his son, and a coachman are wounded by an unknown man, who in turn is shot and killed by the Chief.

March 4.—One hundred and sixty-seven children are burned to death in a schoolhouse fire at North Collinwood, near Cleveland.

March 5.—The Union Bank of Commerce in Rio de Janeiro closes its doors.

March 7.—The first of the big new battleships for the German navy, the *Nassau*, 18,000 tons, is launched at Wilhelmshaven in the presence of the Emperor....Justice Clark, of the New York Supreme Court, enters an order permitting the Knickerbocker Trust Company to reopen its doors.

March 10.—President Roosevelt makes an address to the International Congress of Mothers, at Washington, on the welfare of the child.

March 12.—The steamship *Mauretania* completes the trip from Sandy Hook to Daunt's Rock in five days and five minutes, making a new eastward record....W. W. Astor increases his gift to the Oxford University endowment fund to \$100,000....The American battleship fleet arrives at Magdalena Bay, two days ahead of schedule time (see page 456).

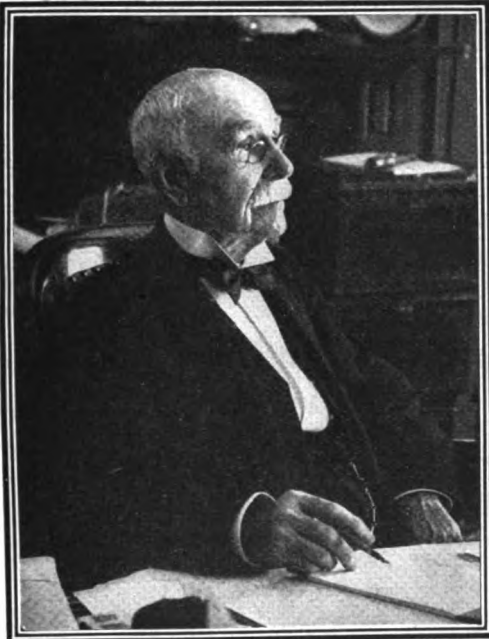
March 13.—Fire in Bahia destroys property

valued at \$1,000,000 in the business section and causes a loss of several lives. . . . It is announced that the Andover Theological Seminary will be removed to Cambridge, Mass., and become affiliated with the Harvard Divinity School.

March 14.—The American torpedo flotilla arrives at Panama, two days ahead of schedule.

March 15.—The Chilean section of the trans-Andean tunnel on the Arica & La Paz Railway is opened.

March 18.—Judge Wood, of Boise, Idaho,



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THE LATE SENATOR WILLIAM PINKNEY WHYTE,  
OF MARYLAND

sentences Harry Orchard to death, but includes a recommendation of pardon.

March 19.—The Bank of England reduces its rate of discount to 3 per cent.

#### OBITUARY.

February 18.—Gen. Tung Fuh Siang, leader of the Chinese Boxer rebellion of 1900.

February 19.—Brig.-Gen. Francis S. Dodge, U. S. A., retired, 66.

February 20.—United States Senator Asbury C. Latimer, of South Carolina, 57.

February 21.—Crosby S. Noyes, editor of the *Washington Star*, 83. . . . Mr. W. Callow, the English water-color painter, 95. . . . Miss Harriet G. Hosmer, a well-known sculptor, 77.

February 22.—Rt. Rev. Henry Yates Satterlee, Protestant Episcopal Bishop of Washington, 65.

February 23.—Brig.-Gen. Rufus Saxton, U. S. A., retired, 83. . . . George Helm Yeaman, a New York lawyer and author, 78.

February 24.—Dr. Marco Aurelio Soto, ex-President of Honduras, 60. . . . Prof. Edward Gaylord Bourne, of Yale University, 48.

February 26.—James Munro, former Premier of Victoria, 76.

February 28.—Pauline Lucca, the famous Austrian singer, 67.

February 29.—Henry Loomis Nelson, professor of political science in Williams College, 62.

March 1.—Judge Albert Clements Killam, chairman of the Dominion Railway Commission, one of Canada's most widely known jurists, 60.

March 2.—Bishop William Wallace Duncan, of the Methodist Episcopal Church South, 68. . . . Rev. Jacob Chamberlain, D.D., identified with Indian mission work for almost half a century, 73. . . . James H. Oliver, inventor and manufacturer of the "chilled plow," 84.

March 4.—United States Senator Redfield Proctor, of Vermont, 77 (see frontispiece). . . . Rev. Joseph Roy, D.D., formerly field secretary of the American Missionary Association, 80.

March 5.—Lily Hanbury, the English actress (Mrs. Herbert Guédalla), 34. . . . George Chickering Munzig, the portrait painter, 58.

March 6.—Ex-Congressman Lewis Cass Carpenter, of South Carolina, 72.

March 7.—M. D. Pokotilov, Russian Minister to China. . . . Frederick Warren Freer, the Chicago painter, 59.

March 8.—Dr. Daniel Bennett St. John Roosa, founder of the New York Post-Graduate Medical School, 70. . . . Prof. William Ashbrook Kellerman, head of the botanical department of the Ohio State University, 58. . . . Congressman Adolph Meyer, of Louisiana, 66.

March 10.—Ex-Congressman Allen C. Durbow, of Chicago, 50.

March 11.—Edmondo de Amicis, the Italian traveler and author, 61.

March 12.—John L. Smithmeyer, architect of the Congressional Library, 76.

March 13.—Fire Commissioner Hugh Bonner, of New York, 69. . . . Alfred Peats, organizer of the wall-paper trust, 42. . . . Gen. Giovanni Battista de Giorgis, for some years chief of the international gendarmerie in Macedonia, 64.

March 14.—Rear-Admiral Theodore S. Kane, U. S. N., retired, 67. . . . Brig.-Gen. Royal Thaxter Frank, U. S. A., retired, 75.

March 15.—Federal Judge Charles Dixon Clark, of Tennessee, 61.

March 16.—Clara Novello, one of the most famous of European singers, 90. . . . Gen. A. Saunders Piatt, of Ohio, 86.

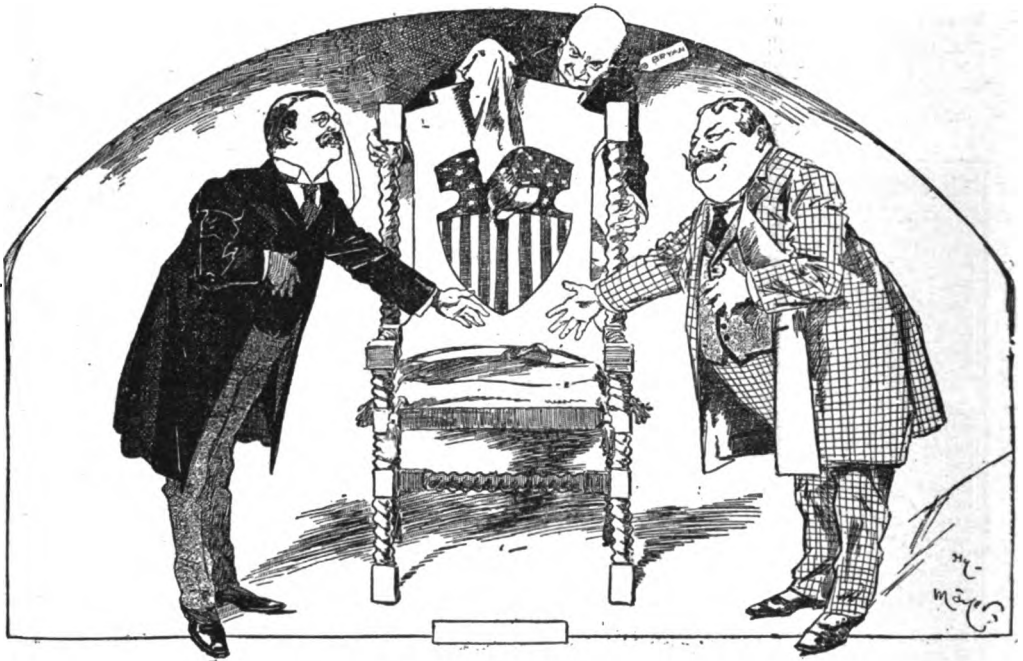
March 17.—United States Senator William Pinkney Whyte, of Maryland, 83. . . . Rt. Rev. Gustav A. Rouxel, auxiliary Bishop of the Roman Catholic Archdiocese of New Orleans, 68. . . . Cardinal Casali del Drago, representative of the Roman nobility in the Sacred College, 70. . . . Dr. William Bradford Eaton, an authority on bacteriology, 40.

March 18.—Gregory Androowitch Gerschunin, the Russian revolutionist, 40.

March 19.—Sir Nicholas Roderick O'Connor, British Ambassador to Turkey, 65.

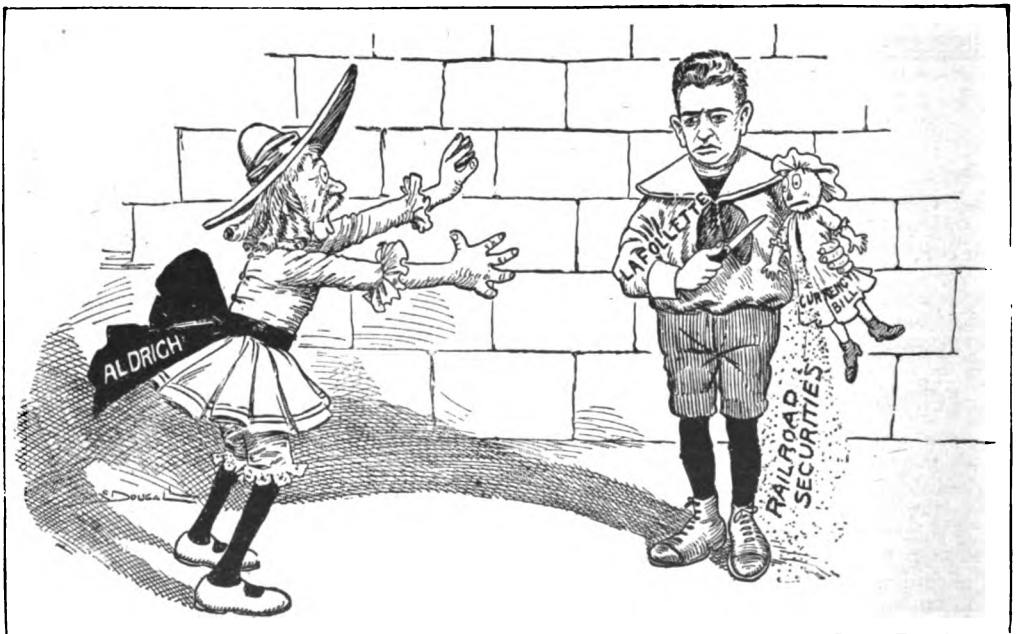
March 20.—Bishop Charles Henry Fowler, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, 70. . . . M. Eugene Pereire, honorary president of the French Line, 76.

## CURRENT TOPICS IN CARTOONS.



"TAFT OR I."

From the *Public Ledger* (Philadelphia).



LETTING OUT THE SAWDUST.

From the *North American* (Philadelphia).



"WILL YOU PLEASE HUSH?"  
From the *Herald* (New York).



BRYAN: "Ah, this face I find,—and I thought she was all mine!"  
From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland).





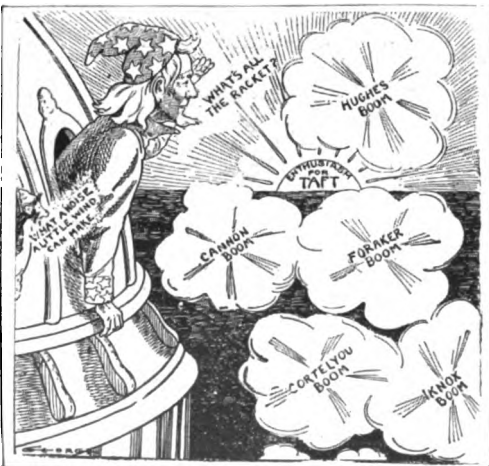
LOOKS LIKE REAL TROUBLE.

"The Independence Party is not going to support William J. Bryan."—Statement by W. R. Hearst. From the *Evening Mail* (New York).



MESSEURS. DICK AND FORAKER AT TIFT'S CHARIOT WHEELS.

From the *Constitution* (Atlanta).



BUBBLES DON'T LAST LONG IN THE SUN'S RAYS.

From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).



THE CONSERVATIVE RADICAL, MR. HEARST—HIS PREACHING AND PRACTICE.

From the *Post-Intelligencer* (Seattle).



IRRESISTIBLE!

(With apologies to the Merry Widow.)

"It is generally agreed that Bryan will have no opposition at Denver. He is the whole thing in the Democratic party. Everything is moving his way."—News Despatch.

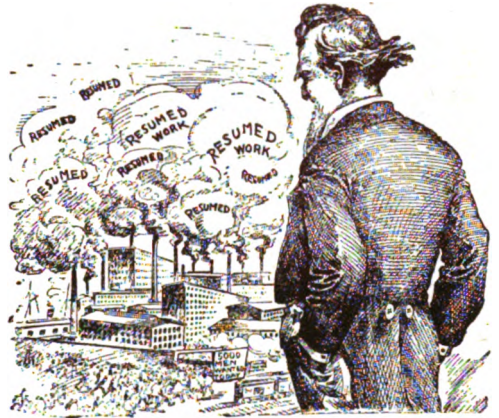
From the *Press* (Philadelphia).





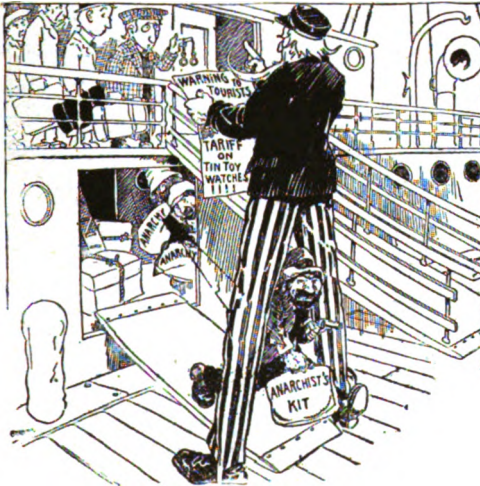
UNCLE SAM (to John Bull): "I sometimes think if I had less hair and you had more, we should both be better off."

From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane).



UNCLE SAM: "Looks like old times again."

From the *Globe* (New York).



SPEAKING OF TARIFF REVISION,—

Wouldn't it be well to bother less about the tourist with two tin watches and pay more attention to the man with the murder outfit?

From the *Daily News* (Chicago).



PRESIDENT CASTRO ON THE WARPATH AGAIN.

From the *Press* (New York).



"WHERE ARE THE LAMBS OF YESTERDAY? SOMETHING HAS DRIVEN THEM ALL AWAY!"



IN CASE OF A PANIC STORM, AN ALDRICH FINANCIAL BILL COMES IN HANDY,—TO THE "BIG FELLOW."

From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).

**THE MAGAZINE WRITERS' OPPORTUNITY.**

The fleet arrives four days ahead of time,—something must be wrong.

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).

**HERE WE ARE AT LAST.**

Apropos of the completion of the tunnel from New York to New Jersey.

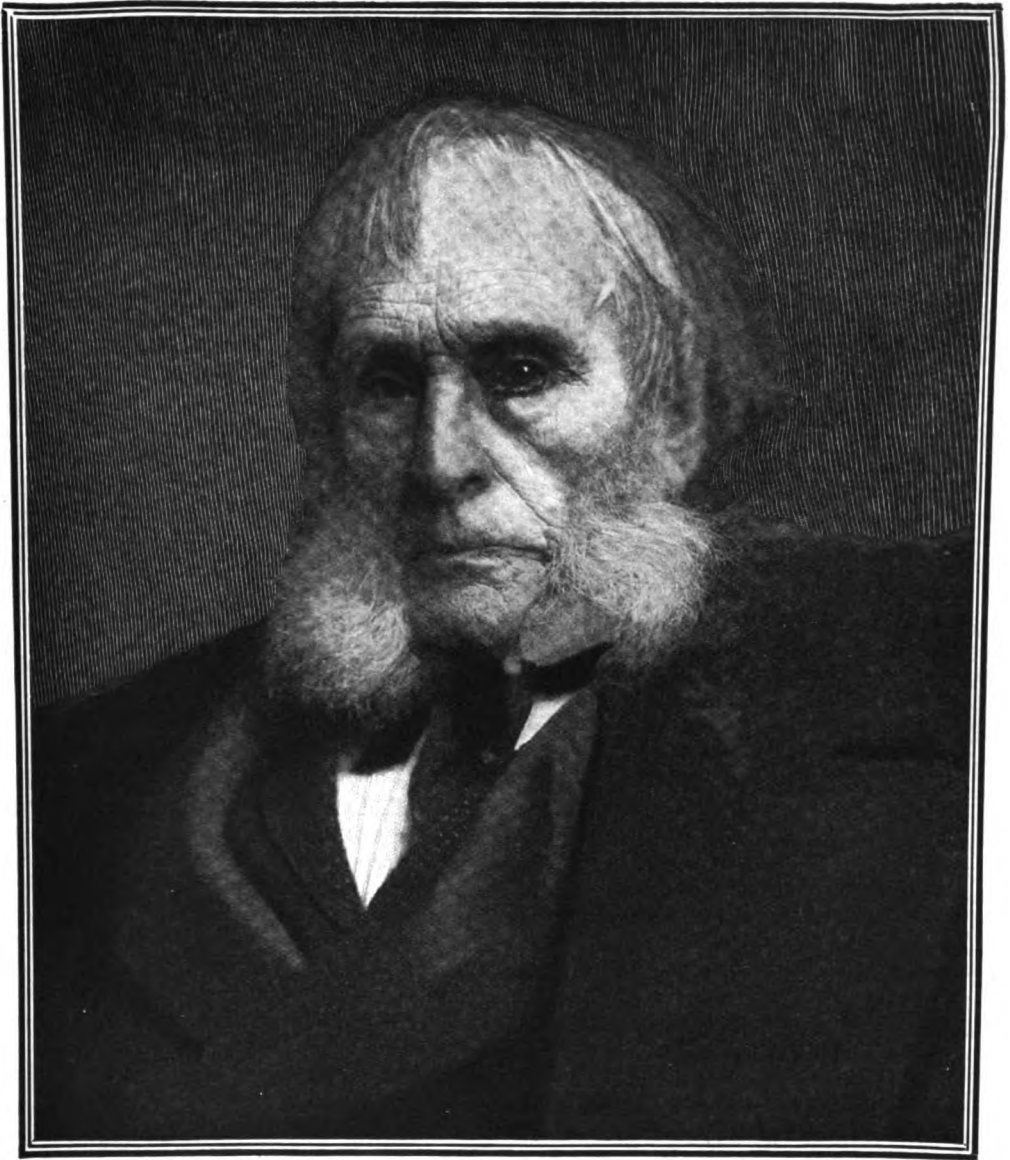
From the *Globe* (New York).



Copyright, 1908, by *American Journal-Examiner*.

PHARAOH'S DAUGHTER FINDS MOSES IN THE BULRUSHES! IN FACT, SHE FINDS SEVERAL OF HIM!

From the *American* (New York).



## JOHN BIGELOW, NEW YORK'S FIRST CITIZEN.

**T**HE dean of New York journalists and authors, Mr. John Bigelow, is as active and alert at ninety as are most men of half his years. President of the New York Public Library trustees and president also of the Century Association, Mr. Bigelow has found time within the past few weeks, after seeing through the press the "Letters and Literary Memorials of Samuel J. Tilden," to bring out a pamphlet which deals in a vigorous fashion with our methods of canal construction at Panama, to take a prominent part in the speech-making incident to the opening of the Hudson Tunnel, described in this number of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*, and to follow with his customary keenness of insight the trend of national and international politics,—for to be a nonagenarian as Mr. Bigelow interprets the part implies anything but a condition of exemption from interest or participation in the doings of to-day. To him the affairs of the present have a vital mean-

ing. Never in his long life has he been more thoroughly alive to the responsibilities of citizenship than he is at this moment.

The type of leadership in our public life that Mr. Bigelow's career exemplifies is only incidentally associated with official station. It is sometimes said of a public man leaving office that he has "retired" from public life, as if the office represented his sole opportunity for public service. With Mr. Bigelow, on the other hand, office has been only an incident in what might be termed a public career of more than sixty years; for in all that time, whether holding any office or not, and perhaps all the more effectually when free from official obligations, he has rendered noteworthy public service through the influence that his pen has exerted upon public opinion.

Coming to New York as a young law student, a graduate of Union College, in the '30's of the last century, Mr. Bigelow very soon began to write on political subjects for the press, and after a few years left the legal profession for journalism. Gov. Silas Wright appointed him State Prison Inspector, and he was instrumental in putting Sing Sing Prison on a self-supporting basis. The attractions of journalism led Mr. Bigelow, in 1849, to become a business partner and editorial colleague of William Cullen Bryant in the conduct of the *Evening Post*. During the next twelve years, in the heat of the anti-slavery debate, the *Post* was developed into one of the best newspaper properties in New York. Mr. Bigelow was a sagacious manager as well as a vigorous and effective writer.

After the outbreak of the Civil War Mr. Bigelow was appointed Consul-General of the United States at Paris. Here his journalistic training and instinct availed more than once to our national advantage in promoting relations with the empire of Napoleon III. when that government was on the point of allying itself openly with the Southern Confederacy. It was Consul-General Bigelow who wrote and published in 1863 a treatise which went far to disabuse the French mind of exaggerated notions concerning the South's elements of commercial strength, and thus made plain the futility of seeking the dismemberment of the Union as a matter of French policy. Later, Mr. Bigelow discovered evidence of the imperial government's connivance in supplying four ironclads for the Confederate navy, and his skillful use of this evidence completely frustrated the plot. Many years afterward he told the story

in "France and the Confederate Navy" (Harpers, 1888). In short, Consul Bigelow had magnified his office, and in the last year of the war he was made Minister Plenipotentiary on the death of Minister Dayton. The removal of the French troops from Mexico was brought about while he held that diplomatic post,—at that time second in importance only to the English mission held by Charles Francis Adams.

Upon his return from Europe, in 1874, Mr. Bigelow became chairman of the New York State Canal Commission, whose recommendations led to extensive reforms during Governor Tilden's administration. Mr. Bigelow was Secretary of State of New York in 1875-'76.

For the past forty years Mr. Bigelow has been engaged in literary labors. While in France he discovered and purchased the original manuscript of Benjamin Franklin's "Autobiography." This he edited and extended by the use of Franklin's letters so as to comprise the "Life of Franklin Written by Himself." During the lifetime of Samuel J. Tilden Mr. Bigelow edited the speeches and public writings of that statesman, and after his death he wrote the authorized Tilden biography, which has just been supplemented by two volumes of "Letters and Literary Memorials," also edited by Mr. Bigelow, who in the intervening years has brought out a life of William Cullen Bryant, "Some Recollections of Edouard Laboulaye," "The Mystery of Sleep," and many brochures on timely topics.

Under the will of Samuel J. Tilden, of which Mr. Bigelow was one of the three executors, a large proportion of the estate was to be devoted to a free library for the city of New York. Mr. Bigelow was made president of the Tilden Trust, and after its consolidation with the Astor and Lenox Foundations he became president of the Board of Trustees of the New York Public Library, which circulates annually among the people of New York nearly 5,500,000 volumes and is now one of the greatest institutions of its kind in the world. Whether the service has been adequately recognized or not, it means much to New York that Mr. Bigelow has been active during these formative years in the direction of this big library enterprise. If we would know his own ideal of service, perhaps we need not look beyond the title of one of his recent writings,—*"The Useful Life the Crown of the Simple Life."*

W. B. S.



# THE ART SEASON IN NEW YORK.

BY ERNEST KNAUFFT.

NEW YORK is becoming more and more the art center of the United States. The regular annual exhibition held at the Fine Arts Building, 215 West Fifty-seventh Street, the occasional exhibits at the art dealers' galleries, and the permanent collections at the Metropolitan Museum, afford to visitors to the metropolis the opportunity of studying not only the art of to-day but the art of yesterday as well,—not only native art, but the art of Europe.

This season has been particularly rich in opportunities, culminating with the Saint Gaudens Memorial Exhibition now being held at the Metropolitan Museum of Art. This is an innovation for the Metropolitan Museum. Many years ago a one-man exhibition was held, but it showed the work of a foreigner, George F. Watts. Never before has an American been so honored.

The value of the Saint Gaudens exhibition can hardly be over-estimated. This is the ideal way to gauge the capabilities of a genius. To see side by side the two Lincoln statues, the one standing, the other seated, is most illuminating to the public, showing them as it does the significance of a pose, and the possibilities,—as in music,—of variation upon a particular theme. Homer Saint Gaudens, the son of the sculptor, writes in the *Century* for March in regard to these two statues, twenty-three years apart in their execution: "Saint Gaudens realized his long cherished hope of creating a seated Lincoln, a pose which he had considered while evolving his standing statue of that President. He now set his mind upon Lincoln the head of the State, rather than Lincoln the man, as in his earlier monument, though he still wished a gaunt Lincoln in a gaunt yet official chair, as he had placed a gaunt Sherman on a gaunt horse. So, to reach his solution of combining the personal with the national, he shifted the three four-foot models of the statue back and forth over seats of countless shapes and sizes."

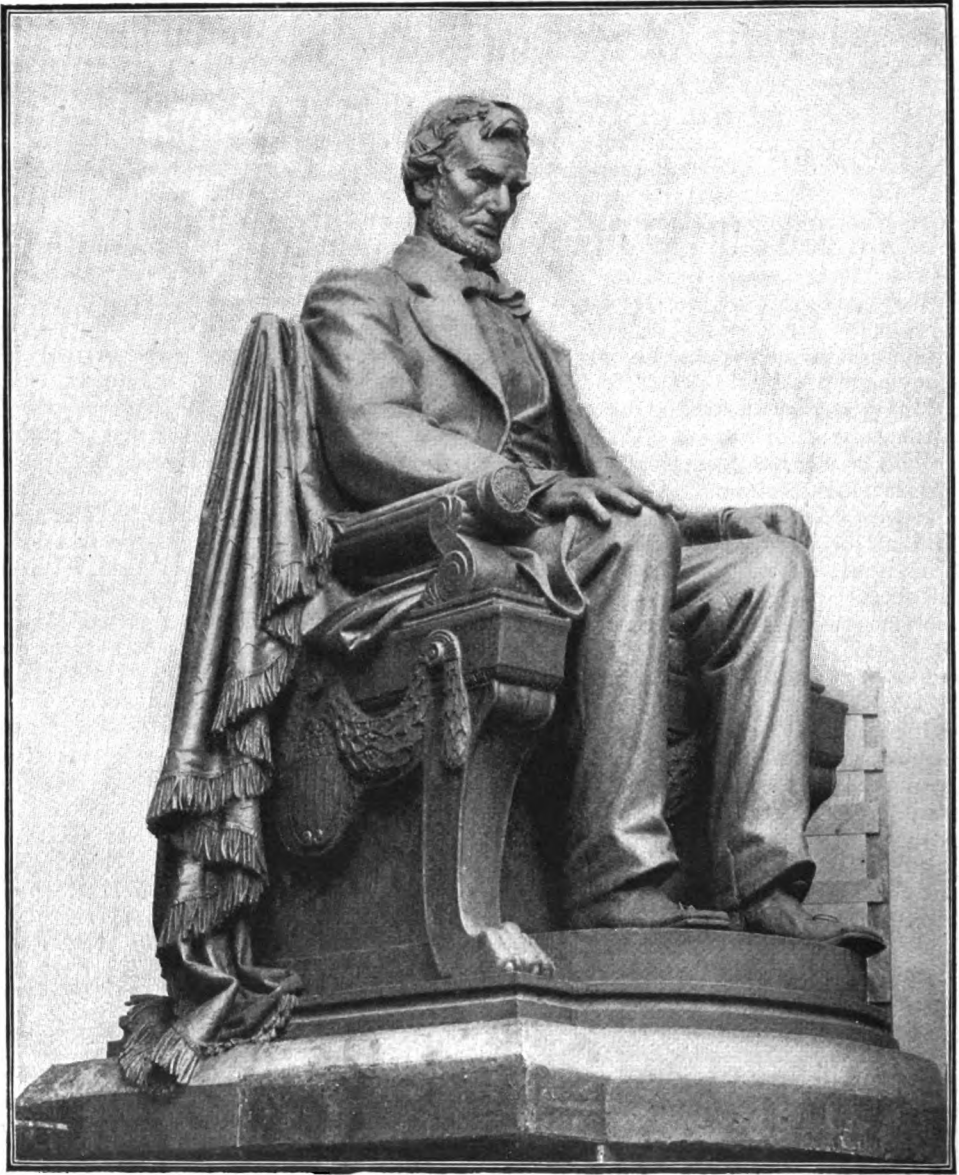
To see the original designs,—about the size of a dinner plate,—for our recent coins, and to see in a case near by the actual coins, is to obtain enlightenment upon the problem of the medalist's art in a way that one cannot obtain it from reading a verbal de-

scription. To see the many variations of a single theme, like the Stevenson, in the large and small circular plaques, and again with a changed detail in the rectangular tablet for a church in Edinburgh, and to view the many works in low and high relief, executed in all degrees of scale, from the tiny cameos cut in his apprentice days to the colossal Shaw Memorial, is to realize that another problem for the sculptor, and one that Saint Gaudens never dodged, is that of suitability of subject-matter and scale to the fitness and area. The Stevenson plaque, made first as a token of friendship, when made as a church memorial was changed in subject; a quill pen substituted for a cigarette held in the right hand, was more fitting for a church, and in place of the ivy border a garland of laurel, Scotch-heather and Samoan hibiscus frames the figure. Mr. Homer Saint Gaudens, writing of this tablet, tells us that "the 1052 letters of the inscription, which contains quotations from Stevenson's poetry, were modelled,—not stamped,—twelve consecutive times"! How little do we realize the importance of spacing to the sculptor. To see the artist at play, as in his caricatures, and to have numerous examples of his portraits,—from the head he made of his father in 1867 to the John Hay of 1904,—are object lessons in the theory and practice of the grand art of sculpture.

At the Fine Arts Building, 215 West Fifty-seventh Street, we have seen the "Fall Academy," and at "The Architectural League," E. H. Blashfield's studies for his noble mural decoration in the College of the City of New York, and where at present, until April 18, is held the "Spring Academy," with four examples of Sargent, six of Saint Gaudens, two of Winslow Homer, two of J. Alden Weir, one John La Farge, and characteristic canvases from most of the leading artists of the country, together with a sidewall devoted to the work of the younger school, including some forcible color by George Bellows, Jonas Lie, and John Sloan.

At the "Montrose Gallery" have been seen the works of Dewing, Tryon, Weir, Horatio Walker, Dow, Hassam, Metcalf, and the "Ten American Painters."

The public is frequently treated to occa-



Copyright, 1907, by Augusta H. Saint Gaudens.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN, BY AUGUSTUS SAINT GAUDENS.

(From a clay model of the original, dated 1907, now at the Metropolitan Museum, New York, to be erected in the South Side of Chicago, through the bequest of the late John Crerar.)

sional displays of sketches or compositions, as shown at the "Photo-Secession Gallery," in the series of drawings by the sculptor Auguste Rodin, and the colored drawings by Pamela Coleman Smith.

Etchings and lithographs by modern Dutch artists have recently been shown at the Lenox Library. One of the most novel and instructive exhibitions of the sea-

son was that of the "Arts and Crafts" held at the rooms of the "National Arts Club," 119 East Nineteenth Street. The Society of Miniature Painters recently exhibited at "Knoedler's," and W. J. Baer, Laura Coombs Hills, and many others gave evidence that miniature art in America has reached a certain completeness it has never known before in any country.



THE JOINING OF NEW JERSEY AND NEW YORK BY THE HUDSON TUNNELS.

(From a cartoon by H. P. Tracy, courtesy of the Ingersoll-Rand Company, N. Y.)

## THE ACHIEVEMENT OF THE HUDSON TUNNELS.

BY LOUIS E. VAN NORMAN.

**M**ANHATTAN is no longer an island.

The past few months have seen the accomplished fact of a land connection by rail between the island of Manhattan and Long Island, Westchester County, and the State of New Jersey. The Subway extensions to the Bronx and Brooklyn, the completion of the Pennsylvania and Belmont tunnels to Long Island City, and the opening to passenger traffic of the first of the long-delayed Hudson tunnels between New York and New Jersey have made it possible for a citizen of San Francisco to leave his city and, scarcely leaving cover, to consult records in Borough Hall, Brooklyn, or consult a real-estate dealer in the Bronx.

"The moving of New Jersey bodily three miles nearer to New York in point of time,"—such is the characterization of the completion of the Hudson Tunnel enterprise made by President Roosevelt upon the occasion of the opening of the upper tubes on February 25, last. This enterprise will be a monument to the daring, patience, and constructive skill of a dozen or more men, chief of whom are W. G. McAdoo, president of the Hudson & Manhattan Railroad Company; Walter G. Oakman, president of the Hudson Companies, the construction corporation; and Pliny Fisk and William M. Barnum, of the banking-house of Harvey Fisk & Sons, which financed the enterprise. It has been a highly creditable achievement from the standpoints of the financier and the engineer, as well as a triumphant solution of what is undoubtedly the greatest present and probably the greatest future transportation problem confronting the metropolis.

### FINANCING OF THE ENTERPRISE.

The financial and administrative history of the idea may be briefly told, although it is a story full of hard work and creative enterprise. Back in 1874 De Witt Clinton Hasbines, a Western railroad man,—with, however, no particular training as an engineer,—started the enterprise and actually began the construction of a brick-wall tunnel from the present Hoboken terminal. He organized, with himself as president and manager, the Hudson Tunnel Railroad Company, with a capital of \$10,000,000. One or two serious accidents and some legal and financial difficulties interfered with the progress of the work, until, in 1902, the New York & Jersey Railroad Company, under Mr. McAdoo, began serious work. The next year this was merged with the Hudson & Manhattan Railroad Company, and still later a corporation under the name of the Hudson Companies was formed to conduct the construction and real-estate operations for the railroad company. The financing of the enterprise has been done by Harvey Fisk & Sons by issuing and selling bonds, and it is estimated that \$70,000,000 will have been expended when the entire work is completed.

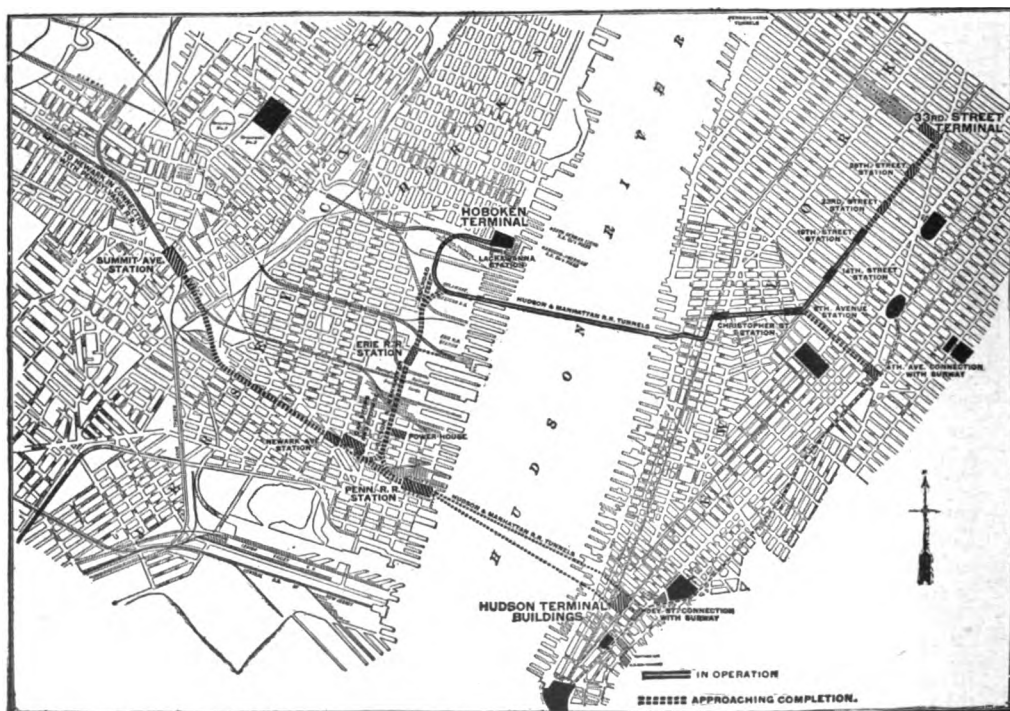
The Hudson Tunnel system, the upper section of which was opened for passenger traffic on February 25 with appropriate ceremonies, marks the completion of the first scientific conception of the terminal transportation problem presented to New York by its island position. The elevated railroads, the bridges over the East River, the trolley lines, and even the Subway, have been to an extent iso-



lated developments to meet special conditions. The Pennsylvania tunnels have of course contemplated handling the business of that one great railroad entering New York. The Hudson Tunnels, on the other hand, in themselves the development and slow growth of a third of a century of effort, to-day contemplate the rapid, efficient, and comfortable handling of the traffic, present and future, which comes to New York through the State of New Jersey, not only as long-distance travelers, but in the form of the vast local traffic of commuters and shoppers. New Yorkers are apt to forget that only one great railroad at present actually enters their city,—the New York Central,—all the traffic by other lines coming in on ferry-boats. Almost all the transcontinental passenger traffic reaches the metropolis by this at best slow and inconvenient method. When both sections of the Hudson Tunnels and the lines running along the New Jersey shore and connecting the lower New York terminals with the great new Pennsylvania station in Manhattan are in operation, passengers on almost all the great railroads will be able to enter into the heart of the business and shopping districts of New York without the present inconvenient and slow transfer by ferry.

#### TERRITORY SERVED BY THE TUNNELS.

The tunnel system, as explained by the accompanying map, really consists of four sections, all of which are connected directly with the other principal transportation lines on both the New York and New Jersey sides of the river. The first section, that now open to the public, consists of a twin-tube tunnel extending from Hoboken, N. J., with the entrances near the terminal of the Lackawanna Railroad, to Sixth Avenue and Nineteenth Street, New York. This section enters Manhattan Island opposite Morton Street and proceeds eastward and northeastward through the heart of the shopping district, with seven stations at frequent intervals along its route, to Sixth Avenue and Thirty-third Street, where the great new Pennsylvania station is building. It will be known as the North Tunnels. The South Tunnels, which are now completed to within a few hundred feet of the New York side, extend from Cortlandt and Fulton Streets to Jersey City, where a large terminal station has been hewn out of solid rock eighty-five feet beneath the present structure of the Pennsylvania Railroad station. A station 150 feet in length, with approaches 1000 feet

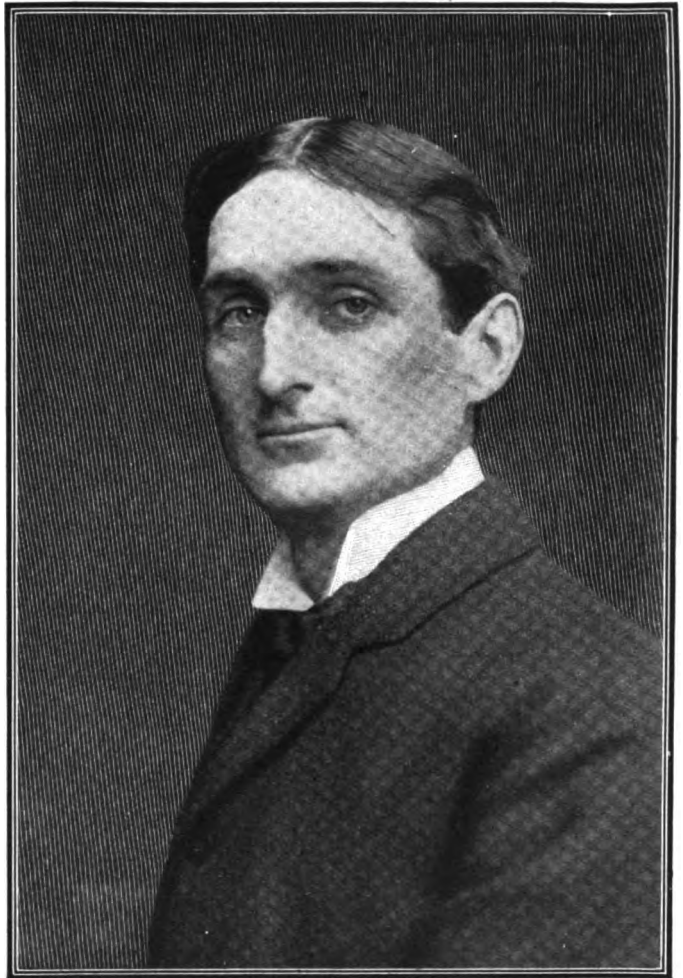


MAP OF THE HUDSON AND MANHATTAN RAILROAD (HUDSON TUNNEL SYSTEM).  
(See text for explanation.)

long and with great elevators reaching the surface at the terminus of the Pennsylvania Railroad trains, is already almost complete. The third section is a transverse tunnel running along the New Jersey shore of the Hudson and connecting the Hoboken terminal with that in Jersey City. Along its line it will make connections with the Erie and Pennsylvania railroad systems and with all the local transportation lines between the two terminals. At the proposed Erie terminal the tunnel station is nearer to the train-shed than the entrance to the ferry. The fourth section of the system is a branch line running from the terminal under the Pennsylvania station in Jersey City to Newark. This section extends underground for a distance under the most crowded section of Jersey City, coming to the surface in the outskirts, and the trains will use the tracks of the Pennsylvania system to Newark. When the electrification of the local train service of the Pennsylvania is completed it will be possible for a resident of Newark to take an electric train and without change in twenty minutes to reach the business section or the heart of the shopping and theater district in New York. Finally, a spur runs from Sixth Avenue near the Christopher Street station eastward under Ninth Street to connect with the Subway near Astor Place. The entire system will operate when completed some twenty miles of railroad.

#### A REMARKABLE ENGINEERING FEAT.

As a piece of engineering this tunnel system, with the terminal buildings, is one of the most remarkable ever executed. When in 1902 Charles M. Jacobs, as chief engineer, assisted by J. Vipond Davies, took charge of the work, only a few hundred feet of the old Haskins tunnel had been constructed. The



Photograph by Hollinger, N. Y.

WILLIAM G. M'ADOO, PRESIDENT OF THE HUDSON AND MANHATTAN RAILROAD.

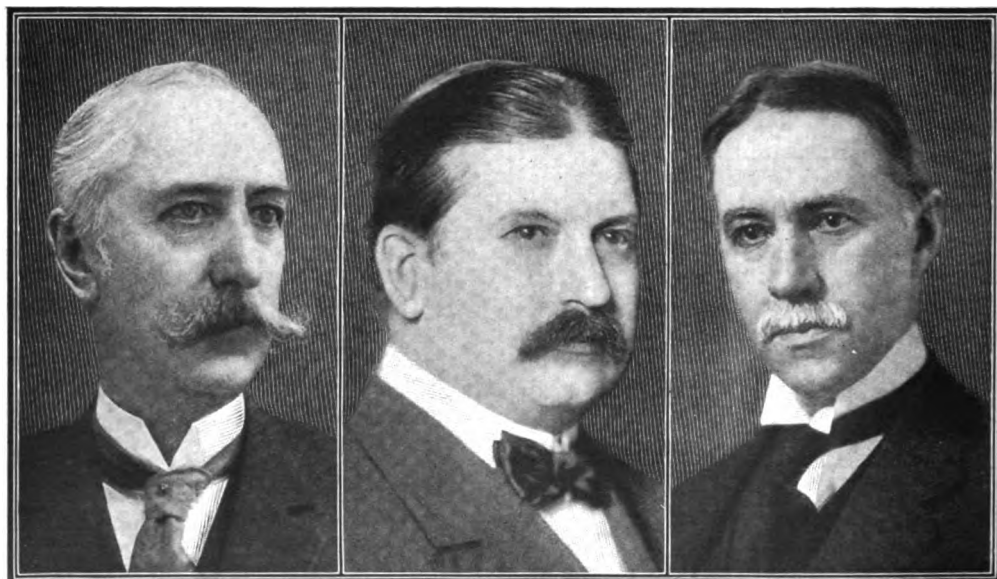
tunneling proper had to be done through the silt forming the bed of the Hudson and the rock on the Jersey and Manhattan shores,—the former, while easier to bore through, presenting at times even greater difficulty than the latter. This silt, a deposit caused by the erosion of the rocks in the upper river, while neither a clay nor a mud, as these terms are generally understood, possesses the unmanageable qualities of both these substances, and, when saturated with water, becomes as difficult to handle as any quicksand. At first the method of excavation behind a shield was pursued, but finally American ingenuity and enterprise as well as the desire for rapid work thought out a scheme of advancing by closing the shield doors and pushing ahead without excavation. In this way phenomenal

rates of progress were recorded,—as much as seventy-two feet in twenty-four hours through the clay and ten or twelve feet through the rock. The method of excavation by the appliance known as the Greathead shield, an appliance which has made possible the construction of the dozen or more tunnels now constructed or in process of construction under the waters around Manhattan Island, was introduced just before the time Messrs. Jacobs and Davies took charge of the work.

This shield, which is one of the greatest inventions in construction machinery of the past half century, resembles in appearance a great drum built of heavy steel plates. In the head of the drum, which is known as the diaphragm, there are doors for the passage of the workmen and the withdrawal of the clay and other excavated material. The upper edge of the drum is a cutting knife which goes through the hardest material when the shield is driven forward by the pressure from hydraulic jacks, holding up the river as it goes with compressed air while the waste material is removed. The upper portion of the drum, which extends backward over that portion of the tunnel tube which has been completed, known as the "tail of the shield," forms the protection for the men who are setting up the iron castings, ring by ring, and making the tunnel proper. Immediately back of the head is the great crane,

or "erector," which picks up the castings and holds them in place while they are bolted together. The entire work is carried on under air pressure which is made possible by placing in the mouth of the completed tunnel some distance in the rear of the shield a solid bulkhead in which are fitted and placed airlocks through which workmen and materials pass to the work at the shield. Thus the completed tunnel advances.

The tunnels themselves are made up of iron castings bolted together and set in place consecutively as the boring shield opens the way for them. These iron castings, or steel rings, are in most places covered with a coating of concrete, so that the interior of the tunnel is smooth. The tubes themselves are slightly over fifteen feet in interior diameter, and they pass under the Hudson at a depth varying from sixty to ninety feet beneath the surface of the water, while between the roof of the tunnel and the river bed the mass of earth and rock varies in extent from fifteen to forty feet. The magnitude of the work can be appreciated when the depth of the tunnels below the river bed is remembered. The keel of one of the largest of the ocean liners passing up the river at low tide would still be from thirty to forty feet above the top of the tunnels. The tubes containing the tracks are entirely separate and (in the northern section now com-



Photograph by The Campbell Studio.

Copyright, 1908, by Pirie MacDonald.

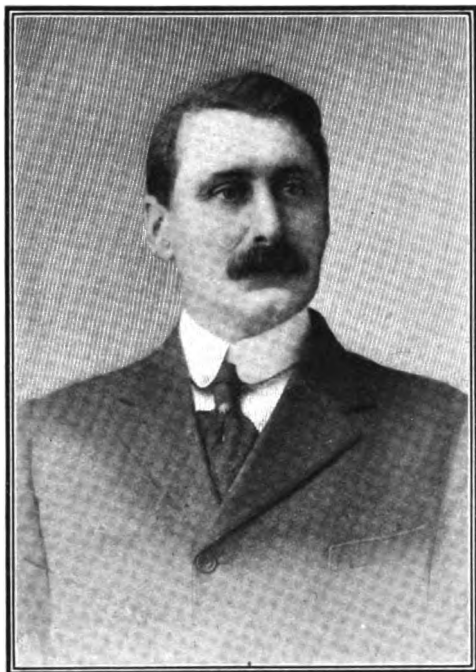
Photograph by Pirie MacDonald.

Walter G. Oakman,  
President of the Hudson Companies.

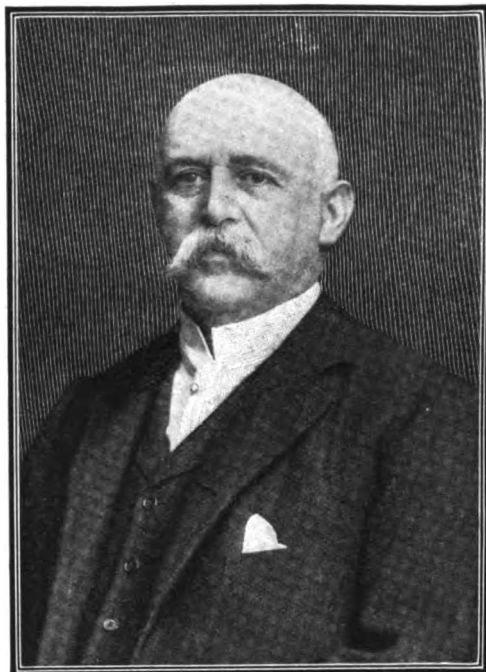
Pliny Fisk, head of the house of  
Harvey Fisk & Sons.

William M. Barnum,  
Associated with Mr. Fisk.

THE FINANCIAL AND ADMINISTRATIVE HEADS OF THE TUNNEL SYSTEM.



J. VIPOND DAVIES, DEPUTY CHIEF ENGINEER OF THE TUNNEL SYSTEM.



Photograph by Rockwood, N. Y.

CHARLES M. JACOBS, CHIEF ENGINEER OF THE TUNNEL ENTERPRISE.

plete) are about thirty feet apart for the greater part of their distance under the river.

#### NEW AND IMPROVED EQUIPMENT.

The latest improvements and facilities in railroad and tunnel building have been incorporated in the operation of the new trains. They are run on the third-rail system, and contain eight cars made entirely of steel, fire-proof, constructed after the most modern pattern. Large sliding doors at the middle as well as at the ends facilitate the handling of crowds, and the platforms are so arranged at the terminal stations that passengers enter and leave the cars at the same time but from different sides. All station platforms are built on the straight-line plan, so that there is to be no such dangerous space between the cars and the platforms as at stations which are built on a curve. All the stations also have wide stairways, with separate platforms for entering and leaving. The doors of the cars are operated by compressed air, and no signal bells are used, and the automatic adjustment is such that not until the last door in the train is securely closed is it possible to give the electric flash signal to the motorman which starts the train. Side-seats only are another unique feature, and

steel rods set vertically at frequent intervals form supplementary aids to the, of course, necessary straps. Every well-known and many new devices for safeguarding the life and limb of the passenger are employed. There is a triple set of automatic devices for stopping the train, the final one, which only comes into play after the others have failed, automatically setting the airbrakes. The stations are of very attractive design, as well as manifestly arranged for comfort and permanency. They have been made large enough to accommodate the existing as well as greatly increased future traffic. Every part of these stations is constructed of concrete or metal and on an architectural plan which is striking. The roofs and sides, with their vaulted arches, present a singularly pleasing effect in the effects of light and shadow produced by the incandescent globes. The ventilation system is greatly superior to that of any other underground railroad in existence. The temperature under the river, indeed, is unexpectedly pleasant. Since each tube contains but a single track each train acts as a piston, forcing the air ahead of it, and drawing in a fresh supply from the surface as it proceeds. Supplementary to this general principle, however, the company has in-



THE HOBOKEN TERMINAL OF THE HUDSON TUNNELS.

stalled apparatus for artificial ventilation which may be used as required.

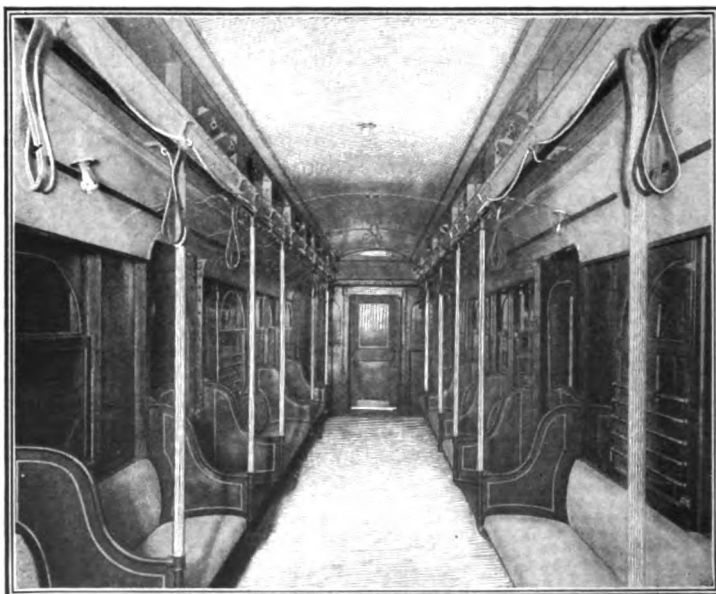
#### THE VAST TERMINAL BUILDINGS.

The terminal buildings of the tunnel system, located in the lower part of Manhattan Island, extending for two solid blocks, are another triumph of engineering. These twenty-two story twin buildings, connected by a bridge over the intervening street, contain probably the largest amount of office space of any buildings or group of contiguous buildings in the world. They will comfortably accommodate a population of 10,000. To construct them in that part of Manhattan Island, where traffic is heaviest, was a remarkable feat. Before the superstructure could be even begun an immense cofferdam inclosing the entire space of two square blocks (192 x 420 feet) had to be sunk under air pressure through the water-bearing soil and the space between, to the depth of from seventy-five to ninety-eight feet, excavated. Upon

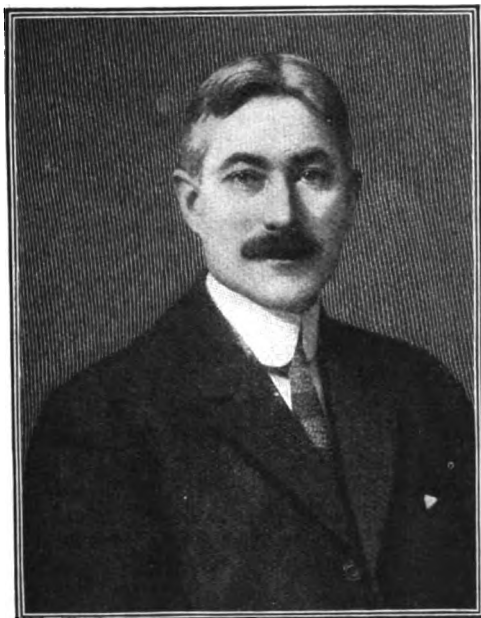
the foundation rock the caissons and other concrete foundations of the building were placed, none of the surrounding structures nor the traffic on the intervening street being interfered with in the meanwhile.

Thirty feet below street level are the tracks of the electric trains which come in through the tubes from New Jersey and curve around for the return trip. There will be five tracks, with platforms on both sides of each track, and trains will depart on three minutes' head-

way. The entrances to the building and to the trains will be on one side and the exits on the other, so that there will be no crowding. The great capacity of the station platforms and an ingenious calculation for loading and unloading the cars will enable the railroad management to handle at this terminal station 1000 persons a minute, or 500,000 during the day. The lines of railway will connect at the lower terminals with the Subway and the elevated



INTERIOR OF ONE OF THE CARS OF THE HUDSON &amp; MANHATTAN RAILROAD.



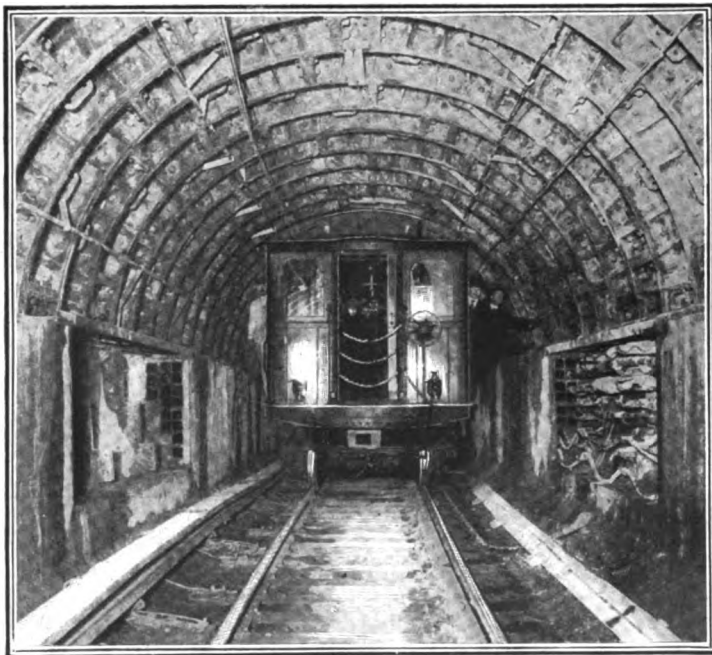
Photograph by Pach Bros., N. Y.

KENYON B. CONGER, MANAGER OF THE HUDSON TUNNELS' TERMINAL BUILDINGS.

roads, and an extension by footpath to Broadway will enable passengers to take the surface cars as well. The vast concourse, with ticket offices, baggage rooms, and other railroad paraphernalia, makes up the next floor. At the street level the office stories begin.

One of the most interesting and highly creditable features of this great enterprise is the modesty of the men who are carrying it through. With the proneness of the newspapers and the general public to connect a great enterprise with the name of one of its leading spirits, the Hudson Tunnels have been known for the past few years as the McAdoo Tunnels. William G. McAdoo, the Tennessee lawyer who took up this project when it had

twice failed, and by the force of his organizing ability and the strength of his personality carried it to completion, is so modest that his first and most emphatic reference to the subject in conversation or for publication is a request to "cut out my personality in connection with the enterprise." As a matter of fact the work has been accomplished through the skill, perseverance, and devotion of a dozen men whose names are not generally known. Walter G. Oakman, president of the Hudson Companies, a railroad and financial man of long experience and actual head of the construction company which is doing the work; Pliny Fisk and William M. Barnum, of the banking-house of Harvey Fisk & Sons, whose financial acumen and faith in the future of the enterprise has made it first of all possible; Charles M. Jacobs, one of the keenest and most experienced engineers now living, who is a consulting expert also for the Pennsylvania tunnels, and who, with J. Vipond Davies, deputy chief engineer, has pushed now so nearly to completion the great engineering features of the enterprise; to these men must be ascribed the credit of the great Hudson Tunnel system. Other men without whose co-operation the work could not have been completed are: L. B. Stillwell and Hugh Hazelton, the electrical engi-



INTERIOR OF ONE OF THE HUDSON TUNNELS, SHOWING TRAIN PASSING THROUGH.



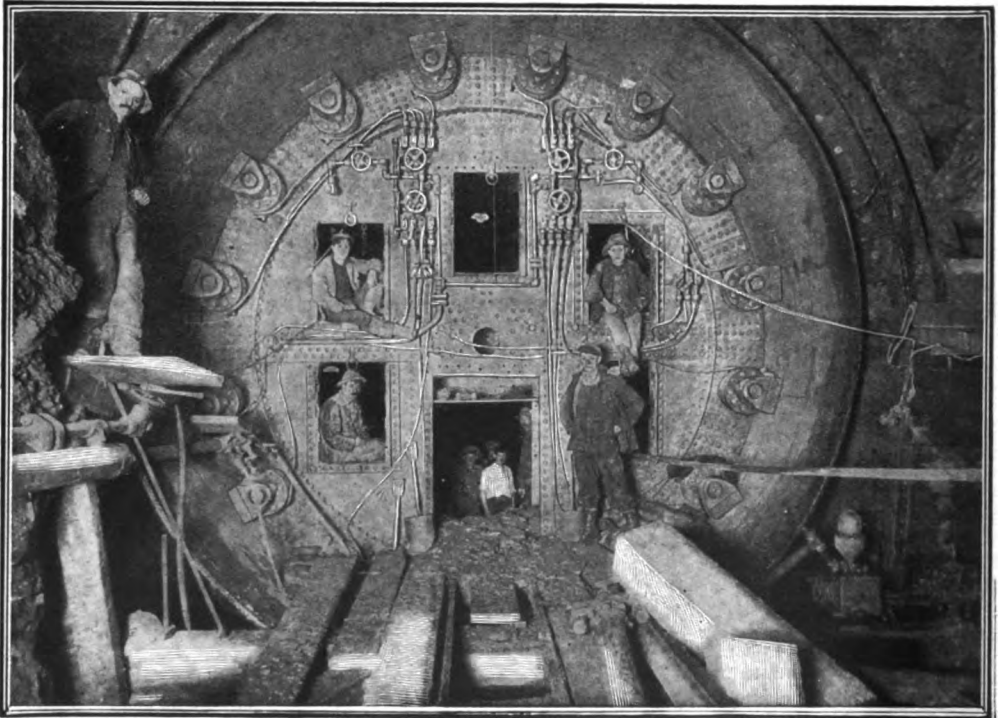
neers; J. Van Vleck, mechanical engineer, and Kenyon B. Conger, whose management and exploitation of the great terminal buildings is noteworthy in its thoroughness and in the novel features it presents.

#### WHAT THE TUNNELS MEAN TO TWO STATES.

The Hudson tunnel system, while generally regarded from the standpoint of the benefit it will confer upon Greater New York City, is certain to bring about a great change in the business and habits and customs of the people of the State of New Jersey. The opening of the new system will undoubtedly mean many new homes, new conditions of life, and new comforts. It will bring the business man of the suburban district within from fifteen minutes to half an hour nearer his office in New York. The great stream of passenger traffic coming into the American metropolis from New Jersey naturally divides (1) into that larger por-

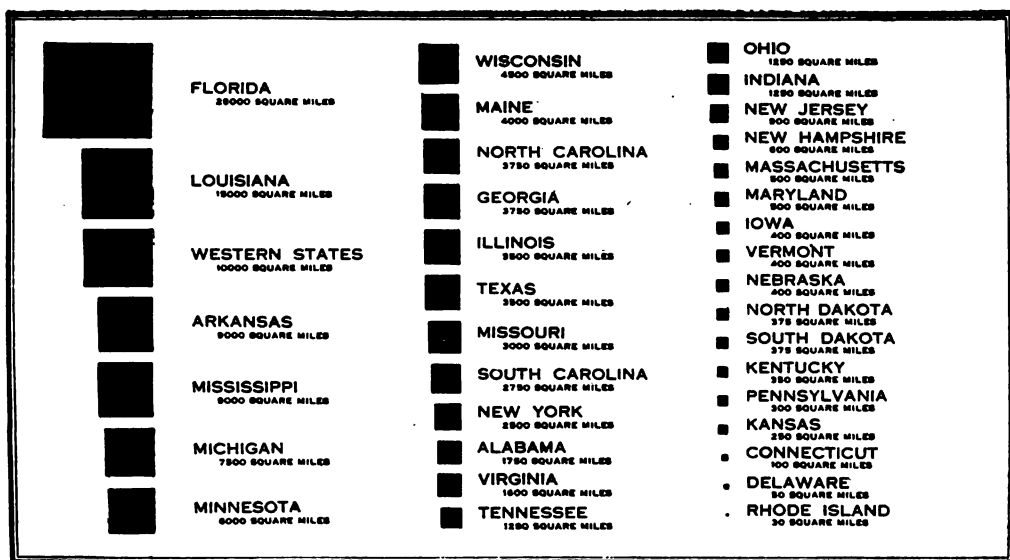
tion of business men and women who go to the lower end of the island and will in the future use the Cortlandt and Fulton street tubes, and (2) the portion, consisting largely of shoppers and theater and amusement seekers, which will use the upper tube. The tunnel will take thousands of women intent on shopping and others bound on social errands right into the shopping and theater district without change or delay. It will open up new suburban districts and enable thousands to live farther out in the country than they have ever been able to do before. It will increase the value of New Jersey real estate beyond calculation.

Finally, it will make vastly more enjoyable and convenient the last stages of the journey of the transcontinental traveler to New York. As President Roosevelt has truly said, it is one of those great business achievements of which all Americans can be justly proud.



THE BORING SHIELD BY WHICH THE HUDSON TUNNELS WERE EXCAVATED.





RELATIVE AREAS OF SWAMP-LANDS IN DIFFERENT STATES.

## TO FARM AMERICA'S SWAMPS.

BY GUY ELLIOTT MITCHELL.

(United States Geological Survey.)

A NEW issue has arisen before Congress,—the extending of federal aid for the redemption of the nation's swamp-lands and their winning to agriculture. As a Congressional problem this is new; as a matter before the country, swamp drainage and the investigation and surveying of our great wet-land areas are an old story. Nevertheless, it must be admitted that considerably more is to be learned than is now known regarding American swamps and overflowed lands; even their aggregate area is scarcely more than a matter of guesswork. It is variously estimated that American swamps include 60,000,000, 70,000,000, and as high as 78,000,000 acres; but these lands are so widely scattered and comprise so many small bodies that recent government investigations indicate a very much larger acreage, probably well upward of 100,000,000 acres.

The first American of note to plan drainage and call attention to the fertility and value of swamp-lands was George Washington, who, in speaking of the famous Dismal Swamp of Virginia, predicted that it would one day be fully reclaimed to agriculture and furnish great wealth to its cultivators. In this statement, notwithstanding his wide

knowledge of the country, Washington doubtless believed that he was speaking of the largest and most important swamp area of the continent, never dreaming that within a century his country would include other swamps treble the size of the Dismal Swamp and an aggregate swamp area several times greater than the original State of Virginia, considerably greater than the British Isles, or greater than all of New England, New York, and Pennsylvania combined,—an area capable of supporting in comfort a population as great as that of the entire United States to-day, and worth, when reclaimed to agriculture, at a conservative estimate, \$10,000,000,000.

The swamp and overflowed area of the United States was doubtless originally in the neighborhood of 125,000,000 acres. Much of this land was easily reclaimable, and Congress early recognized the drainage problem in the enactment of the Swamp-Land law in 1850, under which 64,000,000 acres have been ceded by the federal Government to the various public-land States, the intention of Congress being that the States should provide for their reclamation. Large areas have been drained, but the great bulk of the swamps and

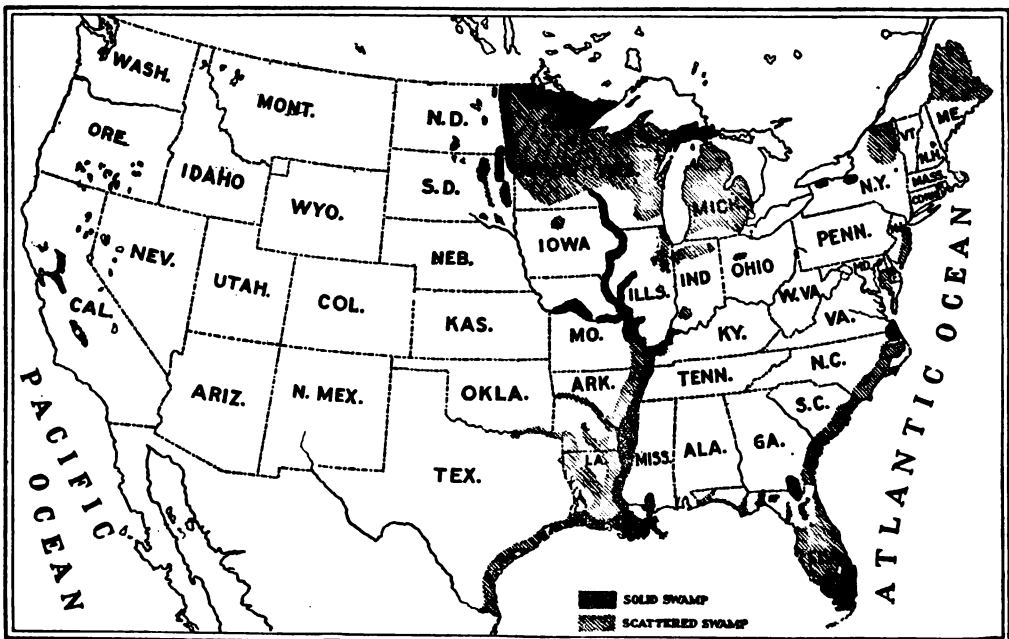
overflowed lands yet remains untouched. The only definite estimates in existence are those of the Department of Agriculture, 77,000,000 reclaimable acres, and the estimates of the United States Geological Survey, 78,473,700 acres, as the general swamp area. The former figures are based on correspondence between the Department of Agriculture and county officials, the latter the result of Prof. Nathaniel S. Shaler's broad study of American morasses conducted some twenty years ago. Shaler's investigations, however, were confined principally to the great swamp areas, and a recent study of the topographic surveys of the Geological Survey discloses innumerable small swamp tracts ranging from a few acres up to thousands of acres, not considered by him, and the aggregate of which is very large.

#### NEED FOR ALL AGRICULTURAL RESOURCES.

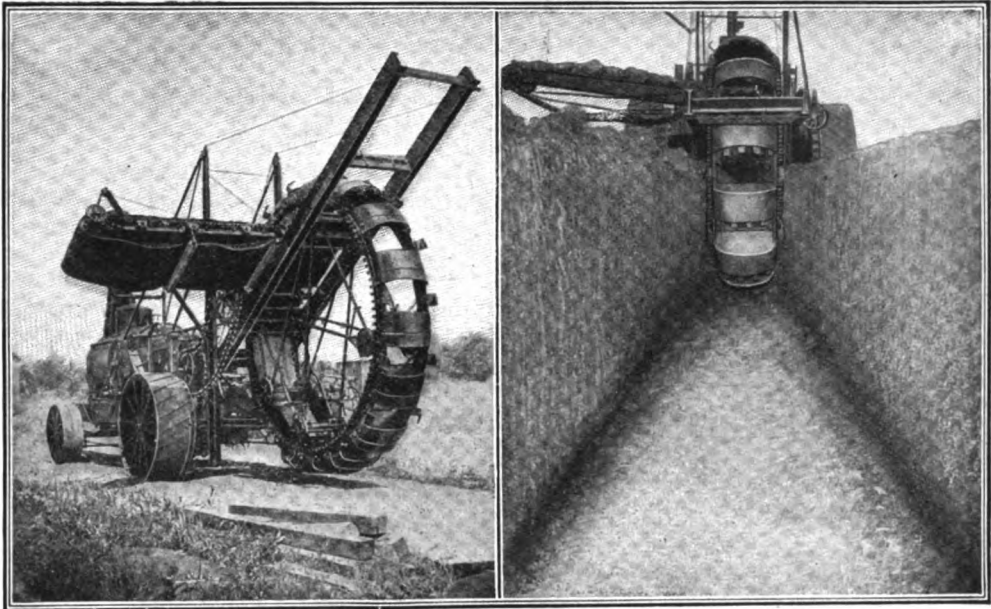
The question that is now being widely agitated is, What shall be done with these fertile but useless lands? That they must ultimately be reclaimed and made to produce their share of the country's agricultural wealth and support their share of its population is a foregone conclusion. The time is not so very far distant when we will need every available acre, and, as Mr. Wilson, the Secretary of Agriculture, has said, "We have no waste lands; they will all be made to pro-

duce something." Shall Congress, then, find a way to undertake the work at this time, and, furthermore, is Congress the proper agent? Since the Government has entered upon the policy of the reclamation of Western lands suffering from a want of water, both public lands and private, the question is asked, Why should it not reclaim Eastern lands which are provided with an excess of water?

Of the two classes of internal improvement drainage is likely to prove even more popular, as a public issue, than irrigation, and for a number of reasons. In the first place, the swamp areas are scattered principally throughout the already well-settled portions of the country, where population is comparatively dense and transportation facilities already well developed. In the second place, the engineering problems involved, while of great magnitude, are, in many of the projects, comparatively simple, and the cost of drainage much less than that of irrigation reclamation. It is usually an easier and cheaper undertaking to get water off of land than it is to get water on land, and a system once established, the cost of drainage maintenance is much lower. Where the cost of government irrigation reclamation ranges from \$22 to \$60 per acre in the projects thus far announced by the Interior Department, and with a probable average of \$30 per acre for



MAP SHOWING THE SWAMP-LANDS OF THE UNITED STATES.



A TRACTION EXCAVATOR USED FOR CUTTING STRAIGHT-SIDED DITCHES IN HEAVY SOILS NOT SUBJECT TO CAVING OR EROSION.

all the government work, the estimated cost of drainage, for most of the projects, is less than one-third this amount, and is as low in some instances as \$2 or \$3 per acre. Reclaimed, this land will vie in productivity with the most fertile farm-lands of the wealthiest of our agricultural sections, and immediately become worth \$50, \$100, \$200, and even \$300 per acre. The decayed vegetation and humus of centuries and ages lie stored in the swamps, and when drained they form richer soil than any other class of land and are of far more persistent fertility.

But why should Uncle Sam, with all his other pressing matters, go into the drainage business when there are practically no public swamp-lands? Why is it not the province of the States and individuals to make their own improvements? In other words, is it not a fostering of rank paternalism to commit the federal Government to such a project? The answer is that long experience has abundantly proved that neither individual, district, nor State is able to comprehensively solve the drainage problem. Some drainage has been accomplished and more will undoubtedly be undertaken by them; but that the greatest and most attractive projects, from both an agricultural and an engineering standpoint, can never be successfully dealt with in this manner is the almost unanimous opinion of students of the subject. The complications

which have resulted from attempts on the part of private institutions or States to drain large areas, arising from conflicting property rights or conflicting benefits, have proved so great that most of the important projects remain untouched. The same principle applies to private drainage work as to private irrigation, and in the latter instance it is only necessary to point to many sections of the West where a great deal more money has been spent in irrigation litigation than has been used in construction work. The overshadowing power of the federal Government alone is capable of adjusting conflicting elements, securing the co-operation of individual land-owners, districts, and States, and building the great works, many of them of an interstate character.

#### WHY IRRIGATION DISTANCED DRAINAGE.

The inquiry has probably presented itself to many minds as to why the Government should have so readily, apparently, taken up and solved the problem of national aid to irrigation, providing a fund, to date, of nearly \$40,000,000 for the conversion of the Far Western deserts into farm-homes, when a much more inviting project awaited unheeded in the very heart of the country,—national drainage. By reason of cheapness of construction, close proximity to established population and markets and to developed trans-



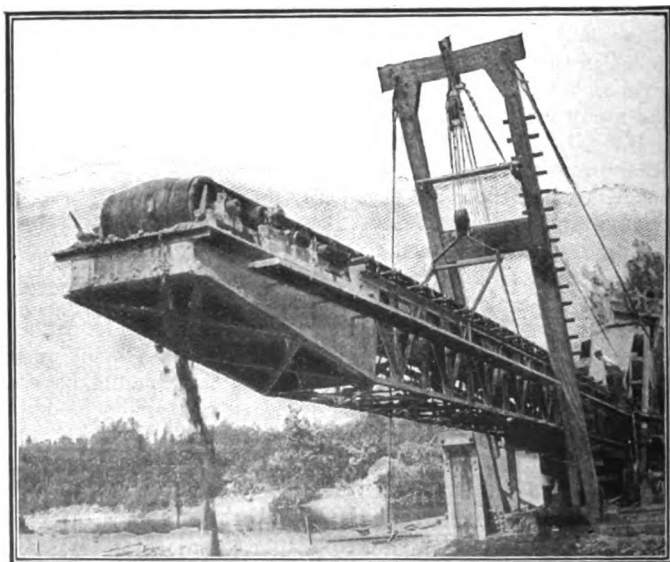
DITCH-BUILDING IN ILLINOIS WITH IMPROVED EXCAVATOR.

(Sloping sides to prevent caving, continuous waste-bank, and wide beam. The cost of maintenance in canal-building is an important item.)

portation systems and other results of civilization, the swamp-lands, as against desert lands, with their remoteness from transportation lines and population, and the high cost of their reclamation, would naturally have commended themselves first to our national legislators, as the better subject for federal expenditures. Then, too, Congress is human, and men, while voting for a sound national policy, are not averse to legislating at the same time favorably to their own constituencies. When it is considered that most of the votes of Congress, had they been cast for a national drainage measure, would have resulted in magnificent campaign material in almost every Congressional district in the Eastern half of the country, it seems singular that this project was passed over and hearty support accorded a measure providing for the improvement of thinly populated arid wastes thousands of miles distant. The very simple reason for this apparently anomalous action of Congress lies in the fact that national irrigation was vigorously advocated, whereas a national drainage lay dormant for want of a champion. The national irrigation movement did not grow of itself, nor did the irrigation law "just happen." Neither can it be said that there

was an absolutely spontaneous normal movement from the people demanding its enactment. In a way, it was forced upon Congress and passed because that body could not well help itself. "Heaven knows, I would have stopped it if I could," said Speaker Cannon, when he saw that the irrigation fund had reached the \$10,000,000 mark. But behind the movement was a powerful organization of business interests, representing hundreds of millions of manufactures, and this association conducted a systematic campaign of public enlightenment, which more than anything else forced the national irrigation law. A large sum of money was expended in this educational propaganda, the Western railroads also contributing liberally, since they recognized that they would benefit directly through an increased traffic.

If the present National Drainage Association would secure the active support of a couple of thousand of the largest wholesale manufacturing and jobbing houses in the country, drainage legislation would be assured. Even the Speaker, with all his power and backed by all the conservatives and "watchdogs" of the House, would not be able to withstand the popular demand any more than he was in the instance of irrigation legislation. These situations are not comparable with such problems as revision of the tariff or other great issues where there is strong natural opposition. There was little



TYPE OF DREDGE USED IN CHANNEL-DEEPENING IN WISCONSIN BY UNITED STATES ARMY ENGINEERS.

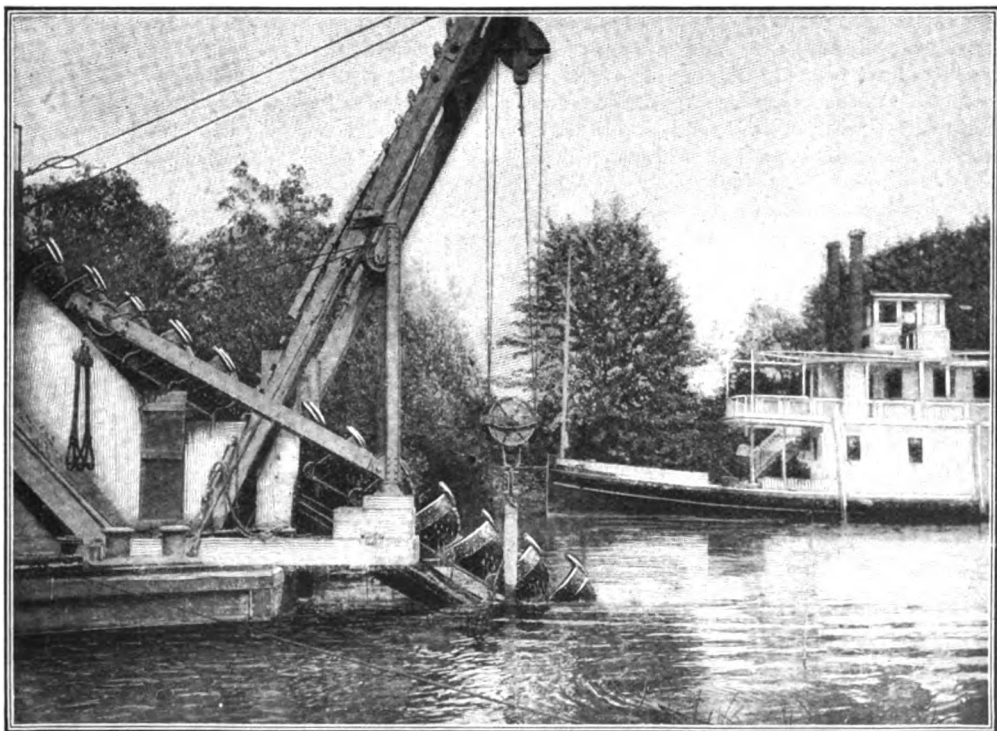
organized and no partisan opposition to irrigation legislation, nor is there to drainage, merely apathy and the general disinclination of party leaders to undertake new legislation costing money.

#### ATTEMPTS TO DIVERT IRRIGATION FUNDS TO DRAINAGE.

The present agitation for drainage has grown out of no such broad, comprehensive plan as was embodied in the campaign for national irrigation. The latter was a movement deliberately fostered and worked out from a starting point at zero. Drainage legislation has been an afterthought of irrigation. When the millions began to roll into the irrigation reclamation fund Senator Hansbrough, of North Dakota, advanced the idea that some of this money should be diverted for drainage in the eastern part of his State, where the Red River overflows much valuable agricultural land, and he introduced a bill taking \$1,000,000 out of the irrigation fund for this purpose. Immediately thereupon several similar bills followed, for the reclamation of the Dismal Swamp, Minnesota swamps, and other wet-land areas. The idea was ill conceived, since the plan incurred

the immediate hostility of every Far Western interest; yet from it was probably evolved the Steenerson national drainage bill of the first session of the last Congress, embodying the broad principles of the irrigation act, with respect to the setting aside of the proceeds from the sales of public lands in the non-irrigation States for drainage work, federal construction, repayment of the cost by the settlers or owners into a government drainage revolving fund, and the subdivision of reclaimed areas into home tracts of not to exceed 160 acres. These are the main features of all the national drainage bills of to-day. In the last session of Congress Senator Flint, of California, introduced a duplicate of the Steenerson bill in the Senate, which was favorably reported from the Public Lands Committee of that body.

A national drainage congress was held in Oklahoma a year ago last fall, and an association was formed to advance the cause of national drainage. The second meeting of this congress, or association, was held in Baltimore in November, 1907, and attracted the attendance of many notable men, —Governors, Congressmen, and other public officials.



REAR VIEW OF CONVEYOR DREDGE, SHOWING BUCKETS, USED BY UNITED STATES ARMY ENGINEERS IN CHANNEL-DEEPENING.



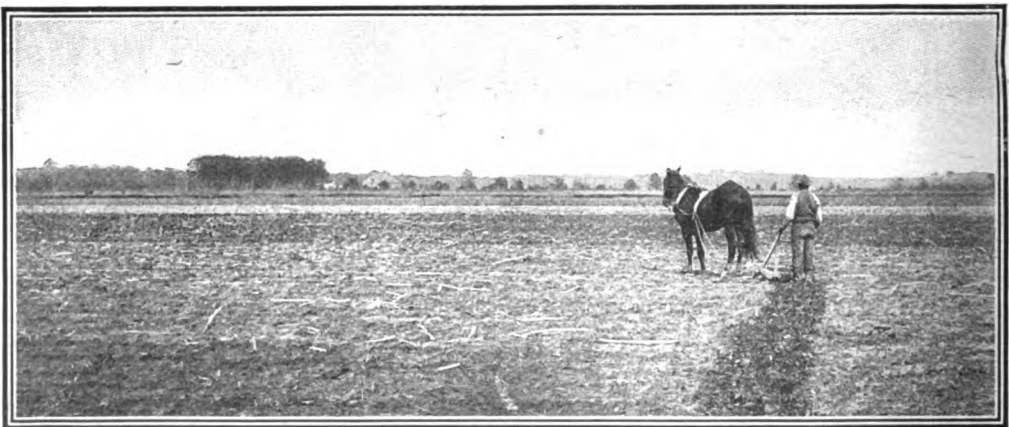
SCENE ON THE RECLAIMED PORTIONS OF THE DISMAL SWAMP,  
VIRGINIA.

In the meantime, however, Congress itself, or at least interested members of Congress, are vigorously attacking the problem. Senator Clapp, of Minnesota, and the late Senator Latimer, of South Carolina, early in the session introduced bills similar to the original Steenerson bill, and these and other proposed measures have been the subject of several important conferences between Senators, Representatives, Secretary Garfield, and other officials. The outcome is seen in the present remodeled Flint bill (Senate bill No. 4855), which has been favorably reported from committee and will beyond question pass the Senate this session. The popularity of the issue is evidenced by the large number of drainage

bills introduced by various Senators and members whose districts include swamps.

#### CONSTITUTIONALITY OF FEDERAL DRAINAGE.

Doubts have been expressed by some of the most enthusiastic advocates of national drainage as to the constitutional right of the federal Government to undertake the drainage of lands the title to which, in most of the projects, lies entirely outside of national ownership. Senator Newlands, of Nevada, the originator of the basic principle of the irrigation law which provides the funds for construction from sales of public lands, stated it as his opinion as a lawyer that the right of the federal Government to undertake such construction lay in the broad principle that it was interstate work, and that even if the drainage of lands in one State did not affect the river flows or flood problems in another State, yet the products which would result from such drainage would be interstate commodities, and that upon this broad ground the Government was justified in vigorously prosecuting such improvement. In one of the recent conferences mentioned Senator Clapp remarked that while from a legal standpoint he had had grave doubts as to the constitutionality of the proposed measure, after care-



SCENE ON RECLAIMED PORTIONS OF THE DISMAL SWAMP, VIRGINIA.

ful study he had reached the conclusion that this was no hindrance to its enactment, and Secretary Garfield, who is also a lawyer, has coincided in this view.

The principal features of the revised bill are:

(1) All money received from the sale of public lands in Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Louisiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Ohio, and Wisconsin, beginning with the fiscal year June 30, 1901 (the date of the commencement of the irrigation fund), is appropriated as a drainage fund.

(2) The Secretary of the Interior is to prosecute the drainage work.

(3) He is empowered to subdivide the reclaimed tracts into units of from 5 to 160 acres, the cost of construction to be charged against the land reclaimed and to be repaid to the Government in not to exceed ten annual instalments. The Government is to have a first and paramount lien on the land to secure this repayment.

(4) These repayments are to go back into the drainage fund, to be used again in successive enterprises.

(5) Where private or State lands are reclaimed the use or loan of the money from the drainage fund is to be upon the bonds of the State, municipality, or drainage district, secured by lien on the land.

The interesting features of the bill are the automatic appropriation provided by the constantly incoming receipts from public lands sales; the repayment of the cost of reclamation into the fund, thus making it a revolving account, and the discretion allowed the Secretary to require the subdivision of redeemed



CYPRESS TREES ON THE EASTERN PART OF LAKE DRUMMOND, VIRGINIA.

lands into tracts as small as five acres, an acreage now admitted, in many instances of irrigated and reclaimed swamp-lands, as ample to support a family in comfort.

The drainage fund, under this bill, will start with over \$6,000,000, the receipts from the sales of public lands in the States named having been, from 1901 to June 30, 1907, \$5,813,258. These receipts for the last two years have been but little less than \$1,000,000 a year, and while they will probably decrease

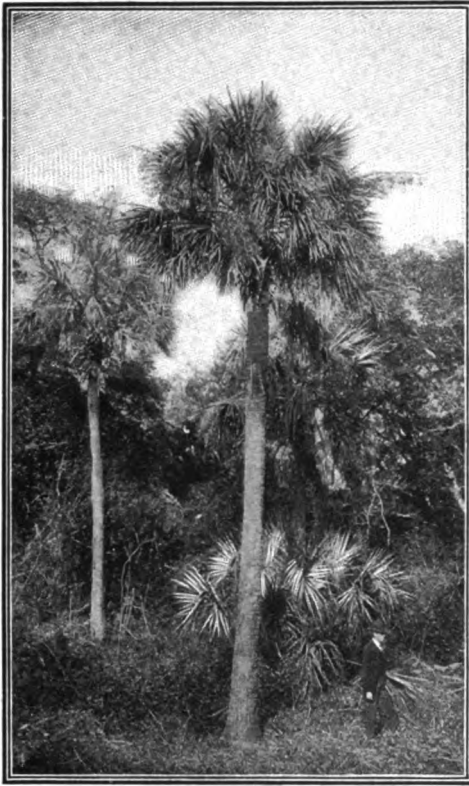
within the next three or four years, there is in sight for the fund within that period probably a round \$10,000,000, which may be considered a very liberal amount for beginning the task of swamp reclamation, since some of the most feasible projects will cost not to exceed \$3 or \$4 an acre for complete drainage reclamation. It is a question whether this Congress will see any action by the House of Representatives. A good majority of the members of this body probably favor national drainage, but majorities in the House of Representatives do not necessarily mean that a measure can be brought to a vote. The West, while



A KENTUCKY SWAMP SCENE.

(Large stump of cypress in slough, showing also the knees. A typical scene, near Unlontown.)





SOUTH CAROLINA PALMETTO LAND.  
(Subject to overflow. In need of drainage.)

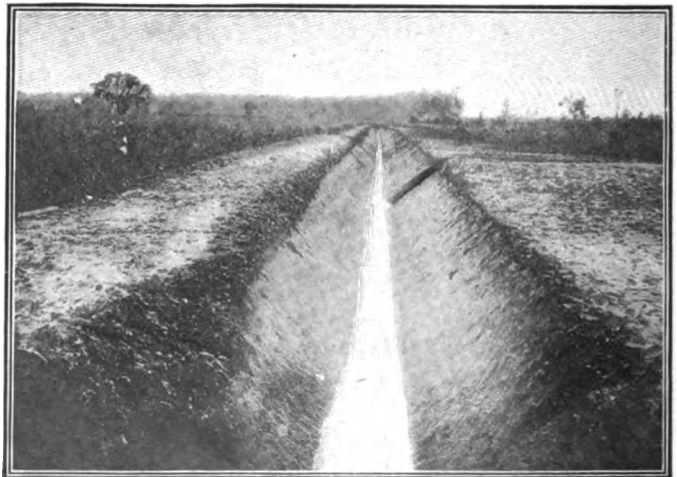
not directly interested to any great extent, except the Pacific Coast States, which have considerable swamp areas, yet feels grateful to the East for its support in irrigation legislation, and will naturally favor a drainage measure, probably to a man, and the East is directly interested. There are seventeen Eastern States every one of which has more than 1,000,000 acres of swamps, and there are twelve additional Eastern States having between 250,000 and 1,000,000 acres each, and, still further, there are six more Eastern States with an aggregate area of nearly 7,500,000 acres of swamps, Rhode Island, with 19,000 acres, having the least. So that almost every section of the East

should logically support drainage as a matter of self-interest if nothing more.

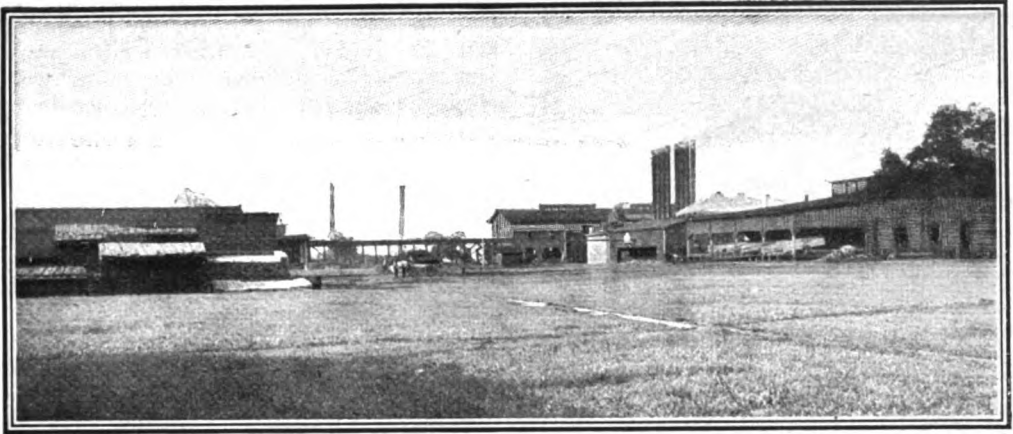
#### SECRETARY GARFIELD'S REPORT ON DRAINAGE.

An illuminating report was recently transmitted to Congress by the Secretary of the Interior in answer to a resolution calling for information on the drainage subject. In it Mr. Garfield points with some pride to the fact that should Congress decide to undertake swamp-land drainage, he has, in the Geological Survey and the Reclamation Service, fully equipped machinery to prosecute the work as speedily as funds are made available. He calls attention to the great topographic survey which the Geological Survey is making of the United States, and refers to the resulting maps as the "mother maps" of the country, stating that the information which they supply is sufficient to determine the feasibility of any proposed drainage project.

The Reclamation Service owes its brilliant success in irrigation construction to the basic topographic and hydrographic work of the Geological Survey. When a party of eminent British engineers from India visited this country a short time ago they expressed unbounded surprise at the progress made in government irrigation construction during the very few years since the passage of the national irrigation act. They found great dams already rearing their high walls above the stream beds, canals as large as river channels being excavated and in some cases completed in enduring concrete, tunnels being bored through mountains, and, in a word, a great



HOLBECK'S SWAMP, NEAR CHARLESTON, S. C.  
(A well-made ditch and lateral, showing sides properly sloped.)



HOLBECK'S SWAMP, NEAR CHARLESTON, S. C., AFTER BEING DRAINED IN 1906.

work under full headway, which they admitted, would not have been undertaken in India within ten or twelve years after authorization.

Why should this condition of apparent haste exist in the United States? It certainly could not be explained in full on the ground that American energy and push are so superior to foreign enterprise. Such an assumption would indicate a most reckless and dangerous speed in the building of great irrigation structures, upon the stability of which, as well as upon the certainty of their water supply, must depend not only the investments but the lives of thousands of settlers. The simple reason for the astonishing success and rapid achievement scored by the American Reclamation Service lies in the all-important fact that the United States Geological surveyors had been in reality preparing for irrigation construction for years back, and when the Reclamation Service came into existence, in 1902, it found ready made, as it were, a vast amount of data in the form of topographic-survey maps showing the exact physical character of the country, and in the records of stream flow measurements and river surveys covering over a decade of time. These two classes of surveys,—land and water,—enabled the construction engineers of the new bureau to begin the building of ditch and dam almost immediately following the passage of the irrigation act. These investigations of the Geological Survey, begun long ago under Major Powell, Director of the Survey, often styled the Father of Irrigation, and vigorously continued under his successor, Director Walcott, were in effect preliminary irrigation surveys. Over a generation ago, when other men scoffed at the idea, Major

Powell foresaw the necessity for government irrigation in some form, and he provided for it; and he also saw, with prophetic vision, national drainage for the United States, and he set about providing for that.

#### GOVERNMENT IS READY TO DRAIN THE SWAMPS.

And history is repeating itself in this regard in connection with proposed national drainage projects. Without these fundamental investigations,—topographic and hydrographic surveys,—no wise and safe drainage system can be inaugurated. But as a matter of fact, the Reclamation Service is fitted at this moment to begin drainage construction in a number of projects, utilizing the preliminary surveys already made by the Geological Survey, and which, by the way, are being rapidly extended by the present Director, George Otis Smith.

Secretary Garfield places the solution of the drainage problem in the class of great engineering works, putting it on a par with irrigation, inland waterway construction, flood prevention, etc., but he also sounds a note of warning. The drainage of lands increases the liability of the occurrence of floods in the rivers below, since the rainfall of an area, that is given off very slowly from swamps, flows rapidly when proper drainage is provided. The question then presents itself of providing adequate channels to carry this accelerated flow, in order that the increased values derived from the drainage may not be more than offset by the damage caused by resulting floods.

#### ANTIQUITY OF SWAMP DRAINAGE.

The country has heard much of the antiquity of irrigation, how in biblical times the



TOPOGRAPHERS SURVEYING IN THE TULE BRUSH  
ALONG THE SACRAMENTO RIVER, CALIFORNIA.

(Tule-rushes fifteen feet high. Ten-foot legs—spliced  
—on tripod. An actual level; not a pose.)

land of Egypt, the valleys of the Euphrates and the Jordan, and other regions were watered artificially, but drainage as well is an ancient art. Biblical reference to it may be lacking, but only because the people of sacred history lived in arid regions; yet at an equally early period in Greece record was left of drainage reclamation. A project of magnitude was the draining of Lake Copais, a marsh tract in the neighborhood of Thebes, 60,000 acres in extent. It is interesting to note that the effluent from this marsh is now made available for irrigation.

Little Holland has attained world-wide fame as an example of what can be done through drainage. Here is some of the oldest and most important drainage work in existence. Great dikes have been constructed to keep out the sea, and interior embankments are nearly as extensive. Such water as can be drained out between tides is handled through sluices, and what remains is raised by windmills. The reclaimed fields are encircled by these great sweep motors, peculiar to the country. A town of 10,000 population will have perhaps 400 windmills. Two-fifths



UNITED STATES GEOLOGICAL SURVEY PARTY, RED LAKE DISTRICT, MINNESOTA, CEDED CHIPPEWA  
LANDS, "PACKING" EQUIPMENT WHILE SURVEYING.

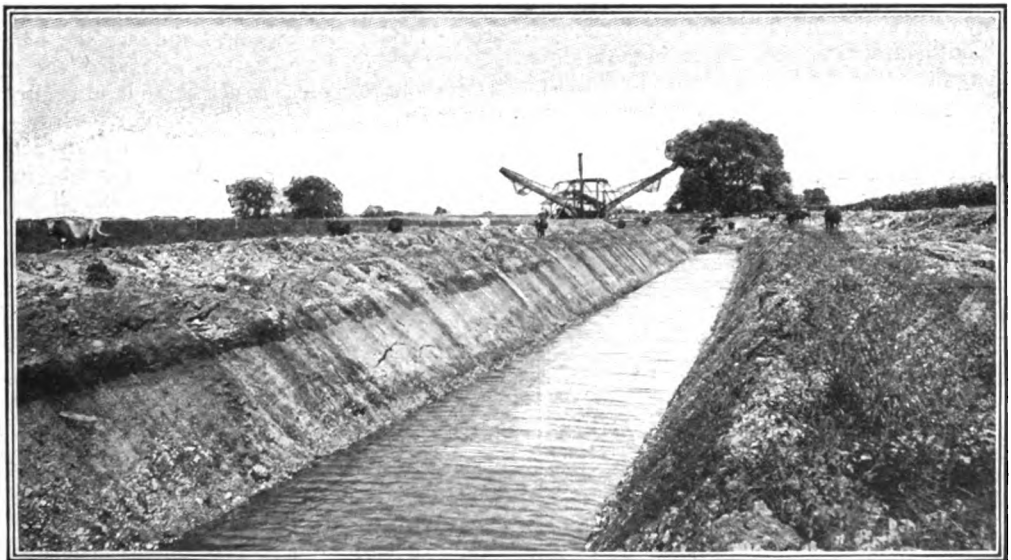


ILLINOIS LAND BEING RECLAIMED BY DRAINS AND LEVEES (GREENE COUNTY.)

of Holland, thus reclaimed, lies below the sea, the little country supporting in prosperity a population of 450 people per square mile. But Holland is not yet content. She still proposes to reclaim the Zuyder Zee, the most ambitious drainage scheme ever advocated, which embraces plans to reclaim, by pumping, 500,000 acres, at an estimated cost of \$1,250,000,000.

Professor Shaler notes that in Great Britain and Ireland fully one-fifth of the most fertile agricultural lands has been reclaimed by drainage, and that one-twentieth of the now tillable land in Europe was inundated and unfit for agriculture in the eighth century.

In the valley of Mexico has been consummated the greatest drainage work yet accom-



A WELL-CONSTRUCTED DRAINAGE DITCH NEAR KANEVILLE, ILL.  
(The sloping sides prevent caving in. Drainage excavator in the distance.)

lished on the American continent. Here is an area of about 1,500,000 acres, hemmed in by solid walls on all sides. Drainage works were commenced by the Aztec kings in the fourteenth century, who built their city on an island and protected it by dikes of great magnitude, and to save the City of Mexico from overflow the celebrated Nochistongo Cut was made, second only in magnitude to the great Culebra Cut of the Panama Canal. In the seventeenth century this was replaced by a ten-mile tunnel, which a force of 15,000 Indians completed in eleven months. This tunnel, however, caved in, but the present drainage project, which includes the entire Valley of Mexico, is now practically completed, a total of \$20,000,000 having been expended by the Mexican Government.

#### THE EVERGLADES OF FLORIDA.

American swamp areas present a great diversity of character. The New England wet lands comprise a large proportion of salt marshes. In many places lands which by reason of their location should be most valuable are still practically useless because of their lack of drainage systems, as for instance, the extensive Hackensack meadows, opposite New York.

In connection with the mosquito warfare considerable areas have been drained on Staten Island, Long Island, in New Jersey, and elsewhere. Coming further south, we find the Dismal Swamp of Virginia, the most famous and historic of American morasses, a body of land which could be easily reclaimed.

Southward from and including Virginia, along the entire Atlantic coast are found large swamp areas, culminating in the greatest wet-land body on the continent,—the swamps of

the southern half of the Florida Peninsula. Considerable areas in Florida have already been reclaimed by the Disstons and other agencies; but the great bulk of Florida's swamps, embracing the famous Everglades, remains untouched. The Everglades extend from Lake Okechobee due south 100 miles to Cape Sable, comprising nearly 4,000,000 acres. This swamp rests on a coralline limestone formation, and along its eastern edge a



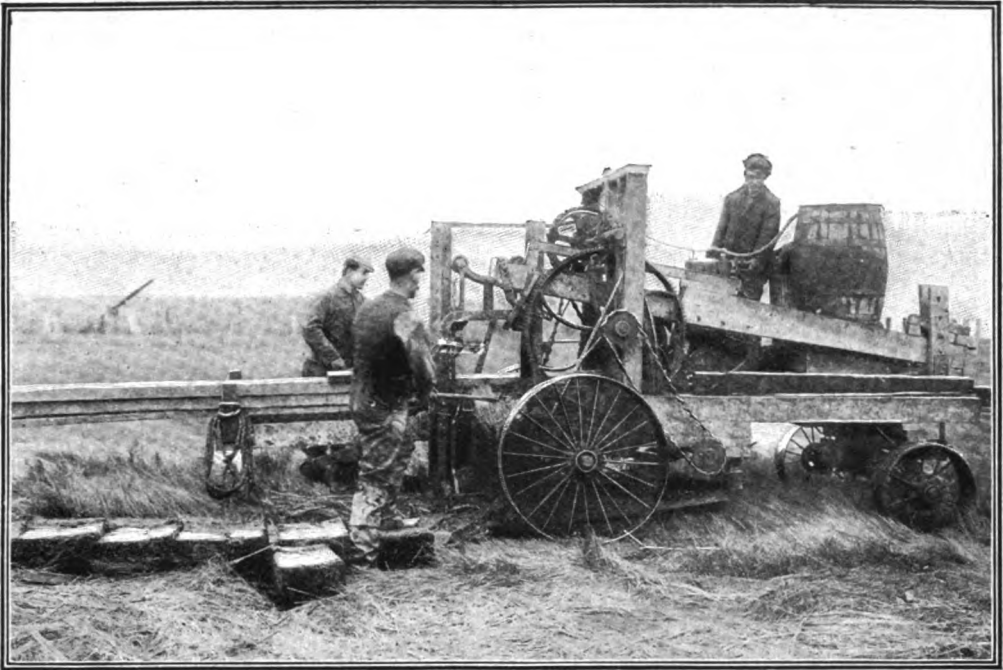
SEMINOLE INDIAN HUNTER, EVERGLADES, FLORIDA.

ledge crops out slightly higher than the surface of the glades, acting as a natural dike. In order to drain the Everglades it will be necessary to widen and deepen the rivers where they have cut through this rock reef, and then extend them by a system of canals through soft mud until Lake Okechobee is reached. Florida has the greatest wet-land area of any State, probably 23,000,000 or 24,000,000 acres. Under the Swamp-Land act she has already received 20,121,560 acres and there is yet more to come. Much State land is also drainable. The present Governor,—Broward,—has secured the passage of a State act providing for swamp drainage districts in which a tax may be levied, not to exceed 10 cents per acre per annum, to be expended in the drainage of these lands. Under this enactment it seems likely that some progress will be made in State drainage in Florida.

The Department of Agriculture is co-operating with Governor Broward in his reclamation plans, and during the past year has been carrying on swamp surveys. In showing the necessity for extended and accurate surveys of large swamp areas before even considering reclamation, Secretary Garfield, in the report heretofore mentioned, cites the case of what is known as the Panasoffkee map, made by the Geological Survey in its Florida swamp investigations of phosphate lands. "About one-half of this sheet shows swamp, the map



SEMINOLE INDIAN SHACK, EVERGLADES, FLORIDA.



DITCHING BY MACHINE, STATEN ISLAND, N. Y.,—ADJUNCT OF THE ANTI-MOSQUITO CAMPAIGN.  
(Slope to ditch not necessary in this dense, gummy soil.)

covering an area of some 240 square miles, but it does not include a sufficient tract to give the key to the drainage. Add to this the Survey's map to the west, the Tsala Apopka sheet, with another 240 square miles, and still the information is insufficient. Add yet, again, the Donnellton sheet, north of the last, and for the proper understanding of this area are still needed a map or maps covering areas to the south which are yet to be surveyed; so that, in order to plan for the drainage of this one swamp along the Withlacoochee River a survey of at least approximately 1000 square miles (over 600,000 acres) is necessary."

#### SWAMP-LANDS IN MINNESOTA.

In Minnesota an entirely different situation with reference to swamp reclamation exists, and one of considerable interest, for it indicates an additional recognition by Congress of the drainage problem.

In the northern part of the State are the ceded Chippewa Indian lands, embracing 2,500,000 acres, now held in trust and to be sold by the Government for the Indians. But at present there is little likelihood of realizing much from them, as they constitute mostly a huge swamp. Even in cases where the land

is slightly higher than the surrounding bogs it makes at best mere island farms, and, although fertile, is for months in the year absolutely cut off from communication with civilization. So the last Congress appropriated \$25,000 for a special drainage survey of these lands. This survey is being prosecuted by the Geological Survey, the surveyors' work varying in scope from floundering through the soft bogs and fighting mosquitos during the warm season to working across frozen cover on snowshoes during the winter, in the running of many miles of spirit levels and the determination of elevations. This winter the party has been snowshoeing daytimes and sleeping nights in a movable cabin built on a sled and hauled from place to place each day. In last summer's work among the so-called "floating" bogs it was necessary to splice extra legs on the tripods, and even with these the instrument often sank to the level of the mire, requiring the surveyor to literally grovel in the mud while taking his sights.

In the first year's work the Survey completed the mapping of the Mud Lake section of this district, embracing 402,500 acres, and drew drainage plans therefor, showing an average cost for complete reclamation, with ditches running to each 160 acres, of \$2.75



per acre. Last year an additional 1,200,000 acres was surveyed, and the drainage plans are now being worked out. Representative Steenerson has proposed an amendment to the Indian Appropriation bill providing for the drainage of the Mud Lake district, and should Congress consider this favorably the project will afford an ideal object lesson of national drainage. Here the Government controls practically all the land, the survey has been made, the estimates of reclamation are very low, the land when reclaimed will be worth ten times the cost of improvement, and the Reclamation Service is immediately available to take up the construction work.

#### VAST OVERFLOWED AREAS OF MISSISSIPPI VALLEY.

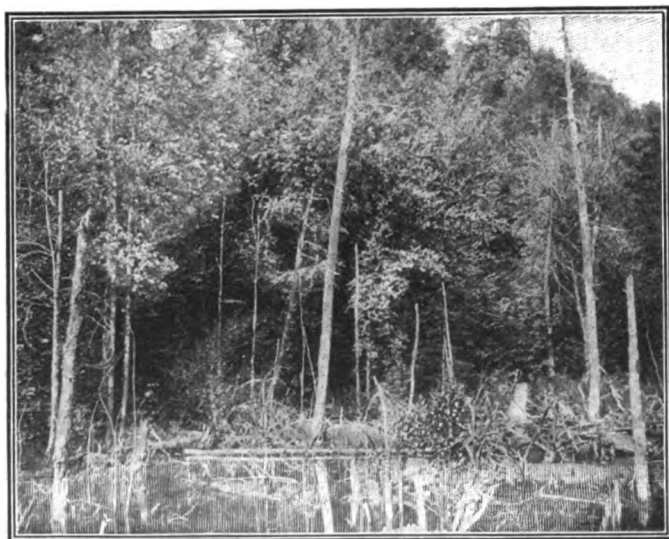
The Mississippi River Valley States present a still different phase of wet-lands. Illinois, for instance, is credited with having some 2,000,000 acres of swamp land; as a matter of fact, she has no actual swamps, but she has that acreage of overflowed lands, an area of vast latent wealth. The valleys of the Mississippi, Wabash, Little Wabash, Kaskaskia, Sangamon, Rock, and Des Plaines rivers have, in Illinois, a combined area of 1,916,800 acres which is all subject to overflow. Last spring an extended preliminary survey of these areas was made by the United States Geological Survey in co-operation with the State, and it was found that the lands could be reclaimed at a cost of about \$9 an acre. Under drainage, \$150 an acre would be a most conservative value to place upon

them, since the best of Illinois farm-lands are held at \$200 and \$225 an acre. Here then would be an increase in Illinois farm values, after allowing most liberally for present values and cost of drainage, of over \$200,000,000.

The overflowed lands of Illinois are typical of those, on a much greater scale, of the entire Lower Mississippi Basin. A glance at the map of the United States will show that the Mississippi River drains the greater portions of thirty-two States, an area containing 1,250,000 square miles. Upon this area falls over 40 per cent. of the precipitation of the entire country, and fully 20,000,000 acres of valley land are subject to overflow.

To more fully understand the conditions and the possible value of these lands, it will be necessary to go back a few million years and trace the growth of the delta which now extends from Cape Girardeau, Mo., to the Gulf. When the North American continent rose from the Silurian sea, a long arm of the primal ocean extended northward as far as the mouth of the Missouri River. Even in recent geologic times the mouth of the Mississippi was at a point some thirty miles above the present site of Cairo. Here the river poured its tawny waters into the head of an estuary of the Gulf, which gradually widened out to the south, while below the mouth of the Mississippi was the mouth of the Ohio, a separate and the older river of the two. The head of this estuary, receiving the silt-laden waters of these two great continental rivers, gradually filled, and thus the

work of delta-making began. This delta territory is made up of four distinct divisions, the St. Francis basin, the Yazoo delta, the Tensas basin, and the basin of the Atchafalaya. The area of these basins, subject to overflow whenever the Father of Waters goes on a rampage, aggregates some 19,000,000 acres. The leveeing of the Mississippi, the deepening of its channel to carry off the water which now spreads out over these basins and through numerous bayous, and the drainage of this vast tract of land constitute beyond doubt the greatest problem of internal im-



PENNSYLVANIA SWAMP-LANDS (CAMBRIA COUNTY.)





CYPRESS SWAMP IN THE BASIN OF THE ATCHAFALAYA, GRAND LAKE, LOUISIANA.

provement awaiting the application of human industry.

#### COMBINED IRRIGATION AND DRAINAGE.

There is another great reclamation problem yet different from any of the others discussed,—the swamp and overflow areas of the Sacramento Valley, which, considered as one compact project, is the most stupendous drainage and irrigation enterprise in the United States, if not in the world. The Sacramento River, during its flood season, comes raging down from the Sierra, its flow augmented by many strong, torrential tributaries, and not only passes uselessly by lands rich in the elements of fertility, but often carries in its wake great devastation, to the extent of millions of dollars. The problems to be solved for this river are drainage, irrigation, and flood protection. The solution of these will include aid to navigation. While there are some 3,000,000 acres in the Sacramento Valley susceptible of irrigation from the waters of the river, the average flow, properly impounded, would still provide water enough for the reclamation of three or four times that acreage in addition. After the great

project shall have been worked out of reclaiming these 3,000,000 acres in the Sacramento Valley, the still vaster one of carrying this surplus water over into the adjoining San Joaquin Valley and irrigating several million acres of its arid soil will present itself.

A great topographic survey of the Sacramento Valley is in progress. The part of it attracting most attention is the mapping of the million or so acres of overflowed tule land on both sides of the river. Back of these and at a higher elevation is an irrigable area of about 2,000,000 more acres, also included in the survey. While some of the tracts already redeemed are of considerable extent, they are but specks as compared with the great areas remaining untouched. There has been expended for protection purposes over \$17,000,000 in this valley, but most of it has been wasted, owing to lack of comprehensive surveys and plans. These overflowed lands are fruitful beyond all comprehension. Yields are fabulous, and if one wishes to dream of the conquest of an inland empire he needs but to visit the Sacramento and the San Joaquin valleys and view the possibilities of swamp and desert reclamation.



THE LARGEST ASPARAGUS FARM IN THE WORLD.

(Reclaimed Sacramento Valley lands which have been diked and the water pumped back into the river. The river channel is higher than the farm lands.)

In an account of American drainage mention must not be omitted of government drainage construction already undertaken on a generous scale. Though not classed as such, a number of very large projects is in progress of building, and some have been completed by the Reclamation Service in conjunction with irrigation. In every government irrigation project a drainage survey is

made. Drainage is a required adjunct in most regions where irrigation is practiced extensively; otherwise the lands become water-logged, and, by capillary attraction, alkaline water is brought up from the depths and evaporated, leaving the salts in the surface soil and eventually ruining the land.

An exceedingly interesting and significant example, too, of actual combined drainage ir-



HOUSES BUILT ON THE FORMER SHIOCTON MARSH, WISCONSIN.



CABBAGES, TWENTY TONS PER ACRE, GROWN ON FORMER SHIOCTON MARSH, WISCONSIN.

rigation reclamation is in the Klamath project, in Oregon-California, for in this instance the engineers are attacking a specific drainage reclamation enterprise and converting swamp lands into homes. It serves to show that the Reclamation Service is not only competent to master drainage problems, but that it is actually doing so, apart from any national drainage legislation.

Taken all in all, the American swamp and drainage problem is a highly fascinating subject and presents a variety of interesting phases. The conservative engineer will undoubtedly make liberal deductions from our total wet-land area in estimating the reclaimable acreage, as for instance, Shaler, who, while describing 78,000,000 acres of morasses, estimated that there were 64,000,000 acres which could be won to agriculture. Perhaps so,—the latter area of wet lands embraced in projects which at this time would commend themselves to engineers as feasible; but who can doubt that ultimately every acre of these lands will be redeemed, even though

they lie so unfortunately that water must be eternally pumped from them? This is not more than the Dutch are doing, where thousands of acres have been literally torn from the grasp of the Old Man of the Sea, and where innumerable windmills and engines constantly ply their trade to keep the lands in arable condition.

Swamp reclamation may not appeal to the esthetic in man as strongly as do irrigation works. It does not promise the grandeur in effect produced by irrigation construction. There will be no erection of towering dams, no cementing of the walls of beetling precipices to hold back flood waters and create crystalline reservoir-lakes, no hewing of splendid mountain roads out of the sides of impassable cañons; but the work, though lowly, will be none the less beneficent than irrigation construction,—rather the contrary. The desert is wholesome, reclaimed or undisturbed; but swamps are pestilential, and their drainage will accomplish great good in producing better health conditions.

# NATIONAL FORESTS IN THE APPALACHIANS.

BY THOMAS ELMER WILL.

(Secretary of the American Forestry Association.)

THE President of the United States has pointed to an issue which he declares to be the greatest before the American people. It is that of the conservation and wise use of our natural resources. To-day the most acute aspect of that issue is the Appalachian National Forest question.

Aside from those in Alaska, Porto Rico, and the Philippines, all our national forests, in area greater than the whole of either France or Germany, are in the West. Greatly as they are needed there, the need for them is even more imperative in the East and South, for it is in these sections that population is dense and industrial activity great. A few State forests, as in New York, Pennsylvania, and Connecticut, are found in the East, but not a square foot of national forest lies east of the Mississippi, and but an insignificant area east of Colorado. As early as 1899, when the Appalachian National Park Association was organized at Asheville, N. C., the need for such forests in the South was recognized. On January 2, 1900, this association memorialized the Fifty-sixth Congress, and in the following April Senator Pritchard, of North Carolina, introduced a bill appropriating \$5000 for a preliminary investigation. Within five days this bill passed. In the summer of 1900 the investigation was had. On January 1 following, Secretary of Agriculture James Wilson presented a preliminary report to Congress through the President.

Space forbids tracing, in this connection, the various steps in the history of the agitation and legislation for this measure. By 1903 New England was pressing for national legislation to protect the forests of the White Mountains by including them in a national park. On December 10 of that year Senator Gallinger introduced a bill for the purchase of the White Mountain forest reserve. In 1906 the proposal for the establishment of national forests in the Southern Appalachians and in the White Mountains was consolidated into a single bill, reported favorably by Senator Brandegee on March 9. On April 25 of that year a notable hearing of

friends of the consolidated measure was had before the Committee on Agriculture of the House of Representatives, which committee, through its chairman, Mr. Wadsworth, on May 22, unanimously reported the bill for passage. On June 22 this bill unanimously passed the Senate. Opposition, however, from the Committee on Rules prevented the bill from coming to a vote in the House; it, therefore, died with the close of the Fifty-ninth Congress. However, a provision was inserted in the Agricultural Appropriation bill appropriating \$25,000 for a survey and report by the Secretary of Agriculture on the Southern Appalachian and White Mountain watersheds. This report, accompanied by maps, was carefully prepared, and on December 11, 1907, referred to the Committee on Agriculture and Forestry and ordered to be printed as Senate Document No. 91.

## PROPOSITIONS BEFORE CONGRESS.

Bills were early introduced in the House and Senate of the Sixtieth Congress appropriating \$5,000,000 for the purchase of land "more valuable for the regulation of stream-flow than for other purposes and situated on the watersheds of navigable streams in the Southern Appalachian Mountains within the States of Maryland, Virginia, West Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Kentucky, and Tennessee, and in the White Mountains within the States of New Hampshire and Maine."

On January 30 of the present year another hearing, the second within two years, was had before the House Committee on Agriculture. In it were represented the governments of twenty States, eleven by direct vote of their legislatures; great national organizations of business men, fearful of the future of industries worth more than \$1,000,000,000 a year, and societies with a membership of more than 500,000. Urgent messages were sent by every State on the Atlantic Coast and on the western side of the Alleghany Mountains. During an entire day experts, business men, and statesmen testified with one voice to the imperative



APPALACHIAN FOREST AT ITS BEST.

(Beech and oak trees on the Biltmore estate in North Carolina.)

necessity for New England and the South, if not for the entire United States, of the prompt establishment of the national forests sought.

#### THE PROBLEM OF TIMBER SUPPLY.

To discuss fully this Appalachian question would require a book. Space limits necessitate severest condensation, with many omissions. Through Senate Document 91, the testimony at the hearing referred to, and other data filed, the following facts are "in evidence":

The Southern Appalachians control the nation's future hardwood supply. In the last seven years, though in the face of an unprecedented demand, the cut of hardwood lumber has diminished more than 15 per cent., the wholesale prices of hardwood lumber advancing meanwhile from 25 to 65 per cent.; but in both the South and New England the timber supply is being not simply extravagantly consumed but shamelessly wasted and destroyed. Forty per cent. of

the Appalachian forest region has been cleared, and but 17 per cent. remains as virgin timber. In clearing, the undergrowth and small trees are removed; the large trees girdled. Clearing steadily proceeds to replace wornout, eroded, abandoned lands. The movement is always toward the higher land. Lumbering proceeds more rapidly than ever, with little tendency to conservative cutting. On all, cut and uncut, fire damage is vast.

The destruction accompanying lumbering operations in the White Mountains must be seen to be appreciated. Large lumber and pulp companies are now engaged in logging operations. Clean cutting is practiced on all the steeper slopes. Vast quantities of unused timber, as well as tops and branches, are left on the ground. These form a fire-trap. In them frightful conflagrations rage, sweeping up the mountain-sides as up a gigantic chimney, destroying all vegetation and often cutting away the soil itself down to the living rock. Vales of beauty are thus transformed into veritable gehennas.

## CONSERVING THE RAINFALL.

Important as is the wood aspect of this question, the water aspect is more important. New England, destitute of mines of precious metals, of copper, coal, and iron, and practically without agriculture, depends upon its forests, streams, and manufactures. The latter grew up because of the water-power. The cities of Lowell and Lawrence, of Manchester, Lewiston, and Biddeford, of Holyoke, Turners Falls, and Bellows Falls have grown up largely on account of the water-power beside which they were built. These water-powers are dependent upon the equable flow of the streams which rise in the White Mountains. Cutting the forests seriously impairs the evenness of stream-flow, substituting alternations of floods and droughts. These seriously menace the well-being, if not the very lives, of whole communities.

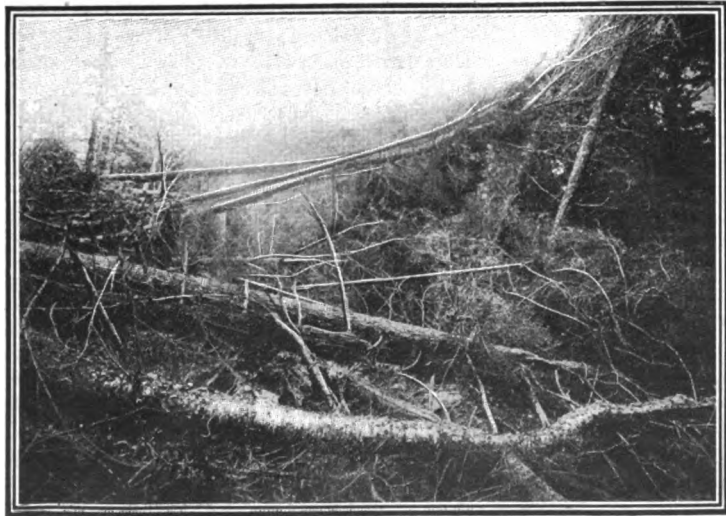
In the Southern Appalachian region is found the heaviest rainfall in the United States except in the Puget Sound region. Over a considerable area it averages seventy or eighty inches per year, reaching, in places, 105 inches. That this rainfall shall be held back and admitted but gradually to the streams is imperatively necessary. In this work the forest is a factor of fundamental importance. On its removal rainwaters rush from steep slopes as from house-roofs, carrying before them soil, sand, boulders, rubbish,—everything movable,—sweeping it into the streams. From an agricultural standpoint this soil destruction is calamitous. The

effects, however, upon navigation are even more serious. The flood question, in itself, is sufficient to call for governmental action. Forester Pinchot stood astride of a brooklet at low water, washing his hands and face in it; this same brooklet, rising in steep slopes from which the forests had been removed, piled up, in flood-time, in windrows, hemlock logs three feet in diameter and fifty feet long. The Pacolet flood swept away whole cotton-mills. In a single year floods in a single section of the South destroyed \$18,000,000 worth of property. Great destruction of property in New England has also been caused by floods.

## WATER-POWER AND NAVIGATION.

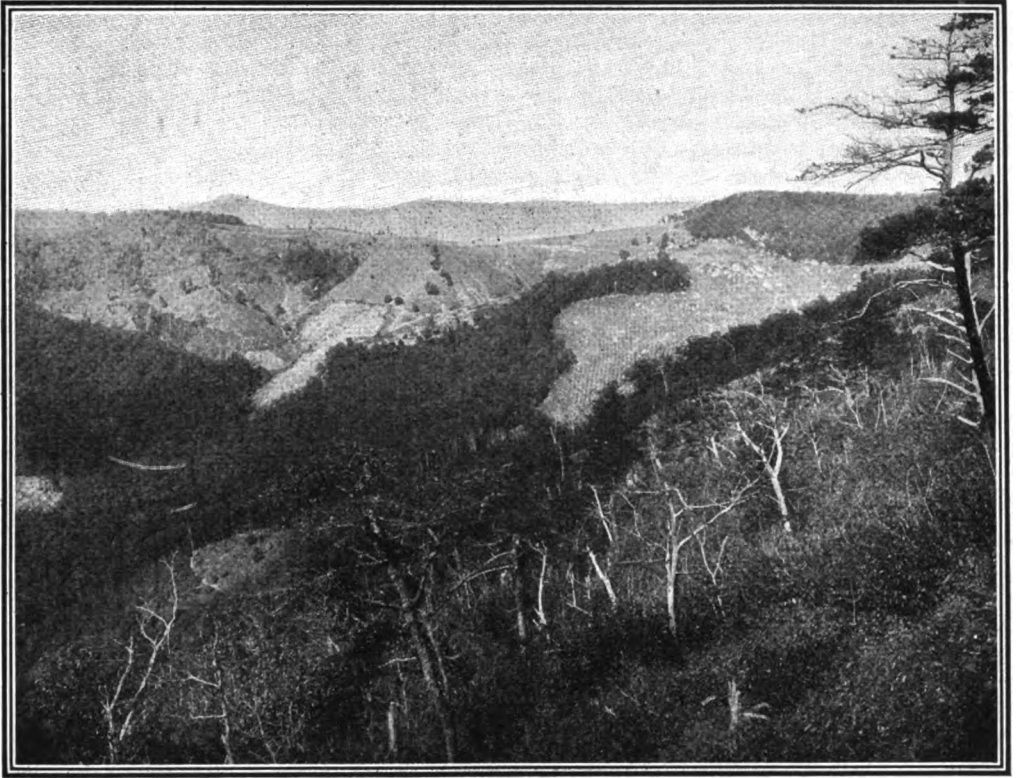
Water-power in the South is a mighty economic factor. Its utility has been greatly increased by the perfection of agencies for transmitting electricity. Most Southern railroads are built on ridges. Mills, located beside these railways, may now be driven by electric power generated from waterfalls on remote streams. In consequence, electricity has become "the power behind the South." Under present conditions the streams of the Southern Appalachians afford a minimum of 2,740,000 horsepower. This may be increased from three to thirty times by development of the storage facilities of streams. Of the minimum power at least 50 per cent. is available for economic development. The rental of 1,350,000 horsepower per annum is worth \$27,000,000, at \$20 per horsepower. Adding to this the possible revenue of the remaining 50 per cent. of power for but half the year gives a total rental value of \$38,000,000.

For the utilization of this power the forest, as a balance-wheel to stream-flow, is absolutely indispensable. No system of reservoirs, however expensive, can more than supplement the forest. In no way can it supply the forest's place. Said United States Hydrographer Leighton to the Agricultural Committee: "The reservoirs will not be worth a minute's



RESULTS OF A FOREST FIRE IN THE ADIRONDACK MOUNTAINS, NEW YORK.





A NORTH CAROLINA PANORAMA.

(Foreground showing part removal of forest cover for agricultural purposes, land erosion, etc.)

time, or a cent of money, unless the forests are retained." In both New England and the South forest-cutting has already seriously impaired the usefulness of water-power. Dams are filling in; to such an extent, in one case reported, as to decrease the power from 5 to 10 per cent., and, in another, from 15 to 25 per cent. Electric power, once sufficient, now has to be supplemented by steam. One great power company is designing a 50,000-horsepower steam plant to cost \$2,000,000. It is needed four or five months in the year. In consequence, power which has been selling for \$15 or \$20 per horsepower will now sell at from \$20 to \$25. Cleaning out these dams is impracticable. Were it otherwise, the silt would simply descend the stream to impair or destroy the next water-power. Removed from here it would thus continue its descent, to necessitate, at last, the building by the Government of jetties that it might be pushed out into the ocean.

Again, the navigation question is of far-reaching importance. All the waters gath-

ered by the Southern Appalachian Mountains flow to the sea in navigable rivers. All the streams flowing from the White Mountains are navigable in their lower courses. Because of abundant rainfall and slight evaporation the water discharge from the Southern Appalachian rivers is heavy. Because of the steepness of the mountain slopes upon which it falls, and the absence of natural lakes to gather and hold it, the run-off is rapid. The one conservative force to restrain these waters is the forest. Through deforestation streams are rapidly filling up. Silt accumulates; an island forms; it grows, splits the channel; the muddy current cuts away the bank on either side, carrying away bottom land, houses, barns, and other property. Sand-bars form beside the island, and whole fleets of government vessels are employed in dredging out these sand-bars one summer, only to repeat the process the next. In this way millions of dollars of government money is thrown away in scooping out detritus which should have been kept, through forests, in position upon the sides of the mountains and



in the valleys. In pursuing this policy, while hesitating to avoid its necessity, no better example could be found of wasting at the bung-hole while saving at the spigot than that afforded by the United States Government. With the forests supplemented by reservoirs, the depth of many streams could be materially increased. Thirty-five per cent. of the waters of the Monongahela could thus be stored, and flood damage at Pittsburg and Wheeling almost eliminated. The minimum stage of the Ohio at Wheeling might thus be increased three feet, and the coveted nine-foot stage between Pittsburg and Cincinnati secured. Only, however, by preserving the forests can this end be gained.

#### THE APPEAL TO SENTIMENT.

In addition to their cold-blooded business value these mountain forests have another and greater. Ruskin has well said that "there is no wealth but life." These great mountain regions contribute vastly to our national wealth in this higher form. They have been aptly styled "reservoirs of health." The White Mountains are within easy access of 10,000,000 people, and are visited annually by citizens from every State in the Union and from many foreign lands. The Southern Appalachian Mountains are within twenty-four hours' ride of 60,000,000 people. Resort to these regions, forest-clad, resounding with the singing of birds, the babbling of brooks, and the sighing of the winds through the tree-tops, and coming into contact with the heart of Nature, rests the nerves, gives tone to the system, strength to the muscles, and renewed vigor to the tired brain, and thus adds to our national strength, sanity, and longevity. Finally, the same argument that sufficed for the building of the Bunker Hill and the Washington monuments, of columns in memory of heroes who fell in battle, of domes and towers for public buildings; the same argument that prevailed for the preservation of the Old South Church, the ancient cemeteries, and the Common in Boston, despite the pressure of commercial interest; the argument that led to the purchase of the battlefield of Gettysburg, that floats the flag on every public building and from many a schoolhouse and claims the Fourth of July as a national holiday, would alone suffice, were there no other, for the preservation from desolation, desecration, and wreck of the splendid monuments which Nature has reared from Maine to Alabama.

The indefiniteness of the Appalachian

proposition, of which Speaker Cannon complained a year ago, no longer exists. The region, as stated, has been carefully surveyed and mapped, and the maps placed in the hands of committeemen and displayed in heroic size and striking colors before their eyes at hearings. Methods of acquiring and prices which must probably be paid have been stated by the Secretary of Agriculture. It has been made clear that local interests will be carefully safeguarded, and that local industries will gain rather than lose through the establishment of the national forests. Further, immediate action is strongly urged by the Secretary, for not only are the regions being despoiled, but, like that of the Sibylline Books, the price of the land rises with every day's delay.

#### THE DEMAND FOR LEGISLATION.

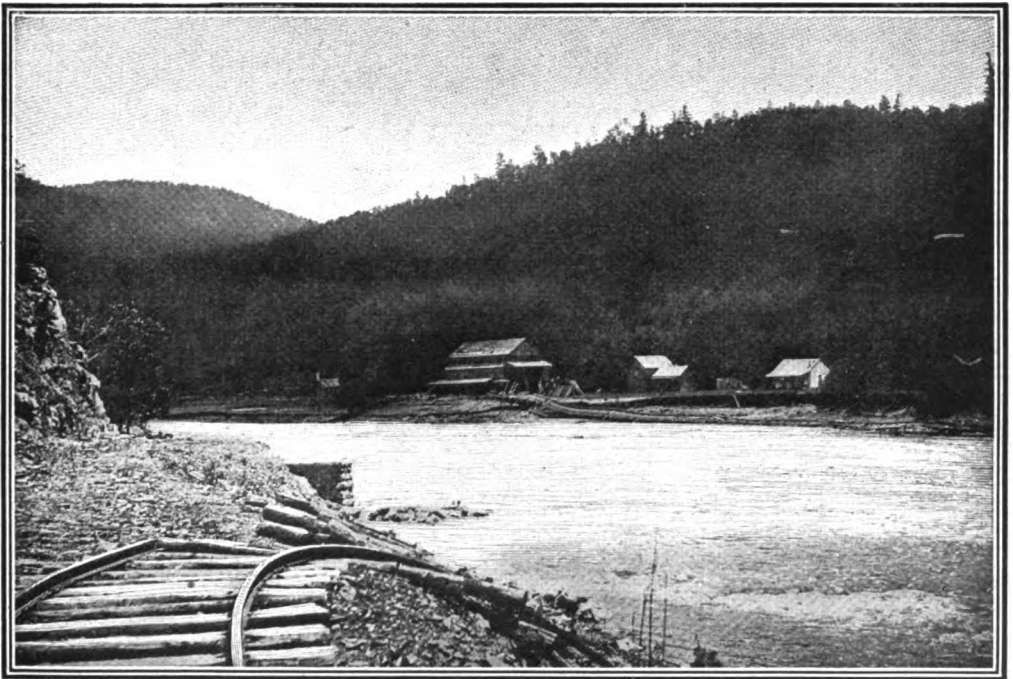
As conceded by Chairman Scott of the Agricultural Committee, the character of the demand for this measure and the personnel of the individuals and organizations interested should alone suffice to convince the most skeptical of its importance. Civil engineers, electrical engineers, men of science, philanthropists, New England as a unit, West Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama, South Carolina, North Carolina, Virginia, and Georgia, boards of trade, chambers of commerce, women's clubs, big business representing untold millions of capital, organizations which, like the American Civic Association, the American Forestry Association, and the General Federation of Women's Clubs, can be suspected of no other interest than that of the public, all unite in petitions and resolutions, through pilgrimages to Washington, by letter and memorial, and in every known and legitimate way, to impress upon the Congress of the United States their earnest and urgent desire for the immediate enactment of this legislation.

As Dr. Johnson declared that "Patriotism is the last refuge of a scoundrel," we may, with justice, declare that, in America, constitutionalism is the last refuge of the obstructionist. This question has, at last, been raised. A victim of "constitutional conscience" devoted to the extreme view of strict construction and States' rights, once common, but now lingering like the "last leaf upon the tree," and the stalwart who still "votes for Jackson," arose in his place in the House of Representatives and demanded that the Appalachian bill be referred to the House Committee on Judiciary, that

its constitutionality might be considered. The bill was thus referred. A hearing was called for, granted, and had on February 27. The mover of the resolution appeared and, in genuine Rip Van Winkle style, presented his plea, while the friends of the measure unanswerably demonstrated the right of Congress under the commerce clause, and in the interests of interstate navigation, if for no one of the multiplied and additional reasons, to proceed. It has been proved that the work can be done neither by individuals, corporations, individual States, nor groups of States. It follows, therefore, that, if it is to be done at all, it must be done by the nation. This fact is demonstrated beyond all quibble or peradventure. That the power resides in Congress, and in Congress alone, no sane, modern, and informed man can gainsay. Upon Congress, therefore, rests the responsibility. Will it do its duty, and do it now?

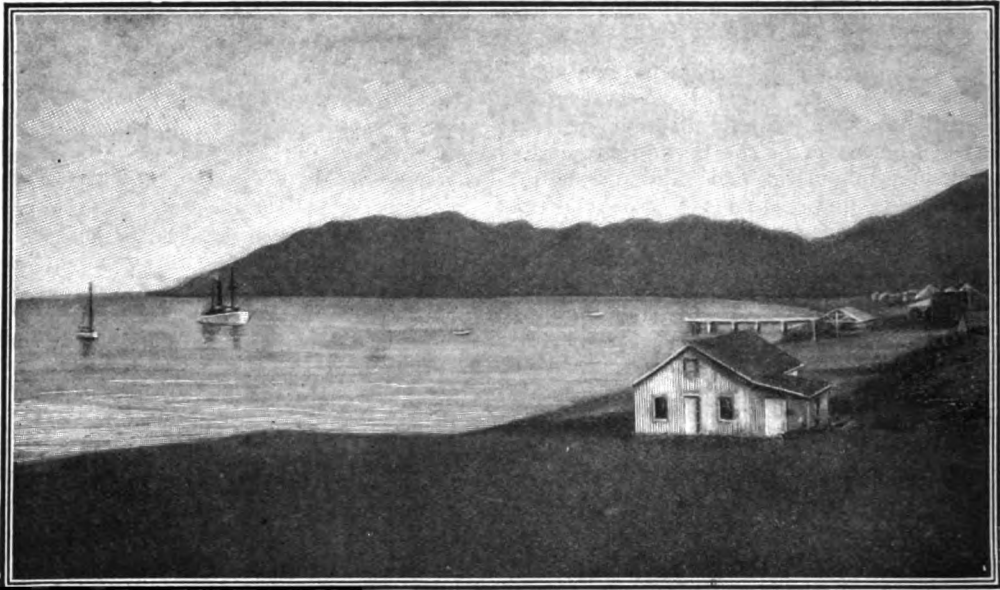
But the responsibility rests not wholly upon Congress. It bears with an equal or

greater burden upon the citizenship of the United States. Congress is but the people's servant, not their master. It has eyes to see, ears to hear, and hands to act only as the sovereign people of America command. Had the people spoken earlier and with greater emphasis the besom of destruction which still sweeps our mountain forests might long since have been stayed. Let us be thankful that they are speaking now, and with tones which have reached the national capitol. But let them speak again, more earnestly, more resolutely, and in accents which will reveal to the dullest ear that "No" will not be taken for an answer. Let the volume of appeal, exhortation, and demand roll in upon our national legislature like ocean waves upon the rock bound coast of old New England, and let there be no repose and no peace for those who would evade duty and shirk public responsibility until the Appalachian bill is enrolled upon our national statutes.



DESTRUCTION WROUGHT BY THE FLOOD OF 1901, ON THE NOLACHUCKY RIVER, TENNESSEE.

(The railroad bridge at this point was entirely washed away.)



Photograph, copyright, 1908, by Arthur W. North.

ANCHORAGE AND STATION FOR TARGET PRACTICE AT MAGDALENA BAY, LOWER CALIFORNIA, WHERE THE AMERICAN BATTLESHIP FLEET ARRIVED ON MARCH 12.

(Looking north from the landing. The harbor is nearly forty miles long and about twelve miles wide.)

## THE GREATEST NAVAL CRUISE OF MODERN TIMES.

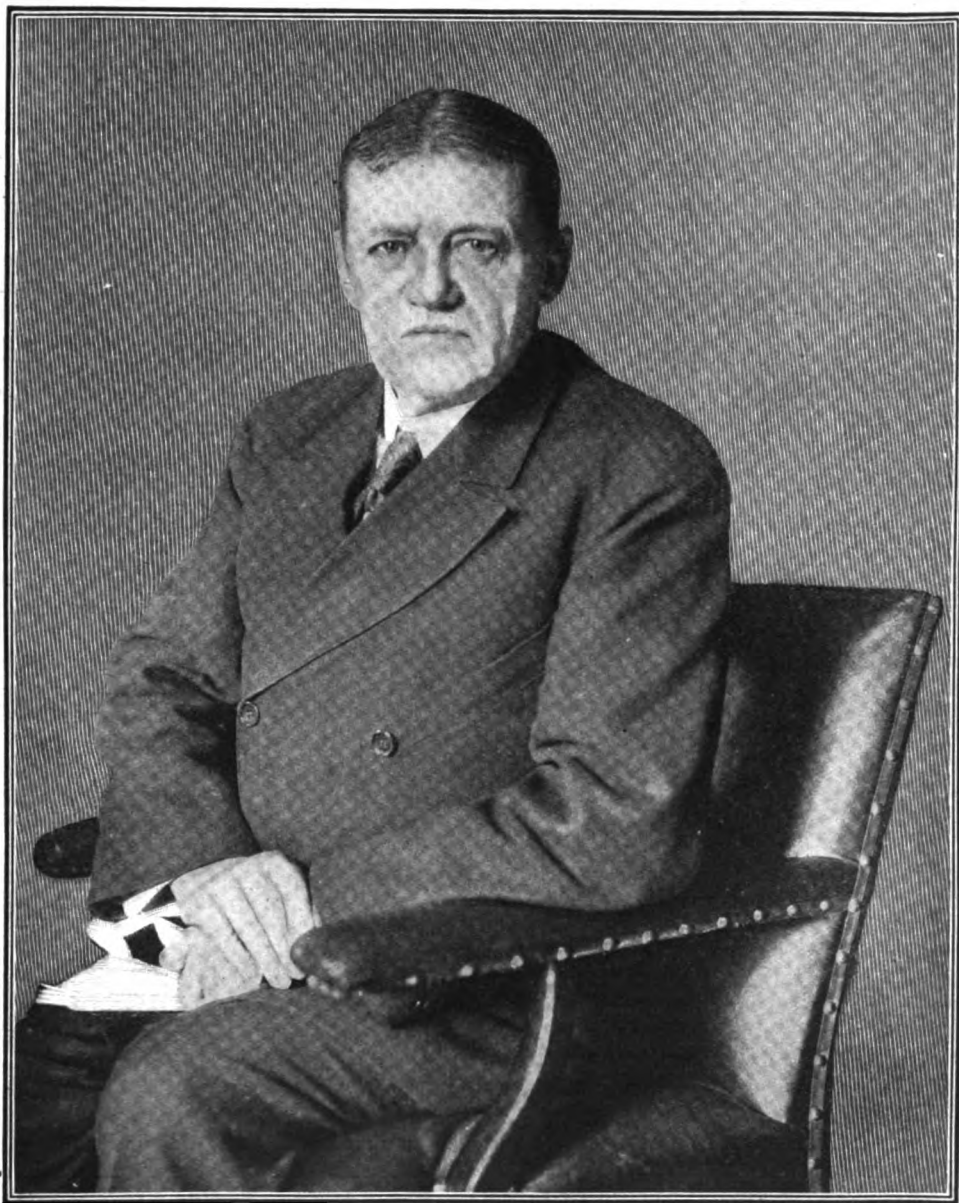
BY WINTHROP L. MARVIN.

WITH Magdalena Bay in Lower California,—home waters, almost,—holding the battleship fleet of the United States, the first stretch of this greatest of all peaceful voyages of men-of-war may be said to be a thing accomplished. The run of 1000 miles from Magdalena Bay to San Francisco will be relatively short, smooth, and uneventful, past our own coasts, over routes regularly traversed by our Pacific cruisers in their routine swinging to and fro between Puget Sound and the torrid ports of the Isthmian republics. This westward voyage of a mighty armada of sixteen ships-of-the-line, like the eastward race of the solitary *Oregon* in the war-year of 1898, has been conducted with a precision worthy of the fine traditions of American seamanship, than which no higher word of praise can be said.

Viewed as an administrative undertaking, this Pacific cruise is without precedent in the naval annals of the nations. Great Britain has a vast stake in India, and in her long belt of lesser eastern colonies between Calcutta and Hong Kong, and yet the British

Admiralty, with fifty battleships to draw on, has seldom had more than two or three armorclads, and these not of the heaviest class, in Indian waters or on the China coast. The King's battle-line has been kept in the Channel or the Mediterranean. France and Germany have seldom sent any of their weightiest vessels overseas. The modern battleship, with all its Titanic power, has a complex, and, in parts, even a delicate, mechanism, readily deranged. Thus year after year the naval governments of the world have habitually kept their armored fleets within easy reach of their repair yards, and have thus maintained also a prudent concentration of their sea-fighting strength.

Foreign admiralities wondered much when the *Oregon*, reporting on the Atlantic Coast at Jupiter Inlet, after her 13,000-mile run from the Pacific, was sent straight to join the blockade off Santiago. A long stay in dock to examine hull and restore machinery was assumed to be the inevitable sequel of such a long and arduous voyage. Now sixteen battleships, with their working power



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REAR-ADMIRAL ROBLEY D. EVANS, COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF OF THE ATLANTIC FLEET (SEE PAGE 462).

unimpaired, have made a like voyage in the other direction. Just as surely as the brief and fiery ordeal of battle, this means efficiency of a high order,—efficiency in design, in construction, and in administration, whatever stay-at-home critics and hair-trigger controversialists may argue. There is no test so honest and searching as the hard, practical test of an ocean cruise half way around the world.

#### WHAT THE BATTLESHIPS HAVE COST.

The actual cost of this Pacific voyage of the battleship fleet has been very much exaggerated in popular comment on the undertaking. It is true that an immense "working plant" has been involved. The money expended to create each of the sixteen armor-clads is equivalent to the endowment, the buildings, and the total academic equipment

of an important university. The ship of lowest cost in the fleet is the 11,500-ton *Illinois*, which represents a total expenditure of \$4,621,000. Of this, \$2,595,000 is the contract price paid to her builders, the Newport News Shipbuilding & Dry Dock Company, of Virginia, for hull and machinery; the remainder is chargeable to guns, armor, and general equipment. The ship of highest cost is Admiral Evans' flagship, the 16,000-ton *Connecticut*, and the only vessel of the fleet built in a navy yard, that at Brooklyn. She represents an expenditure of \$7,677,000, or \$757,000 more than her sister ship, the *Louisiana*, constructed in the great private shipyard at Newport News. This Newport News yard produced also six other vessels of the fleet, the *Illinois*, *Kearsarge*, *Kentucky*, *Minnesota*, *Missouri*, and *Virginia*. Three of the vessels, the *New Jersey*, *Rhode Island*, and *Vermont*, were launched by the Fore River Shipbuilding Company, of Quincy, Mass., on Boston Harbor; two, the *Alabama* and the new *Maine*, by the William Cramp & Sons' Ship & Engine Building Company, of Philadelphia; one, the *Kansas*, by the New York Shipbuilding Company, of Camden, N. J.; one, the *Georgia*, by the Bath Iron Works, of Bath, Me., and one, the *Ohio*, by the Union Iron Works, of San Francisco.\*

The aggregate cost of the sixteen battleships is \$96,606,000, or a little less than the total sum expended on account of the United States Navy in a single year. Our entire battleship fleet, built and building, numbers twenty-nine, including the two monster new ships of the *Dreadnought* class, but superior to the *Dreadnought* in size and power; the 20,000-ton *Delaware*, now under construction at Newport News, and her giant sister, the *North Dakota*, at Fore River.

These sixteen battleships require for their maintenance a total expenditure of \$9,417,-

000 a year, or a little more than \$25,000 every day. The charge for each ship ranges from \$479,000 a year for the 11,500-ton *Illinois* to \$626,000 a year for the 16,000-ton *Louisiana*. This cost of maintenance includes as its largest item the pay of the officers and crew. Thus, the forty officers and 800 men of the new *Maine* receive in compensation every year \$328,000 from the Government. The expenditures of the *Maine* on ordnance account, according to the last returns, are \$67,000; on steam engineering, \$58,000; on repairs to hull, machinery, and equipage, \$86,000. On other ships of the same type the various factors in the annual cost of maintenance stand in very much the same proportion.

#### ACTUAL COST OF THE CRUISE.

It has been said that the expense of this voyage of circumnavigation was \$25,000 a day, or somewhat more,—not reckoning the interest on the investment of almost \$100,000,000 of the national resources in the first cost of the ships themselves. But it should be borne carefully in mind that the maintenance of the ships with their officers and crews must go on just the same, whether the fleet is in Narragansett Bay or Magdalena Bay, in Hampton Roads or the Straits of Magellan. This is true even of the burning of coal. An American armored fleet in commission is pre-eminently a working fleet. It does not lie long at anchor. It visits navy yards only for essential supplies or periodical overhauling. More than most of the war fleets of the world is ours accustomed to be in blue water. Regularly every year the Atlantic ships have been wont in the early winter to leave the home coast and steer southward for drill-grounds in the genial Caribbean, unvexed by cutting sleet and smothering fog. Then in the spring the fleet has followed the sun northward, constantly maneuvering and regularly exercising in that practice with the guns which has won for our present crews such a wonderful proficiency in marksmanship.

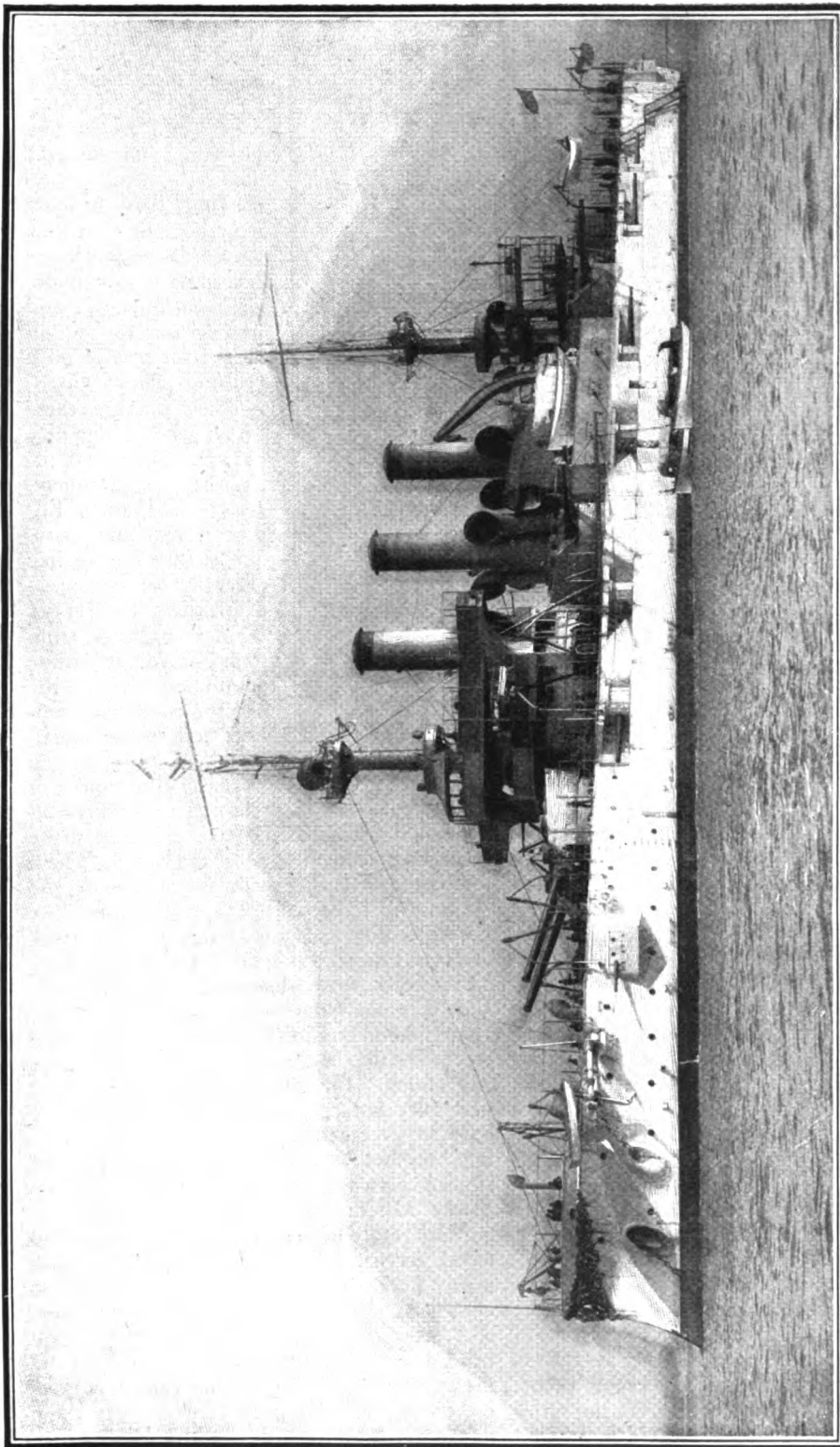
This long voyage around South America has been made at the ordinary cruising speed of about ten knots an hour, and after a run of from eight to fifteen days at sea the battleships have had from five to ten days in the various ports of call, at Trinidad, Rio de Janeiro, Punta Arenas, and Callao. They have not been steaming all the time, and though they have consumed a very great quantity of coal, they would have used much

\* The *Army and Navy Journal* furnishes the following statistics of the fleet:

A, displacement, fully equipped for sea; complement—B, officers; C, men; D, speed on trial (knots).

Name.	Date of launch.	A	B	C	D
<i>Connecticut</i> ...	Sept. 29, 1904...	16,000	41	840	18.00
<i>Kansas</i> ...	Aug. 12, 1905...	16,000	41	809	18.00
<i>Louisiana</i> ...	Aug. 27, 1904...	16,000	41	840	20.743
<i>Vermont</i> ...	Aug. 31, 1905...	16,000	41	840	18.00
<i>Georgia</i> ...	Oct. 11, 1904...	14,948	40	772	19.26
<i>New Jersey</i> ...	Nov. 10, 1904...	14,948	40	772	19.18
<i>Rhode Island</i> ...	May 17, 1904...	14,948	40	772	19.01
<i>Virginia</i> ...	April 5, 1904...	14,948	40	772	19.01
<i>Minnesota</i> ...	April 8, 1905...	16,000	41	840	18.00
<i>Ohio</i> ...	May 18, 1901...	12,500	41	759	17.82
<i>Missouri</i> ...	Dec. 28, 1901...	12,500	40	739	18.15
<i>Maine</i> ...	July 27, 1901...	12,500	41	772	18.00
<i>Alabama</i> ...	May 18, 1898...	11,552	34	679	17.01
<i>Illinois</i> ...	Oct. 4, 1898...	11,552	34	656	17.45
<i>Kearsarge</i> ...	Mar. 24, 1898...	11,520	39	651	16.82
<i>Kentucky</i> ...	Mar. 24, 1898...	11,520	35	651	16.90

Signal "Forward search-  
apparatus" light platform.

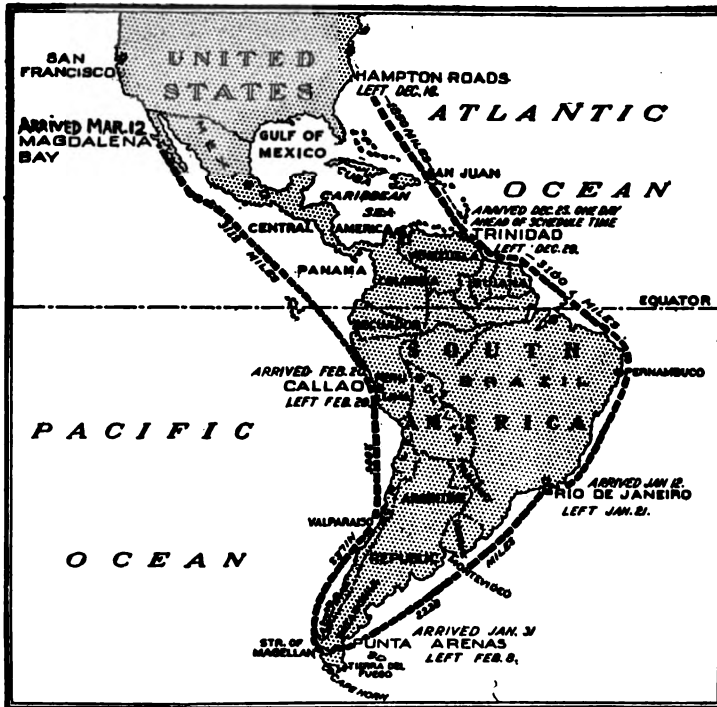


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12-inch gun.	3-inch gun aponson.	12-inch Bar- gun turret	Forward flying bridge.	Fire-room ventilating cowls.	7-inch gun em- gun and brasure. gun port	8-inch gun.	Quarter deck.	3-inch gun.
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THE "CONNECTICUT," FLAGSHIP OF THE FLEET AND THE EMBODIMENT OF THE WORLD'S LATEST IDEAS IN BATTLESHIP DESIGN AND CONSTRUCTION.

(Displacement, 16,000 tons; speed, 18 knots; coal supply, 2,200 tons. Armor: Belt, 11 inches to 4 inches; casemates, 7 inches; main turrets, 12 inches; secondary turrets, 8 inches; deck, 3 inches. Armament: Four 12-inch, eight 8-inch, twelve 7-inch, twelve 3-inch rapid-fire guns, 26 smaller guns. Torpedo tubes, four submerged. Complement, 803.)



MAP SHOWING THE ROUTE TAKEN BY THE ATLANTIC FLEET FROM HAMPTON ROADS TO MAGDALENA BAY.

coal on their usual winter drill-grounds in the Caribbean or the Gulf of Mexico.

The chief difference is that the coal which the fleet has burned in this voyage of circumnavigation has been sent out a long distance from the United States, partly in naval but mostly in commercial colliers, at a large cost for transportation; so that ton for ton it has involved a far higher price than if it had been delivered to the fleet at such a nearby base as Guantanamo, on the southeastern coast of Cuba. This enhanced cost of the coal supply, estimated at about \$1,000,000, represents, therefore, most of the actual net cost to the Treasury of the United States of this great and important expedition.

#### A GREAT GAIN IN EFFICIENCY.

Against this sum,—less than a single day's revenue of our Government,—is to be set, in the first place, to the credit of the nation, a gain in the sheer efficiency of the battleship crews, as reported to the Navy Department, of 100 per cent. A very large proportion of the 13,700 enlisted men of the fleet were making their first voyage in foreign waters. Hundreds of them were fresh from the farms and ranches of the Far West and Southwest and the railroad towns and manufacturing

cities of the Mississippi Valley. Though these young men have the requisite "fighting edge" and are of fine physical and mental quality, there is no denying that in any navy but our own they would be regarded as exceedingly raw material, too untrained and unseasoned to be accepted for service on a cruising man-of-war.

They manage these things differently abroad. Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy,—all the European maritime powers with the possible exception of Russia,—draw their recruits for their war fleets from their native maritime population,—from the hardy men of their fisheries and their ocean-

going-merchant ships. Time was when the United States did the same. But that was when we possessed a great merchant navy and a small fighting navy, and incomparably the best maritime population of the world. These resolute and hardy men, Americans of the Americans, have well-nigh disappeared, like the ships they sailed in, from the iron coast of New England and the sea towns of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia. Such men as we still draw from that old sailor-stock are the best men we have, the best men beneath the flag of any nation. But they are too few and our new navy is large, and to man our ships we have to go far from the sea and take willing but awkward recruits from the inland empire between the Alleghenies and the Rocky Mountains. This plan has the important result of genuinely nationalizing the naval service of the country, but it undeniably puts a severe strain at first upon the officers of the navy, far too few in number, and upon the small nucleus of thoroughly trained and competent sailormen. Out of the 33,027 men in the navy on June 30, 1907, no fewer than 25,761 were serving their first enlistment.

The crews of most of the sixteen battle-



ships which sailed from Hampton Roads under Admiral Evans' flag on December 16 last bore an unsatisfactory aspect to the seabred observer. There were too many "tenderfeet" aboard,—to use an expressive phrase of the Western country, no truer of a Massachusetts lad on an Oklahoma ranch than of an Oklahoma lad on a ship-of-the-line in the North Atlantic. The berth-decks and forecastles of these ponderous armor-clads, our first line of defense, looked too much like the training ships of the apprentice squadrons. The "style" of the crews was too light, too juvenile. But nothing has changed all this so surely and so thoroughly as a hundred days' voyage around the southern hemisphere, twice crossing the equator, threading the treacherous straits, and facing the strange skies and strange waters of those distant latitudes. Officers of the fleet in their reports are enthusiastic over the transformation wrought in their young and untrained men by the steady, systematic, wholesome discipline enforced by the admiral-commanding and the keen spirit of emulation aroused among the several ships. The 100 days have brought, it is declared, a 100 per cent. increase in seamanlike efficiency. A smaller fleet on the familiar drill-grounds of the Caribbean could have had no such stimulus and achieved no such progress as has this great fleet, every man of which has felt that the eyes of the nation at home were following him, and that however modest his station he must bear himself worthily as an American sailor in the stoutest squadrons that ever flew the Stars and Stripes.

#### CLOSER INTERNATIONAL BONDS.

Another advantage, and a great one, of this unique cruise is the cordial welcome and closer acquaintance which it has evoked from the governments and peoples of the chief republics of Latin-America. To the Brazilians, the Argentines, the Chileans, and the Peruvians the mighty Republic of the north is a mere name, or a dim figure, powerful and honored, perhaps, but not actually known. For long years there has been little or no visible evidence of the wealth or authority of the United States in the chief South American seaports. An occasional cruiser has called there, or a lumber barque or schooner from New England, or a Cape Horn clipper, broken-winged and distressed.

Out of 2000 ships that entered and cleared at the great Argentine port of Buenos Ayres in the first ten months of 1907 only



Photograph by the Pictorial News Company, N. Y.

REAR-ADMIRAL WILLIAM H. EMORY.  
(Commander of the Second Division.)

six small sailing vessels were American. All these southern ports are constantly visited by swift and stately liners flying the flags of the maritime powers of Europe, tangible signs of the commercial enterprise and ocean strength of the Old World. Not one American steamship,—mail carrier or cargo boat,—runs to either coast of South America beyond the latitude of the Orinoco River. "During the past summer," said Secretary Root on his return from his southern mission in 1906, "I entered the ports of Para, Pernambuco, Bahia, Rio de Janeiro, Santos, Montevideo, Buenos Ayres, Bahia Blanca, Punta Arenas, Loto, Valparaiso, Coquimbo, Tocopilla, Callao, and Cartagena,—all of the great ports and a large proportion of the secondary ports of the southern continent. I saw only one ship, besides the cruiser that carried me, flying the American flag." The most important United States mails for Brazil and Argentina are sent out *via* Europe.

To the keen, imaginative Latin-Americans this strange absence of the North American flag from the marts and highways of the ocean seems a token of weakness and timidity, a confession of surrender, on the part of the mightiest nation in the world. It has appeared to even the friendliest of our southern neighbors that it verged on opera bouffe for the Washington government to proclaim the Monroe Doctrine in the face of Europe, and then to depend upon Europe for the means of postal and commercial communication with the southern republics to which that doctrine was supposed to apply. To a degree, at least, the voyage of our battleship fleet will lessen the unfortunate impression that the North American Republic, invincible on the land, is invisible on the sea. All of Latin-America now knows that the United States is in a position to enforce the Monroe Doctrine if need be by a navy of the first rank, albeit this navy had to beg and borrow from Europe the fleet of commercial colliers,—British, Dutch, Norwegian, Italian,—without which the long voyage could not have been accomplished.

Everywhere the white battleships have been received in the southern ports with that fine courtesy, that eager, abounding hospitality, which our Latin neighbors know so well and practice with such perfect art. There is not a thoughtful officer or man of the fleet who does not frankly recognize, after seeing with his own eyes those southern republics and their peoples, that, as Secretary Root has said, "the South Americans are our superiors in some respects," though "we are their superiors in other respects," and that on that southern continent there has developed a very high and noble civilization, of which in many things we have much to learn. The voyage of the battleship fleet was a fit sequel to the significant embassy of our great Minister of State, and it has drawn the northern and southern continents together in a new and strong mutual respect and understanding.

#### A CREDIT TO OUR NAVAL ADMINISTRATION.

Though through all the months of the voyage criticism at home has raged fiercely about the heads of our naval administration, and the country has been pained and unsettled by angry controversies among naval officers on shore duty, yet it must be acknowledged that the fairest and most conclusive test of a naval system is the actual results produced. Manifestly it was not a funda-

mentally weak and wrong, though it may in some details be far from a perfect, system which has built, equipped, and administered the line-of-battle now anchored, after its triumphant voyage, in Magdalena Bay. Though more than half of the ships were new, and three of them actually in the first months of their commission, the fleet was complete and prepared for its departure from Hampton Roads on schedule time. If the country knew the bewildering complexity of the vast equipment of a modern battleship it would realize better what this readiness means.

Then there has been no delay of consequence in the entire long journey. The indispensable fuel has been found where it was wanted. The machinery of the ships has performed well. The health of the crews has remained sound, and, indeed, their vigor has steadily improved. Though many of the men were new to their ships and new to the sea, a degree of comfort and contentment extraordinary on such a long voyage has prevailed, and there have been singularly few desertions. These are honest, unmistakable facts to be set down to the credit, not only of the officers of the fleet and of the men themselves, but of the naval administration in Washington.

#### THE COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF.

It is a fortunate thing that one of the heroes of the nation, an American of world-wide fame, has led the great fleet on its long cruise, and so has fitly crowned a splendid career of almost half a century in the nation's service. Rear-Admiral Robley D. Evans,—well deserving of a higher rank,—entered Annapolis, a Virginia lad of fourteen, in 1860. Those were years when the lads of the navy quickly became men. At fifteen as a cadet he helped to save "*Old Ironsides*" and remove her to a safe anchorage in the North, and at seventeen he was a watch officer of a steam frigate. Desperately wounded at the storming of Fort Fisher, young Evans was saved to life and to the service as by a miracle, and in the long years of peace that followed he was one of the ardent and ambitious officers who kept alive the superb discipline and "smartness" of the American naval service, in spite of antiquated guns and decaying wooden ships, Congressional neglect, and sullen popular indifference.

But reward came to him and to men like him in the new steel navy, one of whose first ships, the *Yorktown*, he commanded in a

## THE GREATEST NAVAL CRUISE OF MODERN TIMES.

brilliant cruise over the same route just traversed by his armored squadrons. It was his further distinction, as a full captain, to have charge of the *New York*, first of our large armored-cruiser class, and to bring out the *Indiana*, pioneer of our first-class battleships. In the war with Spain Captain Evans was designated by Secretary Long to command the new *Iowa*, largest and fastest of our ships-of-the-line, and it was in this splendid vessel that he served through the long blockade and in the thick of the final victorious sea-fight of San-

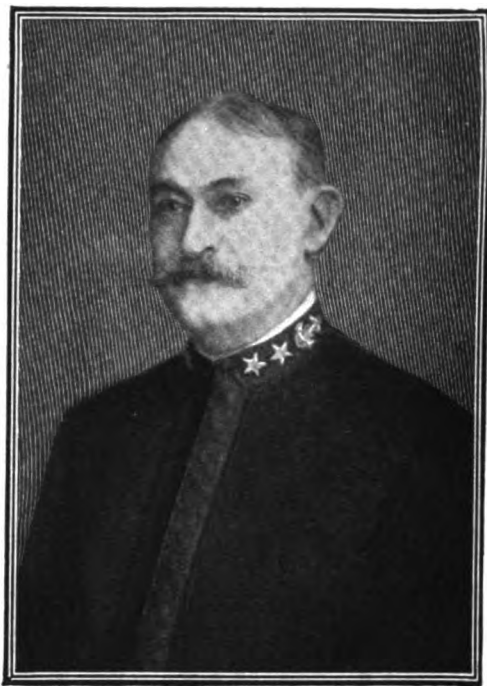


Photograph by Harris & Ewing.

REAR-ADMIRAL CHARLES S. SPERRY.  
(Commander of the Fourth Division.)

tiago. It was to the *Iowa's* hospitable deck that Admiral Cervera was brought, wounded and a prisoner, after the destruction of his flagship and her consorts.

Admiral Evans by his service in war and peace was honestly entitled to the proud command of the great battleship fleet in its sweep from the Atlantic to the Pacific,—a command which he will soon relinquish on retirement for age. For it is Admiral Evans more than any other man who has made the battleship fleet what it is to-day in the precision of its discipline and in its terrible war-



REAR-ADMIRAL CHARLES M. THOMAS.  
(Commander of the Third Division.)

like efficiency. As admiral-commanding on the Atlantic station he has seen the great fleet grow for several years, while ship after ship has joined his flag after her "shaking-down" cruise, from the yard of her builders. He has schooled ships and men by hard, constant drilling and maneuvering, summer and winter, up and down our Atlantic Coast, until what was at first merely a powerful collection of individual fighting units has been welded gradually into a compact, controlled battle-line, as responsive to his signals as a great locomotive to the hand of its engineer, and a thunderbolt to launch against an enemy.

The career and the character of Admiral Evans are vivid proof that America is still producing men with the old racial genius for the sea,—and officers of this type are, after all, as indispensable to the nation as the mightiest ships and guns which our workshops can fabricate; for the human factor in national defense, in naval warfare, has grown and not lost in importance since the days of spars and canvas, of wooden walls and smooth-bore artillery.

# AN IMPROVED NATURALIZATION SYSTEM.

BY ALFORD W. COOLEY.

(Assistant Attorney-General of the United States.)

THE critics of Theodore Roosevelt, whose zeal in their chosen field of endeavor can hardly be questioned, and his no less earnest and loyal champions, have devoted so much time and attracted so much attention to a few great features of the policies which are associated with his name, that certain notable achievements of his administration have passed almost unnoticed. Conspicuous among these is the reform of the naturalization laws.

The conditions under which an alien was converted into a citizen with substantially all the rights of a native-born prior to the enactment of the law of June 29, 1906, cannot be better described than in the words of a judge in a Northern State, who in a letter to the Secretary of State, under date of January 8, 1905, said:

Applicants (for naturalization) come at any time, and are thus able to select a day when, by reason of little business, no others are present, and thus there is no publicity. No one gives the court any aid, and the political parties not only are of no assistance, but, on the contrary, are the principal obstacles to the proper enforcement of the law, if it prevents their getting any party naturalized. Naturalization is principally a political question, some political party or some candidate being the instigator in a great majority of cases, which come mainly in connection with a campaign. . . . These are no imaginary evils, for I have had bitter personal experience with them all. The attempt was made last year to compel evening sessions for naturalization, which would of course destroy all effective publicity, as no one would be present except those engaged in the business, who would not expose any frauds if they observed them. As to a remedy, the best thing would be for the United States to take the whole subject of naturalization into its own courts and administer it properly, under systematic legislation. . . . The most important act of a person's life, save marriage, is naturalization, and it is all out of due proportion to perform that act in a court devoted largely to the trifling and indecent affairs of the community. It should not be ranked with disturbing the peace or keeping an unlicensed dog. . . . Courts are now taking certificates of good moral character from convicts.

In June, 1905, there were 5160 courts in the United States naturalizing aliens. Of

this number 157 were federal courts and 5003 State courts. I spoke at the outset of a reform in the naturalization laws. The real reform has been in the method of administration. The laws themselves, though in substance enacted over a century ago, were based on principles which have stood the test of time.

The first naturalization act, which was passed by the first Congress under the Constitution, was soon superseded by a second, framed by Madison, and passed in 1795. The principles laid down in this act form the foundation for the act of 1906. It required that,

An alien, to be admitted as a citizen of the United States, *must forswear allegiance to every other sovereignty; must have lived in the United States for at least five years before his naturalization; must be a man of good moral character and attached to the principles of the Constitution of the United States; must take the oath of allegiance, and must, if of an order of nobility, make express renunciation of his title.*

While experience has shown that these principles are sound, the law had the fatal defect of depending on no one for its enforcement, and of failing to provide any system of supervision.

In 1884 President Arthur urged the establishment of a federal bureau wherein should be kept the records of all naturalizations, both in federal and in State courts. This recommendation was repeated by President Cleveland in 1885. No action was taken, and no further attempt to secure action was made until 1904, when President Roosevelt again referred to the matter in an annual message, following up his recommendation by the appointment of a commission to investigate and report to him upon the subject of naturalization in the United States. The commissioners appointed were Milton D. Purdy, of the Department of Justice; Gailard Hunt, of the Department of State, and Richard K. Campbell, of the Department of Commerce and Labor. On November 8, 1905, the commission presented a report, setting forth its conclusions, and submitting

drafts of two bills. This report set forth with great clearness the changes necessary to prevent citizenship of the United States from being regarded as a thing of so little value that it could be acquired by any one who chose to ask for it. It showed that although about 100,000 aliens were naturalized annually the hearings on the applications were conducted in the most perfunctory way. Even if a judge honestly desired to enforce the law, and to exclude those who from ignorance or from other causes were unfitted to exercise the rights of citizenship, he received no assistance, and it was only in the cases of the most ignorant that a necessarily cursory cross-examination disclosed facts which justified him in denying the application. And it was unfortunately true that in many instances the judges were indifferent or worse. The public conscience gradually became so hardened that but little attention was paid to the sporadic complaints made.

In 1844 a committee of the House of Representatives of Louisiana did undertake an investigation, as a result of which Judge B. C. Elliot, of the city court of Lafayette, La., was impeached, convicted, and dismissed from the bench, the committee stating "that he has suffered the temple of justice to be converted into a trading-shop for the sale of spurious naturalization certificates, and that he has permitted the law, which he was sworn to administer in its purity, to be degraded into an instrument of fraud and political corruption." That this cannot be regarded as symptomatic of a condition which no longer exists is evidenced by the fact that, during the discussion of the act of 1906, one of the opponents of the bill, a former judge in a Western State, gave as a reason why no more careful method of naturalization should be required, that he had himself found it possible to admit 600 to citizenship in one day. Of late years there have, however, been certain causes tending to make frauds less frequent and less flagrant. The inducing cause of such practices has almost invariably been the desire to secure political advantage. Among other things the cost and uncertain advantage of securing fraudulent naturalizations, owing to ballot-reform laws, have had a healthy influence.

Both as an indication of the stupendous character of the frauds, and of the change for the better even before the act of 1906, a comparison of conditions in 1868 and in 1902 is not without interest. The best place to institute such comparison is in New York

City. It was there that the greatest frauds were to be found. In 1868 the estimated population was 800,000 and the estimated naturalizations were 58,000; in 1902 the estimated population was 3,500,000 and the actual number of naturalizations was 11,177.

When it is realized that in 1900 35 per cent. of the total vote of New York City was cast by naturalized citizens, the vital consequence of the subject under discussion is immediately apparent.

With these conditions confronting it, the Purdy commission set to work to find a remedy. With wise conservatism its members took as the groundwork for a new bill the many excellent features of the existing statutes. Obviously the first point to consider was by whom naturalization should be conferred. Should this be done as formerly by the courts or, as in practically all foreign countries, by an administrative officer? While the latter course had many advantages, it meant the creation of a vast and expensive machine and a radical departure from the established practice of nearly a century and a quarter of national life. The commission decided to keep the work in the hands of the courts. To attempt to confine it to the federal courts would have worked a great injustice on many worthy applicants for citizenship, since the federal courts sit at but a few points in each State, and applicants would frequently have been obliged to travel long distances to attend court. The plan finally adopted by Congress, which modified slightly the recommendations of the commission, was to vest jurisdiction in naturalization proceedings in federal courts generally and in such State courts of record as had jurisdiction in actions both at law and equity in which the amount in controversy was unlimited. There are now 2065 courts in the United States which have jurisdiction in naturalization proceedings.

Under the old laws each State Legislature and each district or circuit court of the United States fixed its own fees for naturalization work. In New York the fee for issuing the certificate of declaration of intention was 20 cents, and for naturalization 50 cents. Massachusetts allowed a fee of \$1 for the declaration, and of \$3 for naturalization. In certain Southern States \$5 was the usual charge, while a court in Nevada made the fee \$10. The Purdy commission recommended a total charge of \$7. Congress, however, cut it down to \$5.

As to the actual proceedings leading to

the securing of a certificate of citizenship, Congress provided that the alien should, at least two years before his admission and after he had reached the age of eighteen, file with the clerk of a court having jurisdiction a declaration of his intention to become a citizen. This declaration is to be followed within a period of not less than two nor more than seven years after it is filed by a petition, which must be filed in duplicate. One copy of the petition is retained by the clerk of the court, and the other must be immediately forwarded to the central bureau created by the act and made part of the Bureau of Immigration.

The act of 1906 contains a further provision previously unknown to the naturalization laws. Every applicant must be able to speak English. To insure the meeting of this requirement it was enacted that the petition should be filed in the applicant's own handwriting, setting forth his name, residence, etc., and further stating the time and place he entered the United States. If the entry was made at a port, the name of the vessel on which the applicant arrived must also be given. The Bureau of Immigration now keeps a record of the arrival of all aliens. By a simple system of checking, the naturalization of those who have not resided in the country for the five years required by the statute can be prevented.

If the applicant is married the petition must give the name of his wife and of such children as are living at the time the petition is filed, and must allege that the applicant is not an anarchist or a polygamist, that he intends to become a citizen, and that he renounces allegiance to every foreign government. He must also make oath that he intends to reside permanently in the United States. This last requirement marks a reform the importance of which can hardly be overestimated. For years the Department of State has been embarrassed by the claims for protection of persons who, after securing certificates of naturalization, return to a foreign country, and, neglecting the duties of citizenship, demand all its benefits. Any certificate acquired for this purpose is now tainted with fraud and can be canceled by the courts.

The petition must further be verified by two witnesses who are themselves citizens, and who must swear that they have known the applicant as a resident of the United States and of the State for the required period. They must also certify that the peti-

tioner is a man of good moral character and in every way qualified to become a citizen of the United States. Finally, the law requires that with the petition shall be filed a certificate from the Department of Commerce and Labor showing the time, place, and manner of petitioner's arrival in the United States.

There can be no final hearing until at least ninety days have elapsed from the time the petition is filed. At such final hearing the United States is given the right to appear for the purpose of cross-examining the petitioner and his witnesses and of introducing evidence affecting his right to citizenship, and in general taking such steps as may be necessary to prevent improper and fraudulent naturalization.

By the creation of the central bureau, together with the opportunity to examine every petition filed and the right granted to the Government to appear in naturalization proceedings, it can be made possible to prevent the recurrence of the frauds which have been so discreditable to us as a nation.

To accomplish this result some machinery is necessary. A mere naked right to appear in a naturalization proceeding is of little value if the lawyer representing the Government is furnished with no evidence on which the right of the petition to citizenship can be contested; and as a matter of fact the utter futility of directing a United States district-attorney to appear in a proceeding of which he knew nothing on the mere chance that he might develop something on cross-examination soon became apparent.

In the effort to carry out the manifest purpose of the law the courts and the district-attorneys' offices were swamped, and applicants put to unwarrantable delay in having their cases heard. The law of 1906, which marked so great a step forward, was in danger not only of being nullified but also of being made so unpopular that its subsequent enforcement would be a matter of great difficulty. In this emergency the Attorney-General and the Department of Commerce and Labor joined in an appeal to Congress. A tentative appropriation of \$100,000, which has since been supplemented by a further appropriation of \$90,000, resulted.

The Department of Justice set to work to create an organization the function of which should be to make a preliminary investigation of every petition filed and to report such facts as might be material to a law officer of the Government.

The country was accordingly divided into districts consisting of from three to five States each, and an office in charge of an assistant United States attorney established at some central point in each district. Attached to every one of these offices are a number of examiners, who, on receipt of notice from the central bureau in Washington of the filing of a petition in a court within the district to which they are assigned, interview the applicant and his witnesses, and take such other steps as may be necessary to put the assistant attorney in possession of such information as may enable him properly to present the case to the court.

Offices have been established at Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Pittsburg, Detroit, Chicago, St. Louis, St. Paul, Denver, San Francisco, and Seattle. With the location of an office at Dallas, and the assignment of two or three examiners to work in conjunction with the regular United States attorneys in the Southern States east of the Mississippi River, where the naturalization work is very light, the organization will be complete. On one thing the department has rigidly insisted. In making appointments to this service political considerations must play no part. To adopt any other course is to court failure, and in one respect the Department of Justice has been singularly fortunate. It so happens that just at this time the work of the special examiners of pension claims is running out, and in the near future the Pension Bureau will be forced to lay off a number of men of trained capacity whose work for years has consisted of gathering evidence on which court proceedings could be based. Needless to say the experience of these men peculiarly fits them for the work of the naturalization bureau. The department has been able to secure by transfer from the Pension Office a number of men whose records show that they are both by character and attainments fitted to carry on successfully the naturalization work which has been inaugurated. The department has furthermore secured through the courtesy of the Bureau of Immigration a few exceptionally competent immigrant inspectors. With men of this caliber in the positions of greatest responsibility, and with the subordinate places filled by men carefully selected from eligible registers of the Civil Service Commission, it is confidently believed that the naturalization service will be a credit to the Government and will more than justify its creation.

The results already achieved go far to substantiate this claim. From judges in every

section of the country come words of congratulation on what is being done. Not only is the time of the courts saved, but the judges are furnished with evidence on which they can pass intelligently upon the application rather than in the hit-or-miss style that formerly prevailed. If the preliminary investigation by the examiner shows that the petitioner has reasonably met all the requirements of the law, a few formal questions only are necessary before the oath of allegiance is administered and the certificate issued. If, on the other hand, there are valid reasons why the petition should be denied or the hearing adjourned until the applicant can become more familiar with our institutions, the attention of the court can be quickly called to the reasons for such action.

Nor is the department engaged merely in trying to make a record which will show by the number of applications rejected the effectiveness of its work. No man who by character and sympathetic knowledge of our institutions is fitted worthily to discharge the duties of American citizenship need fear that he will be rejected at the instance of the department.

Many details remain to be perfected before the organization will be in condition to do its work effectively. The department is not yet in a position where it can handle even current business, but, ultimately, now that the start has been made, it ought to be possible not only to prevent fraud in the future but to institute proceedings which shall result in canceling large numbers of certificates improperly issued in the past.

As a last word as to the importance of this work I cannot do better than quote from a letter recently written by the strong, wise man whose achievements in two great departments of the Government have filled the hearts of all Americans with pride:

\* \* \* \* \*

I hope that you will be able to carry through and obtain the necessary appropriations for the organization which you propose to make the (naturalization) act effective. It is high time that the people of the United States should begin to treat citizenship of the United States as a valuable right, and it is high time that our Government should prevent that right from being obtained by fraud on the part of people who are not entitled to it. There has been such a vast amount of fraudulent naturalization in past years, the privilege of American citizenship has been so freely bought and sold and given away, that a positive and methodical campaign will be necessary to stop the process of corruption by which we are surrounded.

Very sincerely yours,  
(Signed) ELIHU ROOT.



# THE NATION'S ANTI-DRINK CRUSADE.

BY FERDINAND COWLE IGLEHART.

IN two-thirds of all the territory of the United States the saloon has been abolished by law. Forty years ago there were 3,500,000 people living in territory where the sale of liquor was prohibited. Now there are 36,000,000 people under prohibitory law. Since that time the population of the country has scarcely doubled, while the population in prohibition territory has increased tenfold. There are 20,000,000 people in the fourteen Southern States, 17,000,000 of whom are under prohibitory law in some form. In 1900 there were 18,000,000 under prohibition in the United States; now there are 36,000,000. In eight months State-wide prohibition has cleared the saloon from an area as great as that of France. In that area there is a solid block of territory 320 miles north and south by 720 miles east and west, in which on the first day of next January a bird can fly from the Mississippi to the Atlantic Ocean, and from the boundary of Tennessee to the Gulf of Mexico, without looking down upon a legalized saloon. Great Britain and Ireland could be set down over this space without covering it. There would be 10,000 square miles of "dry" territory left as a border.

This is not the first wave of prohibition that has swept over the country. Fifty-four years ago there was one that swept over the Northern States with as great violence as the one that is now passing over the South. Then Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, Delaware, Michigan, Indiana, and Iowa, by acts of their legislatures, forbade the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors as a beverage. Nine Northern States went "dry" in a single year, the year 1855.

The liquor men, dazed and frightened at the revolution, set themselves desperately to resist it. By one pretense or another there was widespread nullification of prohibition. One State after another receded from its radical action, until nearly all adopted the system of license. So that, up to a year ago, of the eighteen States that had tried the experiment of prohibition only three,—Maine, Kansas, and North Dakota,—remained in the ranks, they having adopted constitutional prohibition.

Will the present prohibition legislation be ephemeral like that of half a century ago or will it be permanent? There is every reason to believe that it will be permanent. There were more elements of permanency in the earlier movement than appeared on the surface; for during all the years that the States were falling out of the prohibitory column the people were steadily removing the saloon by "local option," till at the time there were but three prohibition States left the liquor traffic had been abolished from two-thirds of the territory occupied by one-half of the population of the United States. Of the 36,000,000 people who have expelled the saloon only 10,000,000 have done so by State prohibitory laws, and 26,000,000 have effected the removal by local option.

## GEORGIA, THE SOUTHERN PIONEER OF PROHIBITION.

Last summer Georgia became the first Southern State to adopt prohibition. At the close of the Civil War the free negro and the country saloon were bad companions, fostering a bad civilization. A law was passed forbidding the sale of liquor within three miles of a church or school. Then county local option was adopted, which drove the saloon from the farming districts and towns generally. But the jug trade from the "wet" into the "dry" counties became so great and annoying that the temperance people pushed the fight successfully into counties containing cities. When the Georgia Legislature met in July last there was not the slightest idea in the mind of any friend or foe of whiskey that a prohibitory law would be enacted. The most that the enthusiastic friends of temperance had hoped was that a bill would be passed allowing the people to vote on the question at some future time. But a local-option bill was passed in the Senate by a vote of 34 to 7, and in the House by a vote of 139 to 39. On the day of the final passage of the bill representatives of religious denominations and temperance organizations from all parts of the State assembled in the capitol grounds and building, members of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union being very much in evidence. When the result was announced a scene of

indescribable enthusiasm was witnessed. The crowd spontaneously burst out into "Praise God, from Whom All Blessings Flow." Withered-faced old women clapped their hands and shouted aloud for joy; old men fell in one another's arms and wept like children. Seaborn Wright, the leader of the prohibition forces in the Assembly, was placed on the shoulders of men and carried through the capitol, while the throng sang lustily, "Gloria in Excelsis." Governor Hoke Smith promptly signed the bill, and has since vigorously enforced it.

The Georgia law in reality affected only fifteen counties, as 135 of the 150 counties of the State had already gone "dry" by local option.

#### OKLAHOMA'S ACTION.

There was a very fierce contest over the liquor question in Oklahoma. Congress in the enabling act required prohibition for twenty-one years in the Indian Territory section of the new State. In the election of delegates to the constitutional convention the liquor question was one of the foremost. Then the pressure was made by both sides on the delegates to incorporate or leave out of the constitution a prohibitory provision. The convention prepared a constitutional provision, but made it necessary for the people at the polls to determine whether they would make it a part of their constitution or not. After an exceedingly exciting contest the prohibitory provision was adopted and incorporated into the constitution; and so Oklahoma, the first State of the new century, and the youngest of Columbia's daughters, hastened to join her sister Georgia in the abolition of the saloon.

#### ALABAMA JOINS THE PROCESSION.

The wires had scarcely carried the word that the President had accepted the new State of Oklahoma, with its prohibition amendment, when the Legislature of Alabama passed a State prohibitory law, to take effect on January 1, 1909. The original excise law had been amended from year to year, allowing privileges of local option to special localities, till the saloon had been driven out of twenty counties. As the sessions of the Legislature are only quadrennial, the anti-saloon people determined last winter to make the best of their opportunity and urge the passage of radical temperance measures. Laws were passed allowing local option for counties, preventing the shipment of liquors from

"wet" into "dry" territory, compelling temperance instruction in the public schools, and forbidding the sale of "hop jack" and other drinks containing a small percentage of alcohol. Governor Comer called a special session of the Legislature last November to consider the differences between the railroads and the State. He did not make any mention of the temperance question in his message, as he did not intend that it should be considered until the regular session three years hence. Because he did not make mention of it a two-thirds majority was required to carry such a measure. When the members arrived at Montgomery they would not give a single thought to the railroads till they had "expressed" the saloon out of the State by the adoption in the Senate of the House bill prohibiting the manufacture and sale of liquors as a beverage by a vote of 32 to 2.

#### STATE-WIDE PROHIBITION IN MISSISSIPPI.

In Mississippi the country saloon was spoiling the negro, and instead of a three-mile limit, as in Alabama, the people pushed the saloon five miles away from a church or school, which cleared the farm districts of the crossroads groggery. In 1886 they adopted local option and removed the saloon from the rural districts and from the small towns.

When they came to their constitutional convention, the Prohibitionists tried very hard to get a prohibitory clause in the new constitution, but the Southern people were so bent on the question of the domination of the white man that they would not allow any other one to interfere.

Up to a year ago the people, by local option, had driven the saloon from sixty-nine out of the seventy-six counties, which included 90 per cent. of the territory of the State. A few weeks ago the Legislature met, and quietly and by almost a unanimous vote in both houses, adopted State prohibition to take effect on the first day of January, 1909.

#### NORTH CAROLINA TO VOTE THIS MONTH.

It seemed a race between North Carolina and Mississippi to see which one should reach the goal of prohibition first. By the local-option laws the people of North Carolina had expelled the liquor traffic from sixty-two of the ninety-seven counties of the State and from all but thirty towns and cities of the same, 99 per cent. of the territory being "dry." On January 28, this year, the House of Representatives at midnight passed the

Senate bill for a State election on prohibition the last Thursday in April, and on that day the people, without doubt, will make swift work of the abolition of the saloon there. Of the many earnest temperance workers Governor Glenn is the most prominent and influential.

#### THE MOVEMENT IN TENNESSEE AND KENTUCKY.

Tennessee, after fourteen years of hopeful warfare against the liquor trade, on February 1, 1907, passed the Pendleton liquor law, which made the Adams law general throughout the State, and has been the most powerful factor in a swift movement toward the abolition of rum. There were fierce contests for the abolition of the liquor traffic in the cities of Clarksville, Bristol, Knoxville, and Jackson. In these cities on Election Day men, women, and children marched through the streets singing temperance and religious songs, and filled the churches for services of prayer. All but five of the ninety-six counties of the State are now "dry," and only three cities,—Memphis, Nashville, and Chattanooga,—remain "wet."

The relation of Kentucky to the whiskey business is a matter of surprise to the whole nation. The State has \$160,000,000 invested in distilleries. Through local-option legislation it has expelled the saloon from ninety-four out of 119 counties, from 370 towns of the 425 towns and cities, and from 97 per cent. of the territory of the whole State. The bitterest fight was carried down into Louisville, the headquarters of the liquor forces. Because the Mayor of that city would not enforce the law closing the saloons on Sunday charges were preferred against him, and Governor Beckham removed him. The fight there was well-nigh tragical. It became the issue for the next municipal election, and at the one held last fall James F. Grinstead was elected Mayor, defeating Owen Tyler, who stood for a repeal of the Sunday-closing law. In the last gubernatorial election the Anti-Saloon League forces thought they discovered a secret friendliness between the Democratic leaders and the whiskey forces of Louisville, and, though these leaders flatly denied the fact, the suspicion became strong enough to drive thousands of temperance people away from the Democratic party and elect Governor Augustus E. Willson and all the rest of the Republican ticket by a substantial majority. The jail-keepers of Kentucky recently appeared before the present Legislature

to ask for a special appropriation, assigning as the reason that the closing of the saloons had so diminished crime that they did not have prisoners enough left within the jail walls to furnish board money to apply on maintenance. Kentucky, like Tennessee, will vote for State prohibition whenever the people care to do so.

#### IN THE OLD DOMINION.

Virginia, the mother of States and statesmen, is trying hard to keep the swift pace the South has set toward prohibition. The Mann liquor law gave the first severe blow to the saloons of the State. It removed them from the rural districts. In a few years 1000 saloons, or one-half of those in the State, have been abolished. Two-thirds of all the saloons now open are found in three cities, and one-half of all the "wet" territory is confined to Norfolk and its vicinity. Of the 140 incorporated towns 120 are "dry." Of the 100 counties seventy-three have no saloons. Some have, however, a dispensary or distillery here and there. There are forty-six counties where no form of license is issued. There are five counties in the northern neck of Virginia in which the total number of the black population outnumbered the white and from which the saloons have been expelled, which furnish the most marvelous minimum of crime, the jails of the five counties having only three prisoners.

Of the 1,000,000 inhabitants of West Virginia 700,000 have abolished the liquor traffic. Of the fifty-five counties, twenty-nine are "dry," ten have drinking-places in but one town each, four counties have saloons in but two towns each, and two counties have saloons in three towns. The constitution of the State empowers the county commissioner to grant or refuse a liquor license. The Legislature has granted to the councils of certain cities and towns the right to issue licenses, which they have done.

#### DELAWARE AND MARYLAND.

The Legislature of Delaware in March, 1907, provided for a vote on November 5 on the question of the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors. One-half of the State, the counties of Kent and Sussex, went "dry"; the other half, rural Newcastle County and Wilmington, retained its rum.

Maryland has expelled the saloon from one-half of its area, and from the environ-

ment of about one-third of its population. Of the twenty-six counties, ten are entirely "dry," four are completely "wet," and the rest of the counties are "wet" and "dry" in spots. Like some other States, Maryland has granted special local temperance legislation. Each county or district or village has asked for special laws. There is a marked advance in temperance sentiment and action. Increased local-option privilege including the residential districts of cities is asked. Cardinal Gibbons recently wrote an open letter which is significant; in it he said:

I believe that the right of people to determine by the operation of local-option laws whether saloons shall or shall not be closed in their respective communities is in harmony with the American principle of self-government.

#### THE "DISPENSARY" IN SOUTH CAROLINA.

South Carolina has had the "dispensary" system in the sale of liquor for fourteen years. It is a system of State control of the liquor traffic. In 1896 Senator Tillman secured the incorporation of the dispensary into the State constitution. As a revenue producer, when honestly administered, the system is a success. As a moral measure the dispensary is a failure. Its record of vice and crime shows an increase over the license system. The total excess for six years under the dispensary system over that of the license system was: Assaults, 1080; homicides, 157, and violations of the liquor law, 2051. For the six years following the introduction of the system there was an increase of 40 per cent. in assaults, and almost 100 per cent. increase in homicides, over the six preceding years under license. The Carey-Cottigan bill killed the State dispensary, but as a compromise it allows local option as to whether a reformed dispensary or prohibition shall be maintained. There are forty-one counties in the State, twenty-three having dispensaries, and eighteen being dry.

#### LOCAL OPTION IN OTHER SOUTHERN STATES.

The local-option law was put into the constitution of Florida in 1887. Of the forty-six counties in the State, thirty-three have prohibition and thirteen permit the sale of liquor. There are only twenty-two incorporated towns which have saloons. Laws against selling in prohibited territory are very stringent. About three-fourths of the people in the State live under prohibitory law. Governor Broward is one of the strongest enemies of the saloon.

The Supreme Court of Louisiana has just

rendered a decision which guarantees the efficiency of the local-option bill amended in 1902. Under that law, of the fifty-nine parishes in the State twenty-four have outlawed the saloon, and many other sections of the State have done the same. The stronghold of rum, of course, is New Orleans, with its 325,000 population and its 2000 drinking places. Notwithstanding this influence, two-thirds of the territory of the State has voted for prohibition.

Texas, with its enormous area and almost 3,000,000 of population, has waged a terrible battle against the bottle. Local option for many years has been very strong in the State, driving the saloon from one county after another. The temperance people are not well pleased with the Baskin-McGregor law, which they claim is rather friendly to the liquor interests. Of the 243 counties, 147 are entirely "dry," fifty-one are partly "dry," and forty-five permit the sale of liquor. It is thought that seven-tenths of the voting population of the State will be ready to record itself in favor of State prohibition when the proposition shall be presented.

In Arkansas the people vote by wards, townships, and counties on the question whether liquor shall be sold or not. They also have a right by petition to forbid a saloon within three miles of a church or schoolhouse. A majority vote of all the inhabitants is required, which includes mothers, wives, sisters, and daughters over eighteen years old. The Legislature a year ago abolished crossroad country saloons, stopped liquor salesmen from going into prohibition territory with their goods, and the wholesale houses from advertising liquors in papers and circulars in territory where the sale of liquor is forbidden by law. Of the seventy-five counties, fifty-eight are dry. Eighty per cent. of the territory of the State has expelled the saloon.

The heroic stand which Governor Folk took as prosecuting-attorney and as Governor against the lawless elements, not sparing the saloon, has had very much to do with the improvement in temperance sentiment in Missouri. That State has a local-option law, with a county unit excepting cities of 2500, which vote independently. In "wet" territory license may be obtained on a petition of one-half of the taxpayers or upon the petition of two-thirds of the real-estate owners in a block. Of the 114 counties, forty-seven are now "dry." Within the

past three years 700 saloons have gone out of business in St. Louis alone, as a result of Governor Folk's stringent enforcement of the Sunday-closing law.

#### THE CAMPAIGN IN THE MIDDLE WEST.

In 1880 Kansas incorporated prohibition in its constitution. Directly opposite opinions of the success of the law are held. The liquor-dealers are greatly distressed over the failure of the law, and the people of the State generally hold that it is a success. Governor Hoch, of Kansas, in a recent letter, says: "I believe prohibition has been a great benefit to the State financially, intellectually, and morally. The State has \$145,000,000 in its banks, \$83 per capita; pauperism is practically unknown; the prison has but little more than when the State had one-half its population."

Ohio has always had strong temperance sentiment. It was aroused in 1873 by the women's crusade at Hillsborough under "Mother" Thompson, which was the birth of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union. In 1883 there was a canvass of a State prohibition amendment to the constitution, in which a majority of those voting on the question were for prohibition, but the proposition failed because a majority of all votes cast for the candidates on the ticket was required to secure the passage of the amendment. The worst enemy the saloon in Ohio and America has appeared in 1893 when the Anti-Saloon League was organized. Under the leadership of Governor Foraker the Dow tax law was passed in 1886, which is now in operation. In 1888 the Beatty township local-option law was passed; in 1902 the Beal law, giving local option to cities and villages as a whole, was passed; in 1904 the Brannock law, and in 1906 another local-option law for residential districts in cities. Under these laws, 490 villages and cities have expelled the saloon. Of the 1376 townships, 1150 have forbidden the liquor traffic, and over 400,000 people in the residential sections of the great cities have abolished rum. About 68 per cent. of the territory is now "dry." The Anti-Saloon League people of Ohio effected a political revolution which was more marked than the one which took place at the last election in Kentucky. It was the defeat of Governor Herrick on the Republican ticket by Governor Pattison as a punishment for his hostility to the local-option bill, and the election of Lieutenant-Governor Harris and the whole Republican ticket by 40,000

majority as the reward for their pronounced friendliness to the bill. Governor Harris, who is now executive of Ohio, is one of the most persistent enemies of the saloon. A few weeks ago the Rose bill extending local option to counties as a unit passed both houses of the Legislature and became a law, under which it is understood that seventy out of the eighty-eight counties of the State will expel the saloon.

The people of the Hoosier State are about as enthusiastic on the subject of temperance as they are in Ohio. In Indiana the reformers have their victories though the Moore law, which forbids the saloon by a popular remonstrance. By its use 219 townships and twenty-seven city wards, considerably more than one-fifth of the population of the State, have banished their saloons. Seven hundred and fifty saloons have been either closed or prevented by these remonstrances. There are now 683 "dry" townships out of a total of 1016. The 5000 saloons are confined to 333 townships; and in seventy-two out of ninety-two counties the majority of the voters have recorded themselves against the saloon. The drastic "Blind Tiger" law has been of great service to the reformers. Governor Hanly is one of the most enthusiastic and uncompromising enemies of the liquor traffic in the United States.

The liquor power is very strongly entrenched in the State of Illinois. Chicago has as many saloons as all of the fourteen Southern States combined. Until the passage of the local-option bill about a year ago there was nothing but a city and village dramshop law, and the people had no voice on the saloon question. Under the new law the people of every township in the State may vote upon the question of saloon or no saloon in the entire township. A large number of towns and cities voted no-license at the election last autumn; and within a year sixteen "dry" counties have been added to the ten which already existed, making twenty-six in all. The saloon has been expelled from the residential districts in cities. The Board of Aldermen of Chicago a few weeks ago refused to issue license to sell liquor to a district one square mile in extent in the southwestern portion of the city, and it is understood that there are at least ten square miles of territory inside the city limits of Chicago where the saloon is forbidden by law.

The enormous brewery interests of Milwaukee put up a desperate fight for the possession of the Legislature of Wisconsin a year

ago, on the platform of the repeal of every restrictive law, but failed. A residence-district option bill passed the Legislature almost unanimously. There is not a county in the State entirely "dry," but local option in towns and cities has banished the drink traffic from one-half of the geographical territory of the State, from 708 of the 1454 towns and cities.

Michigan is peninsular, with much marshy ground; there is only one "dry" county out of the eighty-five in the State, and there are but fifty towns and cities out of 412 that have abolished the saloon.

The people of Minnesota have a township local-option law, and an option for municipalities organized under a village charter. One-fourth of the 525 municipalities of the State do not allow the sale of liquor. Twelve hundred of the 1800 organized townships have no saloons. Four hundred of the 600 remaining "wet" townships have no saloons except those in the incorporated villages. About 45 per cent. of the population live under prohibitory law. Minneapolis has a patrol-limit system, which confines all the saloons within a small section in the business district and forbids the sale of intoxicants anywhere else. The most important feature of the temperance question in Minnesota is the strict enforcement of the excise laws. Mayor Robinson, of St. Cloud, was removed from office for a failure to close the saloons on Sunday. The decision of the Supreme Court frightened every mayor and officer of the law, and the result is that St. Paul, Minneapolis, and every licensed city and town of the State is as tight as a drum on Sunday.

In Iowa the people voted in favor of constitutional prohibition in 1883. Upon a technicality the Supreme Court held the election void. The Legislature, however, passed a prohibitory statute. Because of difficulties attending its enforcement in the "river cities" of the State, a so-called "mulct" law was passed, which permits a locality, upon petition of 65 per cent. of the voters, to secure an exception to the general prohibition. Of the ninety-nine counties only twenty-two grant liquor license, and of 1112 towns and cities 975 forbid the sale of rum.

In Nebraska ten counties out of ninety and 450 out of 1000 towns and cities have voted out the saloon.

South Dakota had prohibition when admitted to the Union, but by local-option legislation has become a license State. Two out of the sixty-six counties and thirty of the

136 towns and cities have abolished the saloons.

North Dakota retains the constitutional prohibition which it had when received into the Union. Judge Pollock expresses his estimate of the value of prohibition to the State. He says: "Our prosperity under prohibition is well-nigh phenomenal; the United States census reports show that North Dakota has the greatest wealth per capita of any State in the Union and that our farm earnings per capita are the greatest in the nation. We have \$100 per capita in our savings-banks. The population of North Dakota has increased 70 per cent. in the last ten years."

Montana has much "dry" territory in the mountains and plains, but mainly because there are no inhabitants to make it "wet." Butte, the mining center, has been described as a large body of ready money surrounded by whiskey. There is a county local-option law. A year ago a winerom law was passed forbidding a woman's presence in a saloon as a barmaid, a patron, or companion of a patron. The "ladies' entrance" in evidence in all the license States has been abolished there.

Wyoming is a rum stronghold. It is the fifth whiskey State in the Union.

Colorado last year passed the Drake local-option bill, which gives local option to a municipality, ward, and precinct. Under the law the temperance forces, including the women, who have the right of suffrage, are waging a warfare against the enemy which promises to clear most of the drinking-places out of the State.

#### THE PACIFIC SLOPE.

In Idaho the temperance people asked of their Legislature and expected a local-option law, but instead they were given high license, with some option to the county commissioners in the granting of license to sell outside of incorporated cities. The State gives the municipality power to prohibit the sale of liquor by the passing of an ordinance. By such an ordinance Meridian, twelve miles from Boise, and some other cities have secured prohibition.

Nevada in proportion to its population is at the head of the column of the rum States in America. It has a liquor-seller for every forty-nine inhabitants, while in Mississippi there is only one for every 3240 persons. There are more than sixty times as many liquor-dealers in Nevada as in Mississippi.

In the State of Washington a year ago the local-option bill was lost by a vote of 43 to

44. The attempt of the liquor men to pass a Sunday-opening law was defeated, and the reaction compelled the Sunday-closing of two-thirds of the saloons of the State, which had been wide open in defiance of law. Walla Walla, Tacoma with its 100,000, and Seattle with its 250,000 inhabitants, and most of the other cities are hermetically sealed on Sunday.

In Oregon, of the thirty-three counties eight are dry, and seventy precincts in other counties have abolished the saloon.

California, with its saloons in San Francisco and other cities on the one side and active temperance people on the other, is the scene of a battle in which liquor bills are being defeated and restrictive measures are being adopted.

#### THE EASTERN STATES.

Maine is the mother of prohibition. Neal Dow was the father of the Maine law. It was enacted in 1851, repealed in 1856, re-enacted in 1858. In 1884 it became a part of the constitution of the State. Two years ago it was only retained by a narrow majority, when Governor Cobb made the canvass and was elected on the issue. Despite illicit selling and encouragement to nullification upon the part of the politicians of both parties, the people of the State acknowledge the benefit of the system. Congressman Littlefield in a recent address referred to the singular material as well as mental and moral thrift of the State under prohibition.

New Hampshire abandoned prohibition in 1902. Six of the eleven cities and 183 out of the 224 towns are "dry." The temperance people are for resubmission.

Vermont abandoned prohibition in 1903. Two hundred and twenty-one of the 246 towns have voted "dry," and three-fourths of the people live under prohibition. The anti-saloon people are for resubmission and prohibition.

Massachusetts has a long list of manufacturing cities which have abolished the saloon, including Lynn, with its 78,000, and Worcester, with its 130,000 inhabitants. Ex-Governor Douglas was active in the campaign in his city of Brockton, which went "dry." If the local-option bill for cities now urged on the Legislature should pass, Boston would expel the saloons from large districts in the city limits.

Rum has a strong grip on Rhode Island. Since 1889 the State has been under local option. There are only sixteen towns that

have abolished the saloon, and twenty-two towns and cities retain it.

Connecticut has recently secured the enactment of laws that are friendly to the temperance people. There are ninety towns "dry" and seventy-eight "wet" under local option.

New Jersey's liquor law is hostile to the temperance reformers. Charters of some cities allow certain protests, but there is virtually no local option. There is a tremendous conflict on now by the anti-saloon people for local option, which will probably be successful in the near future.

New York is the headquarters for brewers and distillers. There are 30,000 retail liquor-dealers in the State. They pay license fees of \$19,000,000. The State is under the Raines law, which allows local option in townships. A large number of new towns went "dry" at the last election. The excise laws are much more stringently enforced. A search-and-seizure bill and a bill for local option in cities have been introduced in the present Legislature, with a prospect of their passage. The Rev. Dr. C. H. Parkhurst, representing the Society for the Prevention of Crime, has just demanded of Governor Hughes the removal of Mayor McClellan and Police Commissioner Bingham on the charge of their refusal to enforce the excise law closing the saloons of New York City on Sunday. The Anti-Saloon League and kindred organizations are backing up Dr. Parkhurst in this demand.

Pennsylvania, like New York, is behind most of the States in temperance reform. The Brooks license law is not satisfactory to the anti-saloon people. A local-option law asked for by them has been killed in the committees of the Legislature, so strong has the whisky power been upon it.

#### WHAT HAS CAUSED THIS TEMPERANCE REVOLUTION?

There are reasons why the South should take the lead in this prohibition movement. It was necessary to remove the saloon from the negro to save Southern industry and civilization. Booker T. Washington the other day said: "The abolition of the bar-room is a blessing to the negro second only to the abolition of slavery. Two-thirds of the mobs, lynchings, and burnings at the stake are the result of bad whiskey drunk by bad black men and bad white men." Besides, the South is intensely American. In the fourteen Southern States there are but six-



teen foreign-born persons to every 1000 inhabitants. In Ohio, California, Pennsylvania, New York, Illinois, and Wisconsin there are 178 foreign-born persons to every 1000 inhabitants. In the mountain districts of the South, where the foreign-born population is the least in America, there are almost no drinking-places. The "moonshiners" hide in some of the mountain dens, but there are not twenty open saloons in the rural sections of the mountains of Virginia, West Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, North Carolina, Georgia, and Arkansas. It is not so hard to get the liquor traffic away from so homogeneous a population. The Southern people are sentimental and enthusiastic, and do what they do with an intense enthusiasm. As a rule they have a deep religious instinct and the highest moral ideals. The territory is good ground for prohibition.

But there are reasons deeper than this which have made such local success in the South. The negro question has had nothing to do with prohibition in Maine, Kansas, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Ohio, nor Iowa. The work of abolishing the saloon meets with the least resistance in the plantation sections of the South and the rural districts of the North; but it is going on in the cities as well. In the manufacturing city of Birmingham, Ala.; Atlanta, Ga.; Knoxville, Tenn., and in many of the manufacturing cities of New England and in large residential districts of Chicago and other cities the same conflict with the same spirit is being waged.

The present temperance upheaval is the revolt of the American conscience against what it considers to be wrong. The American saloon can blame itself largely for the present opposition to it; it is essentially bad. Aside from the inherent danger of the business under the wisest possible restraints, the liquor-dealers of the nation have set themselves to do their very worst to provoke alarm. The saloons are the breeding-place of all kinds of vice and crime. In them the thieves, the murderers, ballot-box stuffers, grafters, purchasers of law, and the debauched find their education and protection; and from them the lawless hordes go forth to prey upon society. The only wonder is that the people have stood this menace to our civilization as long as they have.

While it is not universally so, it is too often the case that the saloon fosters and promotes the social evil. The public sentiment is greatly outraged at the intimate relationship between the saloon and the dis-

orderly house. The public is very angry because so many drinking-places are gambling hells.

Another thing that has stirred the public against the liquor traffic has been the relationship between the politician and the saloon. No feature of American public life is so abominable and discouraging as this open and notorious copartnership of the liquor traffic with politicians of all parties in the business of crime. It is an astounding fact that most of the great cities of the country are ruled by rum, and have been for a generation or more. Every privilege for every kind of crime is bought and sold for money. Fabulous corruption-funds and thousands of the criminal classes are organized to hold up the public and compel it to deliver. Three saloon-keepers of Chicago have absolute authority in Wards One and Eighteen, where the traffic in vice is maintained; and men of their stripe rule in some other wards; so that the political complexion of Chicago is determined by the saloon influence. In New York City a large proportion of the Tammany leaders who determine the policy of their party in the city and State are or have been saloon-keepers. In Philadelphia and in some other cities the connection between the saloons and the political leaders of the opposite party is just as marked as it is in Chicago or New York.

The liquor-dealers themselves confess to the badness of the present American saloon. Each class is charging the blame on the other. At a meeting of the Brewers' Association at the Waldorf-Astoria in New York City recently the blame was laid at the door of the retail liquor-dealers. It was charged that the saloons, many of them, were filthy dens, and that the business had to be reformed or the people of the country would destroy them. The retail liquor-dealers in their conventions have been saying that the brewers in their greed for money have multiplied the saloons beyond all reason, holding them down by their mortgages and making it impossible by the fierce competition which has been forced upon them to make a living and pay off the mortgages without introducing the disorderly house and gambling rooms as annexes, putting up money for graft, and otherwise breaking the law. The brewers say the fault is with the distillers, the distillers say the brewers are to blame. They both admit the public has a grievance.

It is not only the badness of the American saloon that has caused this revolution, but

also the marked awakening of the public conscience against all kinds of wrong, and hence the saloon comes in for its share of rebukes and opposition. The temperance reformers and organizations of the past and present have been exceedingly active, and each without an exception has been an important factor in the great moral upheaval that is shaking down so many drinking-places. The Woman's Christian Temperance Union, the Good Templars, the National Temperance Publication Society, the third-party Prohibitionists, and the National Reform Bureau, and kindred societies have all been active in their fields; but the one organization which has done more than all others in giving wise direction and successful results to the present temperance revolution has been the Anti-Saloon League. It was founded at Oberlin, Ohio, in 1893, by the Rev. Howard H. Russell, D.D., a Congregational clergyman and son of an Episcopalian rector, who is now the chairman of the National Executive Committee and superintendent of the New York State League.

The institution is compactly organized in forty-four States and Territories, with a national, State, and district superintendency. It is interdenominational and omni-partisan. The Rev. Purley A. Baker, D.D., is the national superintendent. The league has conducted itself so wisely and honorably that it has commanded the universal respect of the churches of all denominations, many of the Catholic as well as Protestant. There are few cities or towns in the United States in which there is not a representative of the league in some one or more of the churches on Sunday, presenting the cause and securing help for its promotion. For thirteen years this quiet work has been going on on Sundays, besides that done on week days, and it is not necessary to go very far away from this unified sympathy and action of the Christian churches of America to find the chief cause of this tremendous moral upheaval. There is scarcely a Legislature in session this year at which the Anti-Saloon League does not have some measure or measures unfriendly to the liquor traffic, and the restrictive temperance legislation of most of the States for several years has been handled by official representatives of the Anti-Saloon League. Many rich men generously support this organization; but there are 300,000 annual contributors to its campaign fund, which speaks loudly of the popular sympathy and power which it possesses.

Many who are not members of any church, or even total abstainers, commend and unite in the work of the league in the interest of law and order and of civic righteousness.

This popular temperance sentiment has expressed itself in legislation at Washington in the removal of the canteen from the army, of drink from soldiers' homes and government buildings, and other measures, and in a bill now before Congress preventing the shipment of liquors into States whose laws prohibit their sale.

Will prohibition prohibit? Relatively, yes. Absolutely, no. Prohibition never does absolutely prohibit any form of crime,—that of murder, theft, arson, forgery, or perjury. The courts and jails all attest the truth of this. The contention of liquor-dealers that more rum is sold in a State under prohibition than under license is hardly to be taken seriously, for if it were true they would be working for prohibition instead of shivering with fear and filling the papers and conventions with alarm at the tidal wave of prohibition and loudly calling for organized help to resist and prevent its destroying them.

You cannot make men good by law,—so many people and papers are saying now. "Yes, you can!" No people on earth can be good without law and order; so good a type of a race as the Anglo-Saxon has to bind himself about with most stringent law to keep from becoming a very bad citizen. Fully one-half of all that is good or great in man has had to be beaten into him by authority. Gladstone said that the primary object of law is to make it easier for men to do right and harder for them to do wrong.

Moral and political progress is always along the stages of advances and retreats. How long will this temperance movement continue without a reaction? No one can tell. Very likely till every State in the Union shall have tried the experiment of prohibition by local option or State action. While there are 114,000 more saloons than churches, while the liquor traffic continues to take into its treasury enough money each year to run every department of the federal Government,—executive, legislative, judicial, navy, army, postoffice, treasury, and every other interest,—the whiskey men will not surrender without a fierce and long struggle. But the present revolution will result in greatly reduced individual consumption of rum, in the manifest diminution of the sale of liquor, and in the destruction of the American saloon in its present form.

## LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

### THE STORY OF MAGDALENA BAY.

**I**NDENTING the southwest coast of Lower California, a thousand full nautical miles from San Francisco and more than twice that distance from Panama, is a land-locked sheet of water fifteen miles in length and over twelve in breadth,—Magdalena Bay. Here in mid-March our Pacific fleet dropped anchor, and is now engaged in target practice in Lower California's grim harbor of tragedy and romance.

Not much has been written about this bay and its arid surroundings, but it is in truth dashed with the wild flavor of the romance of centuries. Inland from Magdalena Bay is desolate in the extreme. Undulating wastes of sand and cactus greet the traveler for upward of 200 miles before the mission sites of historic Todos Santos, La Paz, Dolores del Sur, San Xavier, Comondú, and Purísima are encountered. The ground is parched, the days are hot, and at night great fogs roll in and cloud the land until morning, says Mr. Arthur W. North, in the *Sunset Magazine* for March.

Europeans under Cortes first visited its shores, and were followed by voyagers from the Spanish main, galleons from the Philippines, buccaneers from England and the Netherlands, and American filibusters and whalers. Yet less than forty years ago the desolate region was owned by a New York syndicate presided over by Gen. John A. Logan, and financed by Belmont and Jerome. The harbor has few shoals, is well protected from gales, and is large enough to let the world's navies ride at anchor on its bosom. Nevertheless, an incoming sail is an exception, and the explanation is,—thirst, *thirst*, THIRST!! It lacks fresh water.

Francisco de Ulloa came to Magdalena Bay on Christmas Day in 1539 in search of pearls and fell afoul of warlike savages instead. Juan Cabrillo followed and discovered that wood and water were not obtainable. The restless pilot Viscaino made a similar discovery. The sands of Magdalena Bay are supposed to contain the surplus riches of ravished treasure ships. In the eighteenth century came the intrepid Jesuits, but a single mission,—San Louis Gonzaga,

—fifty miles inland was their total effort. The thirsty shores of Magdalena Bay drove these fearless pioneers away.

With the nineteenth century smuggling became active on the surface of its placid waters. A Spanish commercial embargo enacted during the Napoleonic wars caused this "industry" to spring up. California sailors and natives of the mission centers exchanged "commodities" without enriching the State revenues, which continued for almost a third of a century, to the great joy of the natives and the immense advantage of shipping houses engaged in Pacific trade.

Upon the outbreak of the Mexican War a detachment of American marines and two companies of New York volunteers were landed about 170 miles southeast of the harbor, but the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo restored Lower California to Mexico. In 1853 William Walker, "Last of the Filibusters," anchored in Magdalena Bay. In 1867 General Juarez conveyed to the American syndicate aforementioned a section of Lower California, including this bay. J. Ross Browne in examining the transferred property wrote: "Possibly a better point could not be selected for a naval depot."

Admiral George Dewey, then a young naval officer, visited Magdalena Bay in 1874, and verified the earlier experiences of all its visitors,—unquenchable thirst. He also commented on its spacious and safe harbor. A decade later another syndicate obtained a grant of land adjoining the bay and made a fortune from large crops of *orchilla*, a lichen which grows on the cactus and shrubs indigenous to that section, and extremely valuable in producing dyes. This company developed a fine well, with a cistern and steam-pump, capable of supplying many thousands of gallons of water daily.

Heretofore, permission has been given the United States to use the bay as a station for target practice, and on the departure of the White Squadron for the Pacific Mexico granted the federal authorities the privilege of establishing a coaling station and naval depot in Magdalena Bay for three years. At Man-of-War Cove are seventy-



## THE MORAL DIGNITY OF PROHIBITION IN THE SOUTH.

PROHIBITION in the South has to contend with two classes,—the “Alcoholics” and the “Academics,”—says Mr. John E. White in the *Southern Workman* for March. The former are partisans through selfish motives, and the latter “are those who have fallen in love with syllogisms and have some sort of records in the disputatious past.” They look upon prohibition as a decreed impossibility, and point to Maine and Kansas for proof.

Southern prohibition, however, is something different. It is not ordinary State prohibition, but an impulse of civilization, the outflow of the religious, educational, economic, social, and political resolution of Southern society. “What is behind prohibition in the South?” Religious interests and energies. A proposition to restore the liquor traffic would receive almost the same response from the churches as a proposition to restore a state church establishment.

Educational forces are behind prohibition. An army of 20,000 teachers has been commissioned to teach that the liquor traffic is an enemy to the personal and public welfare. The introduction of text-books on physiology into the schools was the inauguration of the prohibition propaganda. To the thousands of public-school teachers consecrated to truth and consistency prohibition is moral and mental freedom. It ends for them a compromised relation to the public good which was revolting to many a sensitive conscience.

The economic conscience is behind prohibition. The truth has at last been recognized in the South that the whiskey traffic belongs to the category of economic wastes—floods, famines, wars, and disasters of nature. Industrial conditions forced this conviction upon the people. The great need of the South is labor. It had everything else. Cotton it had, and, also, available cultivable land; but skilled labor was wanting. It learned that the real profit in cotton lay in its manufacture,—that a bale worth \$40, by the addition of labor and brains in the factory could sell for \$400. It lacked the brains, and suddenly realized that whatever injured the sources of labor was an industrial enemy. Hence, industry's fiat against liquor. “There is a rank of men, industrialists and agriculturists, who have dreamed a dream of the South's industrial future which they are bent on realizing. If the

liquor traffic should ever attempt a return from outlawry it will find them on the line, standing side by side with the preachers and the teachers, with their guns in their hands.”

The social peace and progress of the South are behind prohibition. The presence of 8,000,000 negroes has operated as a tremendous incentive for prohibition of the liquor traffic. The Atlanta and Mississippi riots showed the dangers of the saloon. It was an attractive social center for the dangerous elements of Southern population,—the lower levels of both races. Following the racial lines from top to bottom, they converged at the saloon, which was situated in the acute angle of this inverted social pyramid.

When they had been closed for a week in Atlanta, the people asked: “Why not a year and forever?” The liquor traffic fostered and encouraged the depraved and criminal negro and the vengeful and irresponsible white. Of both the South is tired. So, the negro alone was not the only or chief cause for prohibition, although, admittedly, a powerful incentive.

Prohibition is not on the defensive. It is a great, broad, deep movement of the most commanding proportions and with an inspiration at its heart. It has laid hold upon the spirit of Southern solidarity, and is making an appeal to patriotic imagination, to sectional pride, which is having a recognized effect on the national conscience. It will be recorded as the most important and influential moral deed achieved in American civilization during the first quarter of the twentieth century.

The spectacle of the South in making a demonstration of sufficient social moral courage to deal materially with the most powerful enemy of the human race is immensely significant to humanity at large. Between the liquor traffic and its antagonists the battle heretofore has been a draw. With 30,000,000 people placed solidly in the balance against the liquor traffic the moral equilibrium of the world will be disturbed and a world-awakening against the drink evil will follow.

Prohibition in the South in the civic program as a final policy is an exhibition of rare moral courage,—an innovation in Anglo-Saxon human nature, in which the liquor traffic has always found a responsive chord. There is another aspect in the situation which is inspiring to those who take the South to

heart. It is that at last the Southern people are coming into a position of moral leadership in the nation. The South has taken a distinct step toward regaining its prestige in

the national life, and is struggling once more for that which is good for everybody everywhere. This is clearly shown in Dr. Iglehart's summary (page 468).

## COST AND PROFITS OF STEEL-MAKING IN THE UNITED STATES.

EVERY steel-making plant in this country shows a variance in the cost of a ton of steel. The factors are varying and the whole situation too complex to permit of uniformity. Of course, its cost is the cost of the raw material, plus cost of labor, plus the capital and maintenance charges of the plant. Raw materials, however, may be bought in the open market or may be made by the user; hence the cost is different.

If the iron is bought the market price must be paid, and this is 50 and sometimes 100 per cent. more than the cost price. If it is not bought five cost factors must be noted: the three raw materials,—ore, fuel, and flux,—labor, and the cost of keeping up the plant. Ore price is dependent on what it may cost to get it to market, or what the purchaser can afford to pay for it. Both influences are usually present. Whether the iron smelter shall buy his ore in the open market and take the fluctuations as they come, or become his own ore producer and thereby get it at cost, is a very serious problem for his determination.

There are various compromise methods between these extremes, says Mr. J. Russell Smith, in the *Quarterly Journal of Economics* for February. Leasing the mine on the basis of its contents is one of them. A cash sum is paid at the outset, and thereafter only as ore is removed. Another arrangement is a semi-partnership between the smelter and the miner. Pig-iron fluctuations have been so violent that a sliding scale has been evolved whereby high prices for iron necessitate high prices for ore, and *vice versa*. An advance of  $2\frac{1}{2}$  or 5 cents per ton of ore is made for every 25 cents advance in iron prices according to one schedule.

Fuel cost is analogous to ore cost. The smelter may buy coke or may make it himself. "There have been times when the Connellsville coke-maker exacted \$8 a ton from the feverish iron smelters, who, under reversed market conditions, had induced him to part with it for \$1 a ton." It takes from one ton to one and one-third tons of coke

to make a ton of iron, and the United States Steel Company can make it at \$1 a ton. With coke selling elsewhere at \$4 a ton, the profit of pig-iron sales on this basis alone is attractive.

The limestone flux, which by its alkaline qualities hastens the melting process, is subject to a varying range of prices which causes some iron-makers to pay twice as much as others. Labor cost is similarly variable and is dependent on organization, elimination of idleness, and economy in management. The small blast furnace is handicapped herein. The wages of its engineers and laborers are the same whether its output is 200 or 600 tons a day, or whether it is running on full time or on only two-thirds of its capacity. These industrial facts have been profoundly grasped by the great iron and steel makers. The labor cost of the Pittsburg mill is but \$1 a ton, while that of a smaller plant is \$2.10.

Another factor for consideration is the disposition of the slag, of which a ton,—sometimes more,—is needed for every ton of iron. This was a wasted by-product and cost money to remove. Now, fortunately, the cement-mills are using it in the manufacture of cement, and it is also being employed as broken stone for use in roofing and for ballast for railroads. These discoveries will reduce further the cost of a ton of steel.

The Steel Trust shows the results of integration. Its subsidiary corporations keep their own accounts and at the end of the year hand over their profits to the "great central throne," which makes up the balance sheet of the United States Steel Corporation. Through its steamers and railways and mines it pockets all the profits of transportation which the small independent iron-maker has to pay. It can transport its ore to Pittsburg for about \$2 a ton, or about \$3 a ton of iron. Coke and limestone for a ton of iron cost less than \$4. Labor and maintenance cost \$1. Total, \$8. In 1906-'7 the prevailing price of iron was above \$20 a ton, and that price had to be paid by the steel-

maker depending upon outside sources for his iron. To convert iron into steel costs, in Pittsburg, from \$3 to \$3.50. In some districts it costs \$7 for plants less efficient in construction, equipment, and operation. The cost of the Pittsburg ingot is, therefore, about \$12 a ton.

Rolling of rails from ingots costs in Pittsburg \$2, elsewhere \$6 a ton. A modern

steel plant costs \$1,500,000, and will convert daily 1000 tons of ingots into steel rails, which cost in Pittsburg about \$14 or \$15. The ability of the Steel Trust to sell steel rails for \$28 a ton, therefore, need not be questioned. Nor is it amazing that out of 13,500,000 tons of steel ingots manufactured the trust could pay \$147,000,000 in wages and earn \$156,000,000 net, in 1906.

## RAILWAY ACCIDENTS AND THE COLOR SENSE.

**R**ED, white, and green are the colors used by railroads in signaling. Respectively, they mean danger, safety, caution. When employed at night, as lights, they are not invariably satisfactory. Disastrous accidents have happened through mistaking these colors, each of which is translated by an engineer under conditions of uncommon mental stress.

"Various duties that on an ocean steamer are distributed among helmsmen, lookout, engineer, and the officer on the bridge here fall chiefly upon a single man, and this where the care and instant judgment required seem at times to be not far below those needed for the guidance of a ship," says Prof. George M. Stratton, of Johns Hopkins University, in the *Popular Science Monthly* for March. "The locomotive engineer must control a marvelously complex and ponderous piece of mechanism, keeping his sight and hearing and sense of shock so alive that amid the universe of whirl and glare and explosive rattles in which, for the time, he is centered, he can detect the foreign note or quiver that speaks of disarrangement. He must know that his outside lights are burning bright, that the water in the boiler is sufficient, that the airbrakes are in perfect working. He must from moment to moment glance at the hands of his watch, and must know exactly where he is upon the road. And yet all this while his eyes must hardly be taken from the darkness into which his engine rushes, to catch the first glimmer of the signal which is his guide."

Distance, fog, smoke, storm, low-burning of the lamp,—all make the reading of these signals at night one of extreme difficulty for the engineer. "White" is often the cause of costly collisions. Lights in houses, shining through windows, and hanging lanterns on gates at street-crossings, are often mistaken for "safety" signals, with disastrous

consequences. "Green" is no more trustworthy. Smoke has a serious effect on this color, making ineffectual the rays that give it a greenish cast, and rendering it indistinguishable at a distance from white. It appears as a pale and ambiguous light, and the danger of its obscuration is imminent. "Red" is also objectionable. The ruby glass by permitting none but the passage of reddish rays greatly reduces the brightness of the signal, leaving it, in many cases, about one-fifth as intense as when, by the signal mechanism, the red glass is removed from the front of the lamp. In a cluster of signals equally remote white signals normally outshine to a marked degree the neighboring signals that are red. "This, of itself," says Professor Stratton, "is an undesirable condition, since the sign of danger should of all be most outspoken." From laboratory experiments, he adds, red light was never perceptible until the light was increased eighteen times the brightness required for white. On the average, an increase of thirty times is required.

"We are accustomed to think of red as exceptionally impressive; and it truly is in many respects an effective light, attracting the attention when once the eye catches its strength. But at degrees of illumination that would be ample for some of the other colors it ceases to penetrate the mind. Red may some day come to be regarded as a danger signal, with an unusual meaning to the words."

Since our eyesight detects two different features in objects,—their color and their spatial character, such as shape, position, and movement,—and a sense of "place" and "direction" is early impressed on all of us, "the power to distinguish between rest and rapid movement of some conspicuous object would be the best to call upon in signaling." Next to this, the simplest and least



erring of our visual perceptions is of large differences, like that between a vertical and a horizontal line or one aslant. These simple elements are used for day signals. The writer recommends their adaptation to night signaling, using them as semi-luminous lines of light, lengthened and modified as required. Spatial signals are used in the navy. Luminous lines and movable arms provided with a row of incandescent lights are employed successfully to aid the eye at a considerable distance.

Such lines of light, he contends, would

free us from the treachery of the color sense, provide a symbol distinct from the usual window or street lights, and prevent disasters from mistaking foreign lights for block signals. Signals of this character would not be affected by smoke, fog, or storm, as far as their position is concerned. They might be cut off, but could not be distorted. "The advantages of relying on our space perception instead of on the color sense will probably in time be recognized as far outweighing whatever difficulties there may be in the change."

## RIVALS FOR SUPREMACY IN THE BALKANS.

TWO useful contributions to the study of the Balkan question appear in the March number of the *Contemporary Review*. One of these is by Dr. E. J. Dillon, who, in his review of foreign affairs, devotes considerable space to the relations of Russia and Austria-Hungary with regard to the Balkans.

The agreement between these two powers about the Balkans, he reminds us, had come to most people as a surprise, the aims and interests of these two states in the east of

Europe having been for a whole generation diametrically opposite. The partnership had originated in this way:

Macedonia has a population composed chiefly of Serbs, Bulgarians, and Greeks. Between the Serbs and the Bulgarians a bitter struggle for political ascendancy has been waged, each party receiving the support of its kindred in Serbia or Bulgaria. Both races in Macedonia speak nearly the same language, they intermarry, and they profess the same religion. It was unnecessary, therefore, to distinguish between them until the Bulgarian Church, desiring to free itself from the Greek Patriarch, established an exarchate. Notwithstanding the fact that it included many Serbs, this exarchate was held to consist of Bulgarians only, and an active proselytizing campaign pursued by agents from the principality of Bulgaria gathered additional thousands of Serbs into the true fold. Before the Bulgarians had been freed from the Mohammedans the Turkish Government had favored them because it believed the Serbs were endeavoring to gather all the Slavs and to found a powerful Slav state; and after the Bulgarian principality had been founded the Porte winked at the Bulgarian propaganda in Macedonia. In the course of time, however, filibustering expeditions, culminating in bloodshed, compelled the Turks to adopt repressive measures against the Bulgarian element in Macedonia, and this element, having powerful friends in the principality who were anxious to deliver their brethren from Mohammedan thralldom, a Turco-Bulgarian war became imminent. At this juncture Russia and Austria combined to maintain the *status quo* in the peninsula.

This arrangement was most unpopular in Russia, the Slavs of southern Europe having come to be regarded as members of a "greater Russia." The Berlin congress was considered by all Russians as a tribunal convened to try and condemn the Slav cause.

Count Andrassy announced that Austria-Hungary would not brook the creation of any new states in the Balkans, would not permit Serbia



NEW RAILROADS IN THE BALKANS.

(An outline of the new lines projected by Austria to which Russia has objected.)

and Montenegro to strengthen themselves at the expense of Bosnia and Herzegovina, nor would she permit any Slav states to take root in the peninsula. He also stated that Austria-Hungary aimed to penetrate, by means of railways and trade, to the Egean Sea. This policy having never been abandoned, Russian writers argue that the Russian Foreign Secretary should never have entered into an agreement to work hand in hand with "the arch enemy of the Slavs" in the Balkans.

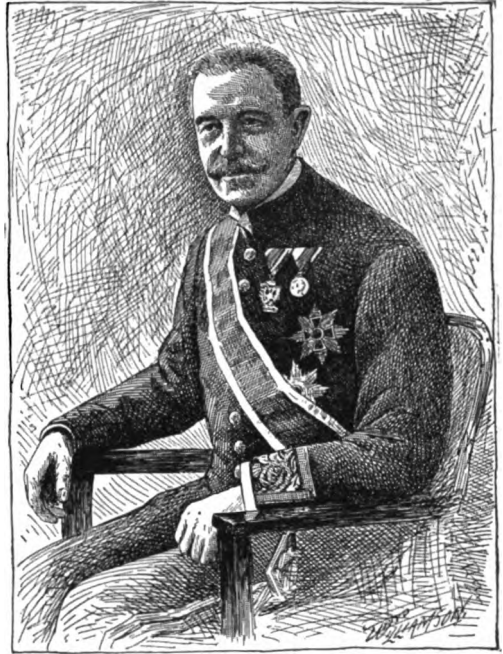
Baron Aerenthal's recent speech to the delegations was received by the Russian press as an admission that the Austro-Russian agreement had broken down, and would be succeeded by a line of action more in accordance with the commercial and political interests of the dual monarchy; and Russians complain that before this announcement was made Austria-Hungary, unknown to her ally, had entered into negotiations with the Porte for certain railway concessions.

The chief count in the indictment against Austria-Hungary is the concealment which she practiced against her partner, the inevitable effect of her two-sided action by which the Porte was induced to refuse the reform demanded for Macedonia, and, lastly, the direct tendency of the new policy to split up Servia into two parts.

The Russian view of Austria's Balkan policy is that men of the Servian and Bulgarian race must be kept from uniting, and that Austria-Hungary must enjoy a permanent right to intervene in all disputes among southern Slavs. Public opinion in Russia has been considerably roused on this matter. It is felt that the abandonment to Austria-Hungary of the rôle of protector of the Slavs would deal a deadly blow to Russian prestige. Moreover, it is the unanimous view that Austria's action was inspired by Germany. The *Novoye Vremya* writes:

Austria's anti-Slav machinations in the Balkans are inspired and supported by Berlin. Germany is perseveringly laboring to construct the Bagdad Railway, which will deliver all Asia Minor into her hands. In order to connect German lines with the Egean Sea she is co-operating with the plans of Austria, who is linking up her rail routes with those of Turkey and Greece.

One of the items in Baron Aerenthal's railway program is the construction of a line from Cattaro to the seaboard of Montenegro. Italian capitalists having interests in Montenegro are challenging Austria-Hungary's right to build this line; for they have a scheme of their own for a line from Antivari through Servia, Bulgaria, and Roumania. This phase of the subject is discussed by the other writer in the *Contemporary*, who bases



BARON VON AERENTHAL.

(Austro-Hungarian Minister of Foreign Affairs.)

his remarks on Baron Leopold von Chlumetzky's recently issued book, "Oesterreich-Ungara und Italien" (Austria-Hungary and Italy). The Baron, whose utterances on Dalmatian problems are accepted as authoritative in Austria, has made a special study of the Macedonian and West Balkan questions; and he is led to the conclusion that, save under the protection of some European power, Albanian autonomy is not to be thought of, and that "to allow the formation of an autonomous Macedonia under foreign direction, or the creation of a Great Bulgaria or a Great Servia at the gates of the monarchy, would be to expose the latter to the most dangerous shocks."

In recent years Italy, "*Scotus Viator*" (the writer in the *Contemporary Review*) reminds us, has made vigorous efforts to Italianize Albania.

The Italian Government has founded there elementary, technical, and industrial schools, the spread of the Italian language has been furthered by the Franciscan and Salesian orders, and educational and commercial enterprise has been actively encouraged by the Italian consuls. The tobacco monopoly of Montenegro has been ceded to a Venetian syndicate, and contracts for a harbor at Antivari and a railway thence to Vir-Bazar have been awarded to other Italian companies. An enormous development in the shipping trade with Albania has taken place

during the last few years. Whereas in 1901 the Austrian-Lloyd carried 46 per cent. of the imports into Scutari and the "Puglia," the Italian line, only 14 per cent. in 1905 the figures had changed to: Austrian-Lloyd 9 per cent., and the "Puglia" 56 per cent. Italian steamers, subsidized by the government, are now running three times a week from Ancona, Brindisi, and Venice to Albania. From all this it will be seen that Italy has become Austria-Hungary's most dangerous rival and competitor in the Balkans.

Austria-Hungary, we are further reminded, is the only great power that administers two provinces of the Ottoman Empire. She has, therefore, a special interest in Macedonia, and especially in Salonica, to which much of her trade is shortly bound to converge. Besides, she has shown herself peculiarly fitted to manage Balkan peoples, as is shown by the transformation in Bosnia and Herzegovina, which "has no modern parallel save in the Egypt of Lord Cromer."

What, then, are the obstacles to a partition, in which Austria-Hungary should be allowed to extend her protectorate to Macedonia, while Italy became responsible for Albania, and Russia was appeased by her long-coveted access to the Mediterranean? He believes the latter development would not meet with the same hostility in England that it did in 1878, and that Germany, the only other power that could thwart the scheme, would be won over by concessions in Asia Minor. The occupation of Albania by Italy would, under present circumstances, be a grave menace to the dual monarchy; but if Austria-Hungary once secured an outlet to the Ægean, this menace would disappear.

What has characterized the militant suffrage movement from the beginning has been the political instinct of its leaders. Mrs. Pankhurst and her immediate following were the first to recognize that the private member does not count politically, that the cabinet is the force to be moved, and that the motive power is to be found in war and not in peace. So the keynote to the policy of the Women's Social and Political Union is opposition to the government that will not enfranchise women, and this opposition is exercised in a perfectly constitutional manner at by-elections, where the Suffragettes turn votes from the government candidate by their eloquence in putting before the electors the best case that ever a wronged party had against a government that refused them justice.

## THE CAMPAIGN OF THE ENGLISH SUFFRAGETTES.

A CLEAR and earnest statement of the position taken by the English women in their campaign for the suffrage right is contributed to the *London Graphic* by Miss Evelyn Sharp, one of the women who herself has been in jail for technical breaches of the peace. She says:



From the *Tribune*, N. Y.

MRS. BORRMAN WELLS.

(Representative in the United States of the British suffragette movement.)

By other methods which Miss Sharp admits may be unconstitutional, but are neither wrong nor violent, the Suffragettes also keep their question constantly before the public: by trying to gain access to the House of Commons, for which offence over 200 of them have gone to prison; by asking questions at cabinet ministers' meetings, and, when these questions are ignored or laughed at, by organizing the interruption of such meetings. The militant campaign has been going on little more than two years, but it has forced "Votes for Women" into the forefront of practical politics. The public has been in turn shocked, amused, amazed, and won over, and the result is net gain to a movement that had only hitherto aroused an academic interest in the minds of politicians.

In the opinion of this writer, the present campaign has brought out "all sorts of qualities in women that they were never before supposed to possess."

They are showing themselves capable of grit, endurance, courage, comradeship, logic, and



SOME OF THE LEADERS OF THE ENGLISH SUFFRAGETTES.

(On the left of the picture is Miss Annie Kenny, secretary of the association. Next her is Mrs. Pethwick Lawrence, and on the right Miss Billington. All these ladies have been imprisoned for making demonstrations before the Foreign Office.)



ENGLISH SUFFRAGETTES MAKING DEMONSTRATIONS AGAINST THE FOREIGN OFFICE IN LONDON.

(On several occasions during the past year a number of women leaders in the movement for woman suffrage in England have sought to gain entrance to the houses of Parliament to present their case to the different members of the British cabinet.)

humor. It is impossible to study the events of the past two years and to deny this. One has hardly to come in contact with the Suffragettes themselves to feel that there is something in their movement that distinguishes it from all other movements of the day,—more life, more sincerity, more humanity. These women, who do and dare so much that the conventional woman forgets appearances and the timid woman braves ridicule, command respect as much by their practical way of tackling immense difficulties as by their devotion to the cause.

#### The Next Development.

There are two papers in the *Westminster Review* on the Woman's Question. One by Clarissa Dixon, on "Woman and Nature," prophesies not smooth but noble things for the advancing woman. She says:

Some millions of years ago only a god could have looked upon the protozoa and dared to dream of man. It is a humbler dream to look upon woman, already, I make bold to say, grown to high stature, and dream that she may in future reach such noble proportions as shall make her present but a childhood, a prescience, a prediction.

Gladys Jones, in an article entitled "Suffragists Again," says:

If women are to be denied access to the higher professions and sweated in other branches of labor the male sex incurs an obligation which it can only discharge by subsidizing femininity! This being the last thing that men will propose or women desire, it is incumbent on the nation to remove all obstacles to the wage-earning capacity of woman. This will not equalize matters,—acts of Parliament cannot achieve that,—but it will create the possibility of honest dealing between the sexes.

#### Women and Municipal Life.

Writing in the *Empire Review*, Mildred Ransom says:

Critics of the movement have asked why women should desire entry into municipal life. My answer is that municipal life is the domestic life of the nation. It cares for the aged and infirm, and is concerned with the dwellings, the sanitation, the food, the amusement, and the education of all. It is housekeeping on a large and elaborately organized scale, and it concerns every one of either sex and in every rank of life. Matters of health, morality, prevention of disease, and of vice come before our municipal authorities daily. For these reasons women seek seats on municipal councils, and they affirm, by long experience, that they can do better work for the community when legally elected than when they can only aid by sufferance.

### ARE ENGLAND AND GERMANY REALLY FRIENDLY?

**D**ESPITE the newspaper war of the past half decade and the recent miniature tempest in England over the Kaiser's letter to Lord Tweedmouth, administrative head of the British navy, Anglo-German relations appear to be going smoothly. The recent visit of the Emperor of Germany to England has, it appears, had a most salutary effect upon the relations of these two great nations. Major-General Sir Alfred Turner, in an article in the *Deutsche Revue*, expresses the most optimistic views regarding the results of that visit, and exposes the essential baselessness of the mistrust and jealousy which, he says, have animated a certain section of the English people.

William II.'s stay may be said to have set the seal upon the many strenuous efforts made in the last years to restore friendly relations between the two countries; an era of mutual good-will has set in, putting an end to unworthy suspicion and base jealousy. His visit to King and people, his retired rural sojourn undertaken to recruit his strength, his evident sympathy for the poorer classes, the marked sincerity of his utterances, all made a deep and most favorable impression upon the English people, who requited his confidence in them by a genuine interest in the obvious improvement of his health.

Calm, thoughtful persons, particularly those who were really acquainted with Germany and the Germans, have never tired of insisting that at no time was there a real, deep-seated animosity between the two peoples. It is doubtless true that the attitude of the Germans in the Boer War,—as well as that of many other civilized nations,—aroused mistrust among a supersensitive class; "nor can it be denied that, just as every extraordinary success in states or individuals awakens envy and hatred in many who are less successful, the intense jealousy aroused by Germany's prodigious progress and prosperity of the last twenty years has been a chief factor in the feelings manifested against Germany, not alone by the British, but many other nations."

Germany's advance, it should be added, has been mainly due to the Emperor's steadily expressed determination to maintain peace, and finally the increase of the German navy excited the wrath and suspicion of many Englishmen to such an extent that a noted admiral went to the length of declaring in an article that for the welfare of Great Britain the German fleet must be destroyed before it became more powerful! Such sentiments were unceasingly fanned into flame by the "yellow jour-

nals," which shall remain nameless, since all, with the exception of the *National Review*,—whose editor is evidently an old, implacable enemy of Germany,—have completely changed their tone, uniting with the people and the rest of the press around the august guest of King and nation, whose visit is not only an outward sign of friendship for King Edward and his people, but, serving as it does the cause of universal peace, of high political significance.

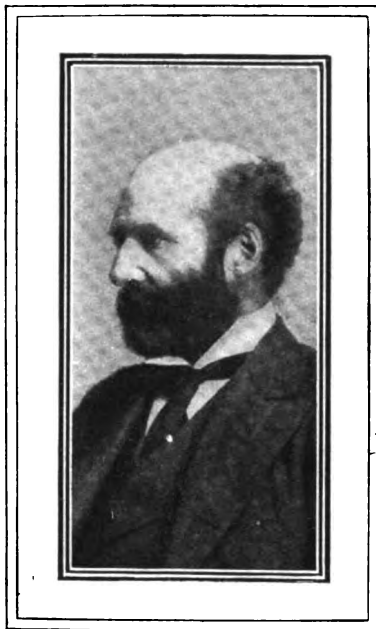
Another very significant fact is that the Lord Mayor, Sir John Bell, the foremost representative of a city where but a few years ago the enmity displayed against Germany was perhaps more intense than in any other place, should have remarked at a recent civic banquet that if at any time a slight dispute or discord had existed between the two great nations of Saxon stock, it had been settled.

Such royal meetings and other late manifestations of international good-will do not, it is true, offer a real guarantee of future peace; nor do they promote disarmament, for as long as peace in Europe rests upon armed strength, no nation, in its own as well as others' interests, may inconsiderately disarm; yet the renewing and fostering of friendly relations between nations effectually help to reduce the likelihood of a resort to the deadly engines of war. Furthermore, *ententes cordiales* are far more effective in the holy cause of peace than numerous Hague Conferences, where fifty nations are represented, and where a proposition of any kind must be unanimously agreed upon before it becomes a law, respect for which, should any nation violate it, could be maintained only by recourse to war.

It was rather singular, continues General Turner, that at the very time when King and people were eagerly preparing to receive the Emperor and Empress, one of those "monstrous fables, set in circulation from time to time in England to create enmity against Germany," should appear in a small portion of the London press. Fortunately, the public was only amused by the canard, and felt a proper contempt for it, while its originator was roundly scored by Admiral Fisher, head of the English navy, at the Lord Mayor's annual banquet. It is very remarkable, said he, what reputable people give credence to such bugbears. He had just read in a magazine the effusions of an impetuous, highly interesting editor, who had evidently been hoaxed by a *Punch* correspondent. His article, indeed, stated that 100,000 German soldiers had been in training with a view to embarking on the German fleet. The real truth was that a single German regiment had embarked for maneuvering purposes.

To accommodate 100,000 soldiers transports of thousands of tons are required. One

might as well speak of loading St. Paul's Cathedral on a penny steamer. Such stories, he added, are not only silly,—they are pernicious, very pernicious. The story appears still more absurd, General Turner



LORD TWEEDMOUTH.

(First Lord of the English Admiralty, to whom the German Kaiser has written a letter which has caused much political discussion.)

comments, since we find that it was actually only a battalion, one-third of a regiment, that carried on the maneuvers!

Nothing, however, could shake the resolve of the English to give the German Emperor a hearty welcome, both on the score of his close relationship to the King, and of his eminent personality,

—a man of firmest will and dauntless courage, a ruler of limitless power, who, had he selfishly aimed at martial renown, could have plunged the world into war and misery, but who in his twenty years' reign has, despite all temptations, resolutely maintained peace, and has now visited England in order to tell its people,—as he did at Guildhall,—that he had sixteen years ago, standing on the same spot, declared his highest aim to be the maintenance of peace, and that he hoped history would do him the justice to record that he had ever since unswervingly followed that aim. The preservation of friendly relations between the two countries, he proceeded, is the mainstay and basis of universal peace, and he would continue to do all in his power to strengthen them. The wishes of his people were coincident with his own.

## WHAT WAS THE REAL DATE OF CHRIST'S DEATH?

THIS question is discussed in the *Hollandsche Revue* by a Dutch scientist, D. J. Veen, leading to the obtaining of a quite different date for that event than the one commonly accepted. Of this discussion we give here the substance.

The belief that Jesus ate the Passover with his disciples on Thursday evening, the 14th of Nisan, says this writer, was common among Christians until about the middle of the second century. About that time a disagreement arose between the eastern and western branches of the Christian church as to the true dates of the celebration of the Passover and the death of Christ, a disagreement that continues to the present day.

Then, as now, the main point of dispute was as to the exact date of the day of Christ's death: whether this came on the 14th or 15th of the month Nisan. One party maintained that the first three, or synoptic, gospels, make it clear that Christ ate the Passover with his disciples on the 14th and was crucified on the 15th of Nisan. According to the other party, it appears clearly from the Gospel of John that Christ was crucified on the afternoon of the 14th of Nisan and that the Passover was to be eaten on the evening thereon following after sunset.

To solve this hitherto unsettled question, Mr. Veen enters upon an elaborate re-examination of the different methods of reckoning time that have been employed in obtaining dates connected with the Christian era, after which he goes on to say:

The dates for the celebration of the Jewish and Christian Passover depend upon the date of the full moon after March 21, and thus after the spring equinox. This is called the spring full moon. Now as soon as the full moon appears on the evening of the 14th of Nisan, at sunset, and thus, according to Jewish reckoning, at the beginning of the 15th of Nisan, the celebration of the Jewish Passover begins. The early Christians celebrated this feast, as that of the Resurrection of the Lord, on the first day of the week following upon the 14th of Nisan, and it was about this that the difference of opinion arose in the second century between the eastern and western branches of the church. The former maintained that Christ, the true Paschal Lamb, had died on the 14th of Nisan, and they celebrated the Lord's Supper, as a Passover feast, on the evening of that day, and on the 16th of Nisan they celebrated the Resurrection-Passover. The western branch rejected this Jewish chronology entirely and celebrated the Passion of Christ on Friday after the spring full moon, and his resurrection on the succeeding first day of the week.

To settle this question, it will be remembered the first Council of Nicea fixed the celebration of the Christian Passover,—

Easter,—for the first Sunday after the full moon following the spring equinox, which is supposed to fall on March 21. According to this decree of this Nicean Council, therefore, the Christian Passover, or Easter, may not be celebrated before March 22, nor after April 25. Later, in order to arrive at the proper annual date for the celebration of Easter the western church made use of the lunar cycle, the great discovery of the Greek astronomer, Meton. This forms a period of nineteen years, beginning with any year on whose first day there is a new moon, as was the case in the first year of our era. The discovery of this cycle, made about 430 B. C., was considered of such importance by the Greeks that they put the number 19 upon their temples in letters of gold, from which fact Christian chronologers have borrowed their golden number.

In 1582 Pope Gregory XIII. discovered that after each period of nineteen years the same phases of the moon appeared on the same dates, but in each case one and one-half hours earlier. This led him in that year, in order to reckon the date of Easter more correctly, to determine the golden number with more exactness. This he did by means of what he called Epacta, additions, which give the number of days which have passed between January 1 and the last preceding full moon.

In his discussion Mr. Veen follows the most exact possible Gregorian method of reckoning, and in his calculation of the year and date of Christ's crucifixion starts with the fact that He died between the years 27 and 34 of our era. Of these eight years the Gregorian number of Epacta must be known in order to calculate the dates of the spring full moon of those years. To reach this, he calculates, by the usual method, the golden number of those years, from which again the Epacta can be calculated. And the Epacta being known, the date of the spring full moon can be determined. But when this date is known for any year it is necessary to know also the Dominican letter in order to arrive at the particular day under that date. In calculating, then, the date of the moon from the year 28 to 33, Mr. Veen finds that:

Of the year	The golden number is	Epacta.	Spring full moon.
27	9	28	April 15
28	10	9	March 4
29	11	20	March 24
30	12	1	April 12
31	13	12	April 1
32	14	23	March 21
33	15	3	April 9
34	16	15	March 29



A table previously given shows that:

April 15 of the year 27 came on a Tuesday, since the Dominican letter of that year is E; March 4 of the year 28 came on a Sunday, since the Dominican letter of that year is C; March 24, 29, came on a Thursday, since the Dominican letter of that year is B; April 12, 30, came on a Wednesday, since the Dominican letter of that year is A; April 1, 31, was a Sunday, since the Dominican letter of that year is G; March 21, 32, was a Friday, the Dominican letter for that year being E; April 9, 33, was a Thursday, the Dominican letter of the year 33 being D; March 29, 34, was a Monday, the Dominican letter of the year being C.

The Gospels show that Christ died on a Friday and was buried toward evening of that day. This was on the day of the Passover. At sunset of the preceding day the 15th of Nisan had begun, at which time Christ ate the Passover with his disciples, according to the Mosaic law. The question now is: In what year did this take place? According to the foregoing calculation only two years can come into consideration here,—namely, the years 29 and 33. In both of these years the spring full moon came on Thursday, on the evening of which day, the

15th of Nisan, the Jewish Passover began.

Mr. Veen, now, holds that, on chronological grounds, the preference should be given to the year 29, because Christ was born not in the year 754, but in 750, after the founding of Rome, and thus four years before our era.

But there is an additional reason why he maintains that Christ died in that year, 29. In that year the Passover came very early, while in the year 33 it was celebrated fully fourteen days later. Since now, in John xviii., it is related that it was cold in the night when Christ was apprehended, and that there was a fire in the outer court of the palace of the high priest, the year 29 should also for this reason be preferred to 33, because in the latter year the Passover was celebrated in the second week of April, at which time the nights are no longer so cold in Palestine.

After further showing, as against other savants, that there is no real disagreement on this point between the four evangelists, Mr. Veen comes to the conclusion that the true date of the death of Christ was March 25 of the year 29 of our period.

## UNEMPLOYMENT IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

ALTHOUGH much has been written on the subject of unemployment in the British Isles, little attempt has been made to ascertain the extent of the evil, according to Mr. L. G. Chiozza Money, M.P., writing in the *International* (London). It is exceedingly difficult to obtain reliable statistics, on account of the absence of a permanent census department; and for estimates of the number of unemployed the figures of various trade-unions paying unemployment benefits have to be brought into requisition. Mr. Money deals with the subject as exhaustively as a private investigator can do, and the statistics he presents are certainly such as to provide food for serious consideration on the part of British legislators.

For the twenty years 1887-1906,—and these included two boom periods of trade,—the average of unemployed among 639,678 British trade-unionists was 4.5 per cent., and Mr. Money takes this as the basal figure in his calculations.

In 1901, it appears, there were engaged in occupations in the United Kingdom 12,951,000 males, among 1,900,000 of whom,—pro-

fessional men, merchants, publicans, shopkeepers, etc.,—unemployment was a negligible quantity. From the remaining 11,051,000 Mr. Money deducts those engaged in agriculture, fishing, mining, and seagoing as being subject to special conditions,—in the case of miners, for instance, the shutting down of mines,—thus reducing the number subject to unemployment to 7,781,000. These he divides into three categories:

The first includes domestics, clerks, and travelers, and workers in food, drink, tobacco, and lodging. . . . I assume that among the 1,438,000 [of this category] simultaneous unemployment does not exceed 2 per cent. . . . The second category . . . includes roadmen, engineers, shipbuilders, pottery and glass-workers, paper-makers and printers, tailors, etc. They number 5,185,000 in all. To these I apply the average trade-union unemployed rate, already referred to, with a slight modification. . . . I add 0.5 per cent. to the 4.5 per cent. average figure, raising it to 5 per cent. The third category is formed of such occupations as are certainly liable to a much higher rate of unemployment than the trade-unionist figure. It covers dockers, porters, general laborers, etc.; in all, 1,158,000 persons. I do not think we can rate

unemployment among these unfortunate classes at less than 9 per cent.

Proceeding on these lines, it is found that in industries occupying 7,781,000 male persons no fewer than 392,000 are unemployed. It is only fair to assume that these 392,000 males represent, with those dependent upon them, at least 1,500,000 of the population.

Mr. Money, extending his investigation, endeavors to ascertain how many different men were unemployed during twelve months, and in this connection he cites some notable statistics from the unemployment books of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers. From these records it appears that during nine successive years, in a mean membership of 6507, the percentage of members unemployed for not less than four weeks each was 16.68 per cent., and that of members unemployed for not less than twelve weeks was 9.27. These were not mere casual laborers, but the most skilled workmen of the United Kingdom.

Drawing conclusions from the United States census returns of unemployed for 1900, a boom trade year, Mr. Money thinks it reasonable to assume that, if the proportions of unemployed in America and Britain, respectively, were about the same, then in 1900 there were some 3,000,000 persons of both sexes unemployed from all causes in the United Kingdom during that year.

Concerning particular trades, Mr. Money's figures are startling. He says:

In the building trade of the United Kingdom there are employed about 1,200,000 people. In view of the well-known conditions under which this trade is carried on it can hardly be likely that less than 33 per cent. are out of work for some time exceeding a month even during a good year. This single trade, therefore, probably contributes not less than 400,000 to the seriously unemployed during an average year. Again, the metal, engineering, and shipbuilding trades normally occupy some 1,500,000 of our people. If we apply to this figure the average unemployment rate of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers . . . we get 500,000 unemployed in these trades alone in an average year for a period of not less than three days each, and 250,000 unemployed for upward of a month each. Thus these two great branches of work furnish an only too probable contingent of 650,000 unemployed of both sexes (each unemployed for a period of not less than four weeks) in an average year.

Summing up the probabilities, Mr. Money estimates the number of unemployed (excluding agricultural laborers, sailors, fishermen, and miners) from lack of work, for a period of not less than four weeks each in a year for the twenty years 1887-1906, at 1,221,270, or 15 per cent. He regards this figure as an understatement rather than an overestimate, and he has "no doubt whatever that for the year upon which we have entered it would seriously understate the gravity of the position."

## SIENKIEWICZ'S APPEAL AGAINST PRUSSIA.

**F**EW legislative measures of recent years have excited such deep interest and comment abroad as the bill introduced in the Prussian Diet by the government providing for the expropriation of Polish landowners in Prussia's Polish provinces, of which an outline was given in the REVIEW of January last. Of allusions to this foreign sentiment, Chancellor Bülow took the following cognizance in the Prussian Upper House on February 26:

Reference has been made here to the impression this bill has created abroad. I cannot admit that our inner policy can in any way be made dependent upon foreign opinion. Every state is master in its own house, but outsiders want to deny us this right. Our history may be partly to blame for this, but it is not the habit of great nations to become excited at every frown from a foreign brow. We desire to pursue a just and calm foreign policy which will secure us the esteem of other nations and permit us to co-operate in the work of civilization. We must, however,

accustom ourselves to treat praise and blame with complete indifference.

The fact of Prince Bülow's reference to the argument from foreign opinion and the terms in which he dealt with it "seem to indicate," observes the *Evening Sun* (New York), "what is not so very difficult to conjecture, that the argument has some weight even with the German Chancellor. . . . Prince von Bülow's ostensible declaration of independence of 'abroad' is, in fact, an admission that an international public opinion is forming which is not without influence in the inner affairs of nations."

The foreign opinion of which the Chancellor spoke has been expressed in the parliamentary chambers of Austria, and still more forcibly in the world's parliament of culture. The stimulating of voices in this universal parliament is in a great measure the work

of one man,—Henry Sienkiewicz. While in Paris last December the eminent Polish author and patriot wrote an open letter, which has been printed and is being sent out by the Polish Press Information Bureau of Paris to every newspaper in the civilized world, "to every man whose name stands for anything in any of the departments of human activity,—statesmen, writers, artists, men of affairs,"—asking for opinion in this matter of Prussia's latest anti-Polish measure.

In this letter Sienkiewicz says that "a thing unprecedented has happened, a thing insulting to civilization, law, justice, and all the humanitarian conceptions that are the basis of the life and culture of modern communities."

To the honor of humanity, observes Sienkiewicz, the European press, without distinction of parties, and including the whole independent press of Germany, has "branded the procedure of the Prussian Government as the most infamous attempt upon the elementary human rights and upon the constitution of the Prussian Kingdom. With this voice of universal indignation and contempt even such a government must reckon." Sienkiewicz further appeals to "the pillars of civilization and culture among the nations of the world" for the statement of their opinion of the Prussian Government's bill of the expropriation of the Poles.

The bureau has received answers from well-known Frenchmen, Italians, Belgians, Austrians, Hungarians; even Germany has not been backward, members of the imperial Parliament and heads of German universities having been heard from. The British contribution includes such names as H. G. Wells, Arthur Symonds, William T. Stead, George Bernard Shaw, H. Rider Haggard, Lord Crewe, and Oscar Browning. America will soon be heard from, as the Sienkiewicz appeal is now on its way to the press of America and America's principal statesmen, writers, and educators. We quote from the first batch of answers that have been published the views of men that are world-famous. Yves Guyot, French economist and former minister, says:

If the Poles will be stripped of their property and will remain in Germany they will be obliged to go to the cities. Such a proceeding, therefore, must produce hosts of discontented people, outlawed and driven into a career against their choice. This policy is a policy of bomb-manufacturing. Iniquitous from the legal point of view, dangerous and foolish in its results, this

policy will be an infamous blemish on the contemporary history of Germany.

Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu, a member of the French Institute, and the director of the well-known Paris School of Political Science, says:

The feeling that one experiences in view of the Prussian bill of expropriation is a feeling both of amazement and indignation. What! is it a monarchical, conservative, and apparently Christian government that is laying such a bill before its Parliament? Has it not considered, then, the precedent with which it is thus furnishing the revolutionary parties and the Socialists? Moreover, Prince Bülow's bill of expropriation is more offensive than would be an agrarian bill embracing without distinction the landed proprietors of whatever descent; for this is an exceptional law and, at the same time, a spoliatory law. It is so much the more repugnant in that it is directed against subjects of the Prussian King that have committed no other crime than the defense of their nationality, language, and religion, and whose national rights the Prussian kings at the moment of assuming the Province of Posen promised under oath to respect. So in that Germany which has boasted that she is the chosen land of the knowledge of the law it is coming to a violation both of the public law and of private rights! I must confess that I had a better opinion of the Germans. What, however, would the jurists of Germany say if the Russians in Livonia or Courland, and the Hungarians in Transylvania, should apply toward their German subjects the same measures of expropriation as Prussia is applying toward her Polish subjects?

Camill Flammarion, the French astronomer, says:

To-day Prussia aims at dispossessing the Poles of their native soil. But has she not already "dispossessed" them of Copernicus? Does she not teach that the immortal astronomer born in Thorn in 1473 is of the Prussian nationality? And the Polish city Torun [Germanized into Thorn], to-day a Prussian fortress, belongs to this amiable power only since 1793, and this with an intermission,—from 1807 to 1815,—in which it was annexed by Napoleon to the Grand Duchy of Warsaw. To say that Copernicus is a German is the same as to say that our French generals born in Metz or in Strasburg before the spoliation of 1871 are Prussians, or to say that Jesus Christ is a Turk because Jerusalem and Bethlehem to-day belong to Turkey.

Emil Verhaeren, the corypheus of contemporary Belgian poetry, says:

I would fain believe that entire thinking Germany has nothing in common with this, and that it is yet time to prevent this, thanks to the protests that are issuing from just the country that is oppressing you. If this should not be so, if the country of Goethe, Schiller, Kant, and Nietzsche should so far forget its destiny, nothing else would remain than to reckon the Prussian Government among the monstrous coun-

tries of the East; for, indeed, this would imply that this government is working with its savage hands its own infamy.

Several journals have independently started symposiums of their own concerning the bill of Polish expropriation. Among those who wrote on this subject to the *Neues Wiener Journal* (Vienna) are Björnstjerne Björnson, Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu, Cæsar Lombroso, P. D. Markov, and Marcel Prevost. Their opinions are preceded by the following words of the *Neues Wiener Journal*:

The indignation against the "burglars' policy," as we have designated the Prussian bill of expropriation, is shared by all persons that set right before might. Let German diplomacy complain of the intermeddling of foreign parliaments; it must, however, with a feeling of shame, accept the intermeddling of the international cultured parliament that publishes its decisions through the voices of the eminent representatives of civilization.

Björnstjerne Björnson says:

A subjugated and oppressed nation will not perish as long as it possesses two points of support: its religion and its land. But if it is bereaved of its native tongue, in which its religion has been communicated to it and in which that religion has been nurtured, it is being bereaved of its religion also; and if at the same time it is deprived of its land, the unfortunate nation is doomed to certain ruin. How a Christian, civilized nation can do anything like this I cannot understand. But what I do understand is the fact that through this Prussia is estrang-

ing the other smaller Germanic peoples and separating herself from the very nations that it would be her mission to concentrate.

P. D. Markov points out that Russia has never made attempts upon private property, and he cherishes the hope that Emperor William "as a gentleman" will not give his sanction to the Prussian bill of expropriation.

Contrary to the expectation of the foreign world; contrary to the sanguine hope of a large part of the German nation which believed that such a law would discredit Germany in the eyes of the civilized world; against the wishes of the great German aristocratic landholders, who expressed apprehension lest the measure would prove a dangerous precedent later for the Socialists and Radicals,—if these should ever come to power,—for dispossessing German owners of large estates, and to the agreeable surprise of Chancellor von Bülow himself, the Polish Expropriation bill was adopted by the Diet on March 3, five days after its principle had been ratified by the House of Lords; and unless the hope expressed by P. D. Markov in the *Neues Wiener Journal* be realized that Emperor William "as a gentleman" will not give his sanction to the bill of expropriation, the measure will become a law. It was noticed as a striking circumstance that a number of persons having the closest relations with Emperor William voted against the government in the House of Lords.

## WILHELM BUSCH, THE GERMAN CARICATURIST.

THE death in January last of the great German caricaturist and writer, Wilhelm Busch, brought to an end a strikingly unique career. From some biographical notes appearing in the *Open Court* (Chicago) for March we select the following:

Wilhelm Busch was born April 15, 1832, in Wiedensahl, near Stadthagen, in the Kingdom of Hanover, as the son of a small merchant. Having passed through the preparatory schools, he attended the Polytechnic Institute of Hanover to study engineering, but he changed his mind and decided to become a painter, whereupon he visited the art academies of Düsseldorf, Antwerp, and Munich. In the latter place he worked for some time in the studio of Professor Lenbach. But nature had not intended him for an artist, and he was not successful with his paintings.

Busch had views of his own which seemed

to incapacitate him for a career on any of the traditionally prescribed lines, and it was not easy for him to find his proper place in the world. He was neither an engineer nor an artist. He disliked the exactness needed for a draftsman, and he lacked the love of beauty that would enable him to become a distinguished painter. He was easy going, and yet he was talented, full of original wit and thought, and he felt that he could accomplish something in the world if he would only understand his own nature.

At last, in his twenty-eighth year, he began to become conscious of the possibilities that were slumbering in him.

In 1859 he was engaged for the *Fliegenden Blätter*, and here he found a field for his talent, which consists of a peculiar combination of caricature and satire. His work found admirers, and so he was at once en-

couraged to write books of funny verses, with illustrations of rough humorous drawings, executed in his own ingenious style.

The best-known works of his hand are "Max und Moritz," "Schnurrdbur," "Der heilige Antonius," "Hans Huckelbein der Unglücksrabe," "Die fromme Helene," "Pater Filucius," and "Plisch und Plum." But he has also written unillustrated books, such as "Die Kritik des Herzens," and "Zu guter Letzt," both containing poems filled with humorous contemplations of various incidents in life.

The value of Busch does not so much consist in the details of his stories, nor their plots, not even in his drawings, but mainly in the contemplative comments which are incidentally thrown in by way of moralizing. They characterize Busch and are evidence of the good nature of his misanthropy.

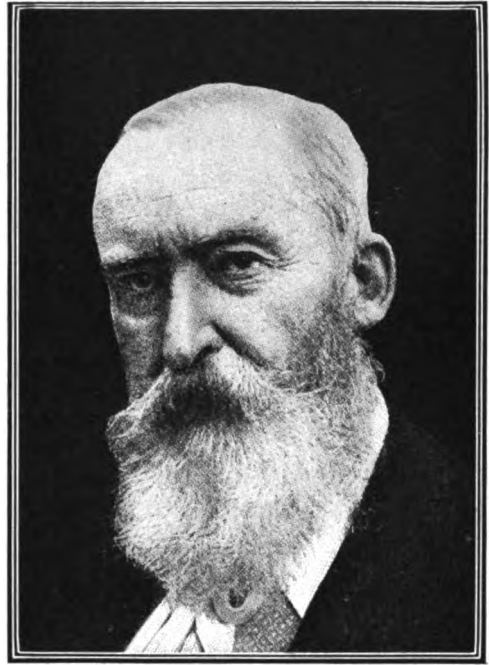
It would appear that Busch cared little for literary honors; he preferred a life of retirement among the peasantry of a sequestered village in the Harz Mountains. There he died on January 11 last,—virtually a hermit.

#### A Dutch Estimate of Wilhelm Busch.

From a very full and able article on the great German caricaturist in *Elsevier's Monthly* for March, by the Dutch critic, C. Veth, we take the following:

I have yet to find another artist who is at the same time such a capable writer, another writer who is such a powerful artist, whose work is equally recognized by the entire people of a great nation, as is that of the great German author and caricaturist, Wilhelm Busch. This author, who is his own illustrator, this illustrator who furnishes his own text, has aided his pen with his brush, his brush with his pen, in a manner at once masterly, faultless, inimitable. He was a contemporary of whom par excellence we may, nay must, speak in the superlative; for although ever, according to a purposely assumed appearance on the surface, he was an entertaining story-teller, a conscientious easy-chair philosopher, an airy sketcher, laconic humorist, a good-natured writer of popular rhymes, he is in reality in his language most vigorous, sharp, and effective, while in his drawings he is the most comprehensive, the strongest, the most refined as well as the most irresistible, witty, wilful, and skeptic of the caricaturists.

His vocabulary is that of the common people, his easily flowing, simple, and unadorned verses are easily remembered, while the imagery is drawn almost exclusively from the commonest everyday affairs and is of well-nigh universal application. His satire, by which he makes men laugh not only at their own follies but even at what they have regarded as their wisdom, by which, by means of some slight



THE LATE WILHELM BUSCH.

ironical additions, some finely *outré* dressing, their favorite notions, their oracular aphorisms, their inconsistencies, are rendered ridiculous, their fine dress is turned as it were inside out, seems to me at once lofty and noble.

The reader and admirer of Busch is not amused with some romantic hunter of adventure like Don Quixote, is not made to grin at the antics of Gulliver's Lilliputians; he himself, his own conduct, views of life, enjoyments, passions, and ideals have furnished the author that charms him with abundant matter for his irresistible satire.

Busch's art is the crossiest reaction against the wearisome worship of the intellect. But the extravagance that always accompanies such reaction is ever manifest in the details of his work, though it is ever enjoyable. And yet how natural are all those peoples, built up seemingly of some corners, strokes, and lines, growing as it were out of meal-bags, blocks of turf, out of sticks, lumps of slough, or out of masses of sinew, brawn, and bone; and yet how finely, splendidly are they put together! Only that which was organic in them is, of course, developed extravagantly.

In everything Busch is the great parodist. He draws nothing purely or simply fantastical; with him nothing is merely accidental. There is no romanticist in him, as in the equally popular and admired George Cruikshank. His satire is ever directed at something real and actual, and by preference at what is familiar to all. For this reason he is more piquant, perhaps more enjoyable, certainly less innocent.

Though using such insignificant means to produce his characters, Busch proved himself a most refined and thorough physiognomist. Compared with him Lavater is a type. Those ears,

mouths, noses, necks, with what slight means are they constructed,—a stroke, a curve, an angle,—yet what expression has he thrown into them! But he who drew them is as pitiless as he seems all-observant and all-comprehending. In his characters, too, as in a rolling snowball, every beginning or starting point grows from an isolated fact or instance with dizzy rapidity to the greatest combinations; with feverish haste everything rushes to the climax.

Is it too soon to say even now that very much of what at present we so much admire in all

sorts of refined and profound art will be forgotten when this mighty monument of satire will still draw the admiration of all everywhere? The work of Busch is so complete, so strong, and of such prevailing interest, so simple in its conception, yet so rich in its execution, that it might even now be regarded as a classic. Just the very narrowness of his horizon, that constant repetition of the great motif, the concentration of enormous powers upon the work, indicate that we stand here in the presence of a great genius.

## WILLIAM STEAD, JUNIOR.

ENGLISH journalism suffered a serious loss, last December, in the death of William Stead, Jr., at the age of thirty-three. The eldest son of Mr. William T. Stead, the founder and editor of the *London Review of Reviews*, "Willie" had been destined from boyhood to be a writer for the press. A writer in the *Westminster Review* for March refers to his first important contribution, signed with the initials, "W. S.," which appeared in the pages of the *Westminster* for June, 1896. It was a short article, entitled, "New Islam and Its Prophet," and, as the writer remarks, "it was full of promise, a promise which the succeeding years justified, and which, had his life been spared, would have been still more amply fulfilled."

The article referred to appeared at the time when the discussion of Cecil Rhodes' connection with the Jameson Raid was most acute. In its closing passages young Stead sounded a note of warning:

Much may be forgiven Mr. Rhodes, and much excused, but there is one vital question which he will have to answer. On his answer his career as an imperial statesman will largely, if not altogether, depend. Does he still regard the means which he considered justifiable in the recent South African crisis as legitimate means to gain his ends, or does he recognize that he has erred, and that in the future he will abandon those methods, which however excusable they may be in a state which is struggling for its existence, should not be permissible for an empire like our own?

If Mr. Rhodes does not answer plainly and frankly that he does not consider those methods legitimate and justifiable our course is clear. The more devoted we are to the English-speaking race, the more impossible it will be for us to support Cecil Rhodes.

But as Allah is greater than Mohammed, so is the English-speaking race than Cecil Rhodes. The danger is,—and it is a serious one,—that as the failings of the Arabian prophet have discredited the religion which he proclaimed, so the errors of Cecil Rhodes may injure the ideal

for which we are all working. I would earnestly warn those who believe that they must save Mr. Rhodes at any cost from the consequences of his mistakes that they will probably do unknown harm to the cause which they have at heart. Unless they make it plain that they repudiate the methods which it has already been proved Mr. Rhodes regarded as legitimate, they will postpone by many years the day when we shall see an alliance of English-speaking communities the wide world over.

The present writer in the *Westminster* comments on what he regards as the somewhat remarkable fact that this first public utterance of the young man should be "the protest of a son against the tendency of a policy of which his father was at that time the foremost exponent." (Mr. W. T. Stead was an ardent defender of Cecil Rhodes and his policies.) And the protest was the more remarkable, continues this writer, because that son had been all his life brought up as the closest companion, colleague, and assistant of his father. "So close was their intimacy, so perfect was the loyalty and devotion of the son, that many feared the strong personality of the elder man would make the younger a mere echo of himself."

The protest in no way impaired the cordial relations between father and son, although it was probably somewhat of a surprise to the former that his son's début in journalism should have taken the shape of so uncompromising an admonition.

It was a characteristic action of one who, although he almost idolized his father, still recognized his conscience alone as king, and who showed, even in this first essay, his capacity to combine the utmost plainness of vehement speech with courtesy and consideration.

At that time, William Stead, Jr., was private secretary to Mr. E. T. Cook, the editor of the *Daily News*, who says of him: "He was much more than a private secretary to me; he was more than an assistant editor. He was the only confidential councillor I had on my staff."





THE LATE WILLIAM STEAD, JR.

Perhaps the greatest single task of Mr. Stead's brief but laborious career is described in the *Westminster* as follows:

When Mr. John Morley was intrusted with the responsibility of rearing the literary monument of biography to Mr. Gladstone's memory he asked William Stead to assist him. He "devilled" for Mr. Morley for three years. His duties necessitated among others the reading of all the speeches of Mr. Gladstone recorded in Hansard or reported in the *Times*, verifying all references, indexing all letters, preparing a complete chronology, and generally doing, under Mr. Morley's direction, the rough foundation work on which the biography rests. During this period, if William Stead did not exactly live like a hermit and work like a horse, he practiced the reserve of a recluse. Mr. Morley is a trifle morbid in his dread of anything being said about him by anybody anywhere, and during the whole of the time William Stead was busy with the Gladstone material he hardly opened his mouth on the subject even to his nearest rela-

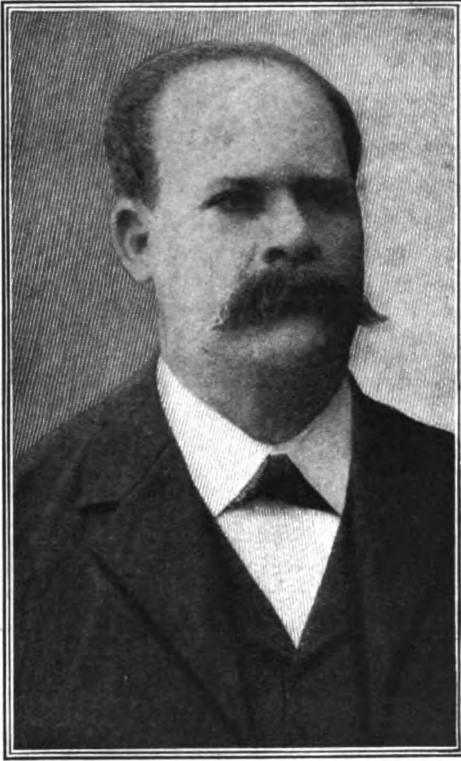
tives. Mr. Morley has expressed himself warmly in praise of the way in which he was served by his secretary. He is not an easy taskmaster, but he was satisfied with the patience and un-failing service of his willing slave, who was proud of the privilege of helping, even as a hewer of wood and a drawer of water, in the great work of rearing a worthy literary memorial to the greatest Englishman of our time.

Young Mr. Stead had been assistant and colleague of his father on the *London Review of Reviews* for many years. It had been arranged that he should be his father's successor as responsible editor.

Social work at the Browning Settlement, where his uncle was warden, had a great fascination for Mr. Stead. On the Saturday before he died he spent three hours, as usual, in preparing for his adult class in social economics. Its members bore his body to the grave.



## ZELAYA: THE MENACE OF CENTRAL AMERICA.



GEN. JOSÉ SANTOS ZELAYA, PRESIDENT OF NICARAGUA.

WARFARE is the breath of life to the Latin-American republics south of the Mexican frontier. They appear to be forever mobilizing, ambushing, and invading. When not fighting they are conspiring or setting up a new president. The smell of powder and smoke is meat and drink to them. This *opéra bouffe* warfare, however, is not without a serious side. While it does not kill a great number of men, it does kill trade and commercial enterprise; it makes ownership a danger,—and governments and their obligations an uncertainty. It kills all hope of a stable currency and all confidence of foreign capital,—contentment in labor, and all hope of an enduring nationality,—all sense of political integrity. In fine, it is a riot of waste, bearing the imprint of no fixed purpose, trending toward no definite end, and in its irrational endeavors absolutely bewildering to the American mind.

"Vast opportunities," says Mr. Arthur Stringer in the *Metropolitan Magazine* for April, "obviously await that Latin-American

leader who, with clearer eyes and calmer judgment, can stand aloof from the engulfing, exotic, Old-World romanticism of a people persisting in a hopelessly retrospective ideal of feral aristocracy, and a hopelessly incongruous ideal of feudal warfare. There must be a leader who can see both wide enough and deep enough to marshal and restrain and direct these torrential and antagonistic activities, these seething nations of the caloric zone that make up, for all their animosities, one common and kindred people. Such a man, it is hinted, even now exists. Such a leader, it is claimed, has already been found. He is to be the Bolivar of the twentieth century, the pacifier and dictator of a unified Central America, the Napoleon of a reorganized isthmus."

His home is in Managua, the capital of Nicaragua, and his name is José Santos Zelaya, officially known as the President of Nicaragua. He is a man of intense energy, of illimitable ambition, of calm and judicial clear-headedness when advancing, of primordial and ruthless savagery when necessary, of undisputed courage and equally undisputed cruelty, sly and circuitous in his inner and uncompromised pertinacities, sophisticated in his use of auxiliaries, truly Castilian in his preparedness, Olympian in his absence of earthly scrupulosity, cynical through his knowledge of life, and sinister in his dogged exactions of vengeance. He stands to-day a menace and a promise to all Central America.

His movement and himself can be divided into the romantic and the malignant. To his enemies he is an opportunist, a tyrant, an autocrat, a thug, a demagogue, a sensualist, and a fratricide wading through shame and blood to a short-lived political notoriety. To his supporters he is a statesman, a leader, a liberator,—the hope of ultimate peace in Central America.

Zelaya's father was a wealthy coffee-planter, and he is of "unmixed blood." His youth is uninteresting. He entered the army, but failed to distinguish himself, his initiative and executive powers remaining dormant until he took to politics. Then the man awakened, the organizer found himself. He spent ten years in study and observation in France, Belgium, London, and New York. Then he returned to Nicaragua intent on his own ends and fixed in his methods to attain them. The natives were pliant for his pur-

poses. Meek, illiterate, emotional, excitable, easily led, a lover of pomp and glittering uniforms, the son of the soil is a willing tool in the hands of a man like Zelaya.

The returned cosmopolite was also better able to understand the little pinchbeck aristocracy of Managua. He beheld in it a contentious, mendacious, grasping, unscrupulous and idle band of parasites,—each with his eyes on the Presidency, which managed discreetly can be made to yield bewildering returns. If one republic promised so much, what would be the returns if the five were thrown into one? This golden prospect stirred Zelaya, and he saw himself receiving tribute from every machete and car-wheel, every bean of coffee, every pound of coffee coming in or going out of such a country. Every concession and every monopoly would be his to dole out, could he attain the Presidency of such a union. Capital and enterprise would bow to him, and he would be the supreme dictator of the "United States of Central America," a formidable nation of millions, of magnificent harbors and impregnable mountain recesses, of a strategic position uniquely enviable, of ample endowments for all movements of defense and offense, when the occasion arose.

Accordingly, Zelaya planned every move to win, and, so far, he has won. First, he captured Nicaragua's Presidential chair in 1893 and still occupies it. The republicanism of Central America is a mixture of absolutism, arrogance, and irresponsibility. Militarism and autocracy prevail, and there is no press worthy of the name. The editor who criticises finds his paper suppressed, and he

is lucky if he escapes across the frontier. One's first impression in Central America is that half the population is living in enforced exile. Opposition to the administration is anarchy, and anarchy is suppressed by means of such accessories as a church wall and a firing squad.

In many of the remoter portions of Nicaragua the natives were given to understand that their choice for President had to be one of three candidates: José, Santos, or Zelaya! It is only in the capital that Zelaya is known as José Santos Zelaya. On taking office he fell afoul of Great Britain through his proclamation reincorporating the Mosquito Coast into Nicaragua. For this he paid \$75,000 indemnity; but, undeterred, he invaded Honduras, leaving an army of occupation behind him. To-day, he dictates its policy, appoints its foreign officers, and makes recommendations as to its native officials and elections. There is peace on the isthmus for the moment, but it is only the peace of a quiescent Vesuvius. Costa Rica remains to be disciplined, and Zelaya will not be satisfied with inaction.

Withal, he has introduced many material reforms. Steam laundries, electric lighting plants, 200 miles of railroad, machine shops, wharves, and one or two seaports owe their establishment in Nicaragua to him. He has opened up a gold mine or two, and started a few industries, but invading Americans have robbed him of his profits. Against them he has retaliated with heartbreaking tariffs and maddening quarantine laws. When the time is ripe he will take his stand in the open.

## THE HELL OF WAR.

AN army faces two enemies in every great campaign: the armed force of the opposing foe, with his various machines for human destruction, and the hidden foe, always lurking in every camp, the specter that gathers its victims while the soldier slumbers in barrack or bivouac, the far greater silent foe,—disease. The former kills 20 per cent. of the victims of the conflict; the latter kills 80 per cent.

"The splendid achievements of scientific medicine in civil life in the prevention of disease should be even more effectively obtained in an army, where only healthy men are accepted, and vigorous outdoor camp life

should keep its units, who are subject to strict military discipline, in perfect physical condition." Thus writes Dr. Louis Livingston Seaman in *Appleton's Magazine* for April.

Health alone, says he, is no guaranty against the insidious attack of disease. It is this dreadful, unnecessary sacrifice of life from preventable disease that constitutes the hell of war to-day. In the Russo-Turkish war deaths from battle casualties were 20,000; from disease 80,000. In our Civil War about 400,000 were sacrificed to disease for 100,000 from wounds in battle. In Madagascar recently the French lost 7000 from pre-

ventable diseases to 29 killed by the enemy, out of a total of 14,000. In the Boer War the British losses from disease were ten times greater than those from the enemy's bullets. In our war with Spain we sacrificed fourteen to ignorance and incompetency to every one killed in action or lost through actual engagement with the enemy.

That this monstrous sacrifice to preventable disease is totally unnecessary was abundantly proved in the records of the Russo-Japanese War. Of 1,200,000 men sent to the front by Japan only 27,000 died from disease to 59,000 who fell on the field of battle. This because the Japanese had a properly equipped medical and sanitary department, whose officers were empowered to enforce proper sanitation and hygiene. Against this record in our army in 1898, 2649 picked soldiers died in three months in the pest camps of their native land, without leaving the country or ever having heard the hum of a hostile bullet. "These men," says he, "represent the hell of war as it would exist again in our army if we were suddenly called upon to face an enemy who is prepared to meet us."

Despite the improvements of the last fifty years in the relations between the Government and the governed, little has inured to the army. "The wretched system of the Medical Department of our army, and the lack of authority accorded to its officers to enforce practical sanitation and hygiene, were among the principal causes that brought our army of 170,000 men in the Spanish War almost to its knees in three months, with 156,000 hospital admissions and 3974 men dead when the remainder was mustered out." This is a sad reflection on our civilization, and a disgraceful record of our indifference.

"The Medical Department of our army," says Dr. Seaman, "whose archaic system almost parallels that of Peking, while falling far below that of Patagonia (and I am familiar with both, and speak advisedly), although unequal to cope with the exigencies of the Spanish campaign, is to-day, as the Surgeon-General states, relatively 60 per cent. worse off in numbers than at the close of the Civil War in 1864, or at the termination of the Spanish-American War."

It is founded upon the theory that the cure, not the prevention, of disease is its objective. It confers no authority upon its staff to enforce sanitation, diet, and hygiene. Hence, its usefulness is problematical. What the country needs to-day is a "national

board of health with a Secretary in the cabinet of the President." A measure is now pending before Congress to increase the efficiency of the Medical Department of the army, but, in the opinion of Dr. Seaman, it is hopelessly deficient in essentials.

"One keen, up-to-date sanitarian, thoroughly skilled in hygienic, dietetic, and bacteriological knowledge, and armed with the necessary authority to enforce sanitary measures, is worth many times the services of a doctor in the army, restricted as he now is by red tape and lack of authority in matters relating to his own special department. The medical officer is given no advisory authority over the soldier's ration. . . . Even in time of peace the medical officer has no authority to enforce sanitation, although he may be convinced that the health of every man is being jeopardized. . . . The medical men, whose department fights the foe that has killed 80 per cent. in the majority of the great wars of history, cannot enforce a single order, but can only make a recommendation, which the line officer can accept or reject at his discretion, and there is nothing in the bill now before Congress to change this disorder of things."

Dr. Seaman thinks, however, that the recent action of the executive in placing a medical officer in command of a hospital ship "may indicate a ray of hope."

This "hell of modern war" may be prevented by a thorough reorganization of the Medical Department of the army from top to bottom. The Surgeon-General, the writer thinks, should be responsible only to a national Secretary of Health, who should be a cabinet officer; to the Secretary of War, or to the President, and he and his subordinates should possess authority in all matters of sanitation and hygiene, except in the emergency of battle. He should be recognized as an agency to *prevent* disease,—not to cure it. With the use of simple, easily digested rations for our troops, and the application of practical sanitation by a fully equipped and empowered medical department, we will obliterate infectious and preventable disease from our army and save its units for legitimate purposes. Our soldiers are deserving of every care and protection which a generous Government can bestow, and Congress should have marshaled before it the facts and figures that show the tremendous waste in our fighting ranks from preventable disease. Then authority may be conferred upon the Medical Department.

## THE WAR ON ALCOHOL IN RUSSIA.

COUNT WITTE recently asserted that the Russian legislative chambers have given proof of vitality in attacking one of the most important of national questions,—a question on which the salvation of the people and the future of the state largely depend: the abuse of alcoholic drinks. Drunkenness is the crying evil of Russia, as it has been since before the advent of Christianity.

It is worthy of note, says Maxim Kovalevski, member of the Council of the Russian Empire, writing in the *Revue Bleue*, that the communes gave the present Duma to understand that it is not possible to make any struggle against alcoholism. "Neither the state nor the producer of alcohol can object to the number of drinkers when estimating the national and personal pecuniary interests. The public treasury draws a good part of its revenue from alcohol. All expenses paid, the return is \$250,000,000."

The Conservatives, in urging the possibility of fighting alcohol with success, have advised the government to sell the property of the temperance societies at auction and turn over the proceeds to the schools and to the medical service.

Their theory evolving such a plea seems to be that drunkenness cannot exist where there are sufficient numbers of public primary schools. They, therefore, urge the government to withdraw its support from the temperance societies, sell the societies' property, and with the proceeds of the sales found public schools. This Conservative theory of the primary school against the rum-shop is proved false by the fact that some of the most studious of nations drink alcohol. To cite one instance, Denmark, the most enlightened of the Scandinavian countries, is the heaviest consumer of alcohol in northern Europe. No one not wilfully blind to the drunkenness of the Russian lower clergy can hope that the public school will annihilate the thirst for liquor. It is to the interest of any country to give the liquor monopoly into the hands of the state's government. Switzerland has shown what can be done by such means. The government knows that it is to its interest to diminish the national consumption of alcohol. Such decrease increases the well-being of the people at large, while it gives better returns from all the systems of taxation.

The \$750,000 appropriated for the temperance societies for the year 1907 is of small importance compared to \$3,800,000 paid out by the state for the consumers of *eau-de-vie*. As the temperance societies were not adequate to their task, the Council of Bishops advised the government to turn the work

over to the church. Where that was done, in a quarter peopled by workingmen, 80,000 signed the pledge. A million pamphlets against alcoholism have been published at the expense of the parishioners, and the church is publishing a total-abstinence journal. The fight on alcohol is now in the hands of the *curatelles* and the parochial societies.

When the discussion came before the Council of the Empire the discussion was confined to the advantages of the two systems,—that of the state *curatelles* and that of the parochial associations. That no one was anxious to look the matter squarely in the face was shown by the fact that not a hint was given of the efficacious means used in America and in more than one of the states of Europe during the last thirty or forty years.

Not a word was said of the American States that have declared against the production and sale of alcohol, nor of the analogous action taken in Canada and the British colonies. When the minister declared, with a singular display of ignorance, that up to the present time no state had been bold enough to renounce the revenues returned by alcohol, no one corrected his statement. The speaker discussed the necessity of lowering the percentage of alcohol in the brandy put in the market, but he said nothing of the people's ignorance in regard to the effects of alcoholism on this generation and on the generations of the future. Yet we know the good results of the lessons given by the English Band of Hope, an independent association acting without any help from the state. All the nations are awake to their danger, and all are warring to save the countries from the curse of strong drink,—all save Russia! Russia alone looks complacently on the abuse of alcohol.

In other countries a man can buy his drink "loose" and drink it behind the screen of the rum-shop. In Russia he can buy it only in bottles and drink it, as he does drink it, in the public street, thereby exhibiting his weakness or his vice to the public. He buys his bottle and empties it as he goes along.

From the discussion before the chambers Russia learned that national monopoly of the liquor business has a political as well as an economical and financial bearing. When the wine-shops belong to the state they cannot be opened without the consent of the authorities, and whatever is said in the wine-shop is said before the state. The directors of the wine markets and warehouses are employees of the state. Therefore revolutionary propaganda in a wine-shop is impossible.

## MR. BRYAN EXPLAINED.

THE mystery of Mr. Bryan's continued hold on his party is what Mr. James Creelman attempts to explain in *Pearson's Magazine* for April. Twice rejected at the polls, his bid for popular support apparently weakened by the anti-trust campaign of his opponents in the Republican party, Mr. Bryan still looms up as Democracy's only acknowledged leader.

What adds to the mystery is Mr. Bryan's increasing prosperity in defeat:

In spite of his two historic defeats, in spite of the fact that his followers usually see only a nimbus of martyrdom about his comfortable form, Mr. Bryan has continued to prosper in political adversity.

He has accumulated a handsome fortune, most of it safely invested in United States bonds; he owns a handsome residence, surrounded by ample lands; and his income is greater than that of the President of the United States.

Yet his shrewd attention to the profitable side of his popularity, his steady thrift in acquiring wealth, his growing dimensions as a proprietor, have not lessened his hold upon the imagination of the great propertyless multitudes, who see in him only the unstained, unterrified champion of the poor, and demand his renomination for the Presidency, defeat or no defeat.

Mr. Bryan's unquestionable honesty will not explain this remarkable situation, for in his own party there are able and eloquent men who suffered political death rather than yield their convictions to his leadership. His genius as a chooser of policies will not account for his continued power, for the free-silver issue has been ground to dust under the feet of history, the plea for an immediate abandonment of the Philippines has been discredited, and even Mr. Bryan himself shrinks from government ownership of railways as a political program. Nor will persistency as a candidate or eloquence as an orator furnish a solution of the mystery, for the dwindled reputations of David B. Hill and Bourke Cockran plead convincingly against such a theory.

Two things Mr. Bryan has yet, says Mr. Creelman, which he had in the roaring free-silver campaign of 1896,—his gift of oratory and his campaign smile. In addition he has acquired renown as a successful money-maker. This new acquirement has more or less affected his manner of thinking and working:

Age, experience, and worldly prosperity have cured Mr. Bryan of a certain apparent recklessness of the opinions of others. He has more

method than before. He has learned how to organize. Formerly he was simply a supreme vibrator.

He is still the genial, anecdotal "good fellow" who can live week-in-and-out in railroad trains, with no steady companion but a well-worn traveling bag, with an appetite that can be satisfied by anything from a cup of coffee and a hard-boiled egg in a railway station to a banquet provided by a Democratic committee, with a plowboy's handshake that has become discriminating through long practice, and a smile as pleasant as a harvest moon,—yet behind the good fellowship, the stirring oratory, and the easy epigrams there is an indescribable, invading something that speaks of a new Bryan, a Bryan who knows how to take care of himself, a sophisticated, calculating business man who has discovered the money value of continued publicity.

In a word, Mr. Bryan has reduced the profession of politics to an honest trade. But of the man's absolute honesty and cleanness of purpose Mr. Creelman makes no doubt whatever:

Whatever may be said of him, Mr. Bryan is without perfidy or double-dealing. He is a man of sincere convictions and straightforward methods. He may sometimes confound a stately and resounding fluency of speech with constructive statesmanship; he may mistake the art of epigrammatization for the science of government, and fail to distinguish the difference between an honest emotion and a sound principle; but he has never been a liar or a traitor; his word is pure gold and he fights in the open.

Mr. Creelman sums up his conclusions as follows:

The explanation of Mr. Bryan's wonderful reascendancy is to be found principally in his discovery of a system by which honest political agitation can be made financially successful and thus be prolonged indefinitely, regardless of defeat, and in the sinister reputation of the principal men who have thus far sought to prevent his leadership. As compared with the Wall Street manipulators, stained lawyers, and corrupt politicians who have attempted to seize control of the great Democratic party, Mr. Bryan, with all his faults, rises like a tower of strength.

The thing which has made Bryanism again possible may be a mere spinning ecstasy in the nerves of an overwrought people; it may be a slow moral revolution, swinging tidelike from party to party; it may be a recognition of the enduring power of an unsullied manhood, coupled with an incomparable tongue; it may be a mere habit, or it may be a mood of despair in which all candidates retire in favor of the one man who has learned how to make defeat pay.

## LEADING FINANCIAL ARTICLES.

### BUYING BONDS.

TO many investors the statement that "now is the time to buy bonds" might be made a little differently,—thus:

"Now is the time to buy *the best* bonds."

At present most securities are low-priced; but many are not cheap. The panic, which forced thousands of wealthy bondholders to sell out for what they could get, certainly did create bargains in the list of standard municipal, railroad, and public-utility bonds. But when one comes to the "industrials,"—bonds of tobacco, steel, leather, and other such manufacturing companies,—it is well to be very wary.

The reason for this is that if we are at the beginning of a depression in the industrial world, no matter how intrinsically sound the bonds of industrial corporations may be, it is not unlikely that many of them may be purchased later on at cheaper prices, owing to the smaller volume of business transacted during such periods and the consequent falling off of earnings.

This warning is sounded by Charles Lee Scovil in *Success*. He calls attention to the slight loss of income, even during years of "bad times," recorded by many good railroads, and many companies supplying light or water or street transportation to prosperous communities.

In this connection it is important for the investor to keep in mind that railroads do a diversified business. For example, they carry passengers, United States mail, grain, lumber, agricultural products and implements, and all classes of commodities; whereas, industrial corporations are usually dependent upon the particular line of industry they may be engaged in, and any decline in the demand for their output, or conditions bringing about lower prices, have their effect upon the earnings. On the other hand, public-utility corporations, especially street railways, are even less subject to adverse conditions in the general business world than are the railroads.

Such corporations are dependent, almost exclusively, upon the growth of the communities which they serve, and when bonds of this class are secured upon the properties of companies operating in the larger and steadily growing cities, and possessing franchises which are fair and reasonable, their intrinsic investment value

rests more especially upon honest and efficient management than any other one thing.

Many railroad bonds which are considered to be among "the best" will be referred to in the pages of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*. When it comes to public-utility bonds, however, the investor must remember that his only chance to be sure of getting one of "the best" is to have his purchase recommended by a high-class banking-house. Street railway and gas and electric-light companies cannot be judged from the outside, like railroads. Here information is required which, generally speaking, is owned and will be imparted only by the specially interested banking-house of high reputation.

Now that the high-grade bonds are down in price, how soon will they go up? A safe answer to this question is that they will go up before anything else does. That they will not be long about it is argued by the author of "A Time to Buy Bonds," in *The Saturday Evening Post*.

When money goes down bonds go up. This is the reason: the large amount of money that is seeking employment and which cannot be loaned naturally goes into the safest and most available medium, and this is bonds. One reason why bonds are selected is because, especially after a long financial depression, people want their investments to be as safe as possible. They remember the suspension of banks, the failure of trust companies, the manipulation of funds, so they turn to bonds which combine security, income, and profit.

Other conditions besides the money market will help to increase the demand for bonds this year. One, for example, is the proposed currency legislation.

Again, this is a Presidential year, and one of its traditions is that business shall be unsettled. In the past this has meant that many business men, instead of putting more money into their business, have put it into bonds.

Therefore, as the man or woman with savings or other funds to invest can readily see, if this is likely to be a bond year, as there is every indication it will be, now is the time to buy bonds.

"MUNICIPALS" OF HIGHER YIELD.

Even such high-grade investments as municipal bonds reflect in their lowered prices the recent money-market disturbances.

There are actually many opportunities now to purchase excellent "municipals" so cheaply as to yield the investor much more than 4 per cent. on his money.

Some of the counties, school districts, towns, cities, and villages of the South and West offer securities which may wisely be bought by the most prudent investor. They are apt to yield much more than most bonds of populated Eastern communities which are legal for savings-banks of New York and Massachusetts, and therefore in greater demand. But the investor can take his profit through buying some Southern or Western municipal and still feel that his money is perfectly safe, provided only that the bonds are recommended to him by a banking-house which is responsible.

Many banking-houses are known as "specialists in municipals." Such firms have built up a corps of experts upon whose advice they rely in making purchases which they can recommend to investors. Let us see just what such a house would do for the man who insisted upon more than 4 per cent. on his investment, provided that he could obtain such security as a well-chosen municipal has to offer.

#### THE BANKER'S SERVICE.

To him the banker might say: "Here is the bond of a Western city of 50,000 population. The interest and principal of this bond will be paid directly out of the city's

taxes. If any property-holder refuses to pay his tax, his land will be sold by the city and its taxes deducted before any private mortgages can be paid from the proceeds of the sale of the property.

"The city is not a 'boom' town, nor is it dependent on a single industry. It is a sound and thriving center of agriculture and manufacture.

"Finally, we have employed lawyers of eminence in this special field of research to look into the city's debt limit. It is provided by the State in which this city is situated that no municipality may enter into a debt greater than 7 per cent. of its property value as determined by its assessors. Our lawyers inform us that even with this new issue of bonds the city is well within its 7 per cent. limit, and that no legal tangles may be anticipated which will prevent the principal and interest of these bonds being paid when due."

The value of this service to the investor is explained by M. K. Baker, writing on "Municipal Bonds," in the *Ticker Magazine*:

To supply the demand for expert opinion and for facilities to handle securities in large amounts the modern bond-house has sprung up, acting as intermediary between the "producer" and "consumer," and giving the municipality the benefit of its ability to take up and pay for large amounts at one time in order that it may have immediate use of the money, and giving to the investor the benefit of its investigation of the credit of the municipality and the regularity of the issue.

### HIGH INCOME WITH PEACE OF MIND.

HERE is the question before the average investor who has wisely decided against industrial bonds, no matter how cheap they seem, and has turned to the rails instead:

"Which railroads have the best credit?"

Just now the answer to this question is worth money to those investors who must have peace of mind, together with the largest possible income per year. The railroads are bidding high for money this spring. This means that railroad bonds are cheap. Some of the roads, moreover, are absolutely trusted to pay up what they owe, interest and principal, the day it is due. This means that there is now a chance to get unusually high income on an investment made under the most expert advice,—a purchase that does not need to be watched.

To find these railroads of high credit and to buy their bonds now, while prices are marked down all along the line, is the ambition of prudent investors, large and small,—the laborer, hunting higher interest for his hoard now in the savings banks; the woman dependent on her income, and ignorant of financial details; the retired business man.

To these, and all the other possessors of money who wish to invest it safely, the list of railroads given below is very significant. These roads are picked out by a writer in the *World's Work* as "perhaps 'the select list' of our American rails." He believes that "to them the conservative investor may turn with perfect confidence that their bonds will give him ample security for principal and interest."



What bond, of each railroad in the list, will give an investor the best net revenue for a ten-year period or longer? Which one, or two, of the bonds picked out will be most satisfactory? These are the questions that the average investor will want answered. By way of definite information, the best-paying (long term) bond of each road is indicated below, with the rate of interest to be gained by buying it at about the present prices, and holding it until it is paid off:

Road.	Bond.	Rate.		Yield.	
		Per ct.	Per ct.	Per ct.	Per ct.
Pennsylvania....	Long Island ref., 1949....	4	4.80		
New Haven....	Debenture, convertible....	6	5.00		
Lake Shore....	N. Y. C. equip., 1918, etc....	5	5.10		
Northwestern....	Debenture, 1921....	5	4.90		
Great Northern....	C., B. & Q. Coll., 1921....	4	4.80		
Illinois Central....	Coll. trust, 1952....	4	4.30		
Burlington....	Iowa Div., s. f., 1910....	5	4.80		

The author could have added point to his approval of these roads if he had stated the number of consecutive years during which each of them has paid dividends on its common stock. The list would have read as follows: The Pennsylvania, forty-eight years; the New Haven, thirty-six years; the Lake Shore, thirty-seven years (excepting only the two years of 1885-6); the Northwestern, thirty years; the Great Northern, eighteen years; the Illinois Central, forty-three years; the Burlington, thirty-five years.

This is a very reassuring condition to the prospective bondholder. Railroads which have been able to take care of their stockholders during one panic after another may well be trusted to pay the interest on their debts, which, of course, must be satisfied before any stock dividends are paid. And it is worthy of note that even the present severe losses in railroad earnings all over the country are not expected to affect even the dividends on any of these roads, except to reduce them possibly in two or three cases.

The author of the list given above prefers the second and third bonds mentioned, for the average investor. He says "the reason why these are probably the cheapest of the list is found in the fact that both issues were 'emergency issues,'—that is, were put out during the present stringency. Probably, when times come back to normal, these two bonds will be hard to buy at their present prices."

After learning how high is the credit of railroads such as these, after being told that their direct obligations can be bought to yield as much as 5 per cent., there is little excuse for the investor dependent upon income, and the one who should consider safety first of all, to risk or lose his money. Particularly is this the case where only a small sum is in question.

How unreasonable is the owner of a few thousand dollars who takes a risk, by lending his money on poor credit, for the sake of getting 6 per cent. or 7 per cent., when the obligations of the American railroads of highest credit are paying 5 per cent. on sums as small as \$1000! The difference on such a sum is only \$10. or \$20 a year, not nearly enough to compensate for the loss of the investor's peace of mind, to say nothing of the possible loss of the \$1000.

#### "CONVERTIBLES" AND "DEBENTURES."

Two of the issues mentioned in the foregoing list are really not "bonds" at all as a great many people understand the word. We refer to the New Haven convertibles and the Northwestern debentures. These particular issues are very desirable and high-class investments, and yet "debentures" and "convertibles" in general do not carry out the popular idea that a "bond" must be secured by a mortgage or lien on something or other. Debentures and convertibles are practically the *notes*, or *promises to pay*, of the corporation issuing them. Thus, their value and their market price will be high only if the issuing corporations enjoy the highest credit, as is the case with the two issues in question.

Some debentures, however, are protected by an agreement with a trustee into which the railroad company has entered. This is of value to the buyer of a debenture, because it usually provides that the trustee shall certify the bonds, and thus keep their number down to the authorized amount.

Another advantage of a trust agreement is found by "Financier" in the *North American Review*, "in the fact that, in case of violation of any of the covenants by the railroad, the trustee, as a representative of the bondholders, is in a position to take whatever steps may be proper to protect their interests."

While debenture bonds are not secured by a lien on any specific property of the company, there is frequently inserted in the indenture, covering the rights of the bondholders, a provision that, so long as any of the debenture bonds are outstanding and unpaid, the railroad company will not make any new mortgage upon its railroad without also thereby including therein every bond issued under the indenture equally and ratably with other bonds issued under and secured by any such mortgage. The Lake Shore & Michigan Southern Railway Company has two issues of debentures outstanding, and in each instance the indenture provides against further issues of mortgage bonds without including the outstanding debentures.

With the "convertible" bond, likewise, there is a fundamental difference from a promissory note, in that the bond may be converted by its owners into the issuing company's stock. Good convertibles thus are to be recommended particularly at times like the present, when the stocks of important railroads are selling at very low prices, because the rise in value which the stocks are expected to show, with the approach of better times, will produce a proportionate rise in value on the part of the bonds which may be converted into said stock. The convertible bond, of course, may not rise as much as the stock, but it has the advantage of being a promise to pay a certain sum at a certain time, and thus is safer. The stock of a railroad might sink to a fraction of its par value while the convertibles remained high.

The terms upon which the bonds may be converted into stock vary greatly. Some bonds are convertible into stock at par. Others are exchangeable for stock below par, and still others for stock above par. The Pennsylvania Railroad convertible  $3\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. bonds of 1915 are convertible into stock at 150 per cent. of their par value,—that is, bonds to the face value of \$15,000 are convertible into stock to the face value of \$10,000. The Union Pacific 4 per cent. convertibles are exchangeable for common stock of the company at \$175 per share; expressed differently, the bonds represent a "call" upon Union Pacific common at 175.

If convertible bonds are purchased at a quotation under par, it follows that they represent a call upon the stock at a price below the exchange rate named in the bond.

Most convertible bonds may be called for payment by the issuing company upon giving proper notice. The price at which they are redeemable is, however, usually well above the issue price, and an opportunity is always to be given to the holder to convert his bonds into stock prior to the date on which they are to be redeemed, should he so elect.

The period during which the bonds are convertible may be deferred for several years after the date of issue of the bonds, or may be limited to a portion only of their term.

An additional security has been given to some convertibles by an agreement similar to the case of some debentures,—namely, that the issuing roads shall not place any new mortgage on its property without including the convertibles. The Atchison convertible 4 per cents. of 1955 and 5 per cents. of 1917 are protected in this way.

The purchaser of a debenture or of a convertible bond, however, must remember that in general he is buying a promissory note, either unsecured or without security equal to that of a mortgage on some particular property. This narrows the desirable investment in these two classes to roads of the best possible credit, such as those already recommended in these pages.

## CALCULATING THE BUSINESS DEPRESSION.

AMERICA is doing less business this year than last. But in many cases the commercial reports and other arithmetical estimates of the present depression look worse than they are, because the custom is to compare them with the corresponding figures of a year ago. Now, it must be remembered that a year ago America was running full blast in almost every department. A slow-down had to come.

THE "INDEX NUMBER" IS LOW.

Take the case of commodity prices: *Bradstreet's* shows each month an "index number," which represents the prices per pound of different groups of commodities, such as breadstuffs, live stock, provisions, fruits, building materials, metals, etc. These prices, averaged into this "index number," mark very accurately the changes in trade, industry, and demand. Now, to read that the "index number" for March 1, 1908, was

\$7.9862, whereas a year before that date it was \$9.1293, undoubtedly shows that prices are being cut right down the line. But it is not so alarming when one considers that the prices for March 1, 1907, were the highest on record.

BANK CLEARINGS LESS BY ONE-SIXTH OR MORE. •

The total value of the checks exchanged at all American clearing-houses would seem at first sight to have fallen off a third from last year, but there is a more cheerful view to take. It will be found that the decrease in New York City clearings are much heavier than for any other section of the country. Now, a large part of this decrease may be traced to the fact that last spring was a time of tremendous activity on the New York stock market. Brokers' checks for large amounts, representing the purchase and sale of stocks and bonds, were actively circulat-

ing, whereas during the past few months the stock market has shown abnormal dullness. It is therefore significant to see that the average decrease in all sections of the country *with the exception of New York City* has only been about 15 per cent. this year. Thus it may well be true that actual trade and industry have fallen off not one-third, but only about one-sixth.

#### TOO MUCH MONEY IN THE BANKS.

Money is piling up in the New York banks, and is expected to accumulate even more. This is both a good and a bad sign. It shows confidence in the banks, but it also indicates the withdrawal of capital from active business. Men are out of work who would like to exchange their services for some of that money; merchants have goods stored that they would like to sell in order to open their shutdown plants and manufacture more goods.

A further concentration of money in New York is prophesied by the London *Statist*, which believes that America may soon ship back some of the gold it borrowed from Europe during the panic.

What the New York banks are doing is being effected in a still greater degree by the other banks of the country, and if trade remains very depressed, and the demand for cash is unusually small, we shall probably witness a great reduction in the amount of national bank notes in circulation. But notwithstanding the reduction in the amount of circulating medium that will be effected by the repayment of deposits to the Treasury and the restriction of the note circulation, money is expected to become so plentiful that gold shipments to this side (Europe) may result.

A reference to the *Statist* in these pages last month misquoted that publication in the matter of the world's gold supply. The production, as actually calculated by the *Statist*, is now \$7,500,000 per week, or about \$390,000,000 annually.

#### MORE IRON AND STEEL ORDERS.

The iron and steel market has been gradually improving since January. *Dun's Review* says that "no large contracts are noted in any department, but small orders appear constantly, and as the season advances more interest is shown in structural shapes. The best business, however, is in farm supplies and material for canners. More tin-plate mills resume each week, shipments increase steadily, and specifications on old contracts are no longer held up."

#### A HARD TIME FOR THE RAILROADS.

The most disconcerting trade reports are those of railroad earnings. They are steadily falling off, in spite of the fact that they are compared with figures for the late winter of 1907, which themselves were somewhat disappointing, owing to severe weather and hindrance to traffic.

The gross earnings for the month of February were about 10 per cent. less than last year. The first week in March showed a further decrease to about 12½ per cent. *Bradstreet's* says that "the present tendency of these data resembles in many ways the trend displayed in 1894, except that losses thus far recorded are not so heavy as the maximum decreases noted in that year of hard times."

### THE PROBLEM OF RAILROAD STOCKS.

WHEN two busy Americans meet, after they have discussed politics and personalities, one is pretty sure to ask the other: "Which railroad stocks do you like best?"

Now that shares in important railroads are selling for half of last year's prices, many people are tempted to invest, even if it is only a few hundred dollars. The first consideration in this case should be the risk. The buyer of a few shares of railroad stock becomes a partner in a strenuous business; yet he has practically no control over it. Even if his business can stand its inevitable losses during the present business depression, it may be radically hurt by State or federal prosecution for past misconduct. Such dangers cannot be estimated by reading the statistics of the road's success in former years.

If this situation is fully realized by the hopeful investor, if his purchase represents money not needed for income, some or all of which may be lost without embarrassing him, then he may well consult with his banker as to the best stocks at the present low figures.

Many students of values and of the market believe that prices of good stocks will not go, or will not stay, much lower than they are now. The financial editor of *Leslie's Weekly* writes as follows:

Recalling, as I vividly do, the happenings of three great Wall Street and business panics, I do not forget that the lesson each one has successively impressed upon my mind has been that the time to buy stocks to the best advantage is when every one else seems most eager to sell. I do not say that prices are lower to-day in every instance than they will be in a month, three months, or a year from now; but I believe, regardless of the immediate future, that the investor with money who buys conservatively and cautiously will have no reason, with due patience, to regret his action in due time, and that may be before the close of the current year.

#### MR. MUNSEY IS CONFIDENT.

One of the few people whose price-predictions are both available and interesting is Mr. Frank Munsey. In his own magazine he writes: "That the trend of prices is upward, and has been upward for the last two months, is certain. And that this improvement will go on until higher levels are reached seems equally certain to me."

This lull in the shipment of goods, the closing down of certain factories, the special inactivity in the building trade, and the practical cessation of extensions and repairs on the part of railroads, naturally and unavoidably make a big reduction in the freight business of the country.

But the movement of merchandise will start up in another month or so, and from that time on there will be increased activity on the part of all the transportation companies, the railroads, and the steamship-lines.

#### WHICH RAILROADS ARE ECONOMIZING?

The man who decides to buy railroad stock, at a time of business contraction like the present, will do well to pick out those roads which show a capacity for living off their own fat. These are the roads whose rails and engines and cars are so new or so well repaired that expenses for "maintenance" can be cut to a minimum, and whose managements are equal to the problem of economizing.

A loss in "gross" or total earnings, as reported monthly to the newspapers, is to be expected this year. It usually means that less traffic exists in the railroad's territory. But when the "net" earnings shrink in much greater proportion than the gross, then is the time to be suspicious of the road's physical condition and its operating efficiency.

Some roads, although excellently maintained and managed, are still losing their net earnings more than is pleasant to contemplate. In such cases it is often found that reduction of rates and increase of taxes have been forced by local legislatures. This is the case with the Louisville & Nashville, a splendidly conducted railroad. During Janu-

ary, while its gross income fell off only 19 per cent., its net income shrunk 59.3 per cent., more than half.

But in general, when the figures show that it is costing a certain railroad very much more this year to earn every dollar, in spite of the fact that there are fewer dollars for it to earn, conclusions may be drawn unfavorable to that railroad.

The Erie, for example, a road of many troubles, showed for January a loss in gross of only 13.6 per cent., less than one-seventh, whereas its net income decreased more than three-quarters!

The stronger railroads made a much better performance. The Union Pacific, the Pennsylvania, the Atchison, although they had as much less business to handle as the average, lost only from a quarter to a third of the net earnings they enjoyed last year. The Reading, an admirably operated railroad, actually lost a smaller per cent. in net than it did in gross.

The figures above are taken from the *Wall Street Journal*, which comments on the situation as follows: "The internal troubles of the railroads, due chiefly to higher wage schedules accompanying shorter working days and the advance in the cost of some of the principal supplies, are responsible for the great disparity between the decrease in gross and the much larger decrease in net."

#### VALUE OF THE ANNUAL REPORT.

Admiration of the annual reports of American railroads, coming from an expert and disinterested source, is comforting to investors. An engineering correspondent of the London *Statist* comments on the wealth of useful details which the stockholder of an American railroad finds in its report. He mentions particularly the Union Pacific and the Illinois Central. He is especially impressed by the minute particulars under the heading of "Equipment," which enable the stockholder to get an idea of the physical condition of the railroad's engines and cars.

After listening to so many attacks on American railroad conduct, after hearing that "they do these things so much better abroad," one feels relieved to read in this authoritative English financial journal that "if the railway companies in this country (England) were to publish equally detailed particulars of their operating and of their construction departments in such a form as to make comparison easy it would produce a very great stimulus toward efficiency."

## THE NEW BOOKS.

### NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

#### AMERICAN POLITICS AND HISTORY.

Mr. Leslie M. Shaw, who retired last year from the high office of Secretary of the Treasury, after a service of five years in Mr. Roosevelt's cabinet, possesses beyond almost any other of our public men the gift of lucid exposition. He can state dry problems of coinage, currency, banking, tariff, or other matters of statecraft in a way that holds the attention and reaches the conviction of the average citizen. His public utterances have been many and valuable. It is highly appropriate that a collection of them should be put into accessible form for the general reader. The present volume,—"Current Issues" (Appletons),—is well arranged, and its topics have to do with many of the questions that will be most discussed during this political year. The greater part of the book, however, is made up of material in the field in which a Secretary of the Treasury would be expected to spend most of his efforts. Some of the miscellaneous speeches included in the volume are full of Mr. Shaw's terse and witty observations upon life and men, and the book as a whole is well indexed.

More than twenty years have passed since the death of Samuel J. Tilden, a man who once received a large majority of the popular vote for President of the United States and who was and is believed by thousands of Americans to have been fairly and legally elected to that high office. In the appearance of his "Letters and Literary Memorials" (Harpers) at this time there can certainly be no suspicion of undue haste on the part of his literary executor, Mr. John Bigelow. The present volumes admirably supplement the "Speeches and Writings" of Mr. Tilden, which were published during his lifetime, also under the editorship of Mr. Bigelow, and at the same time throw additional light on many of the chapters in the authorized biography of Tilden by the same writer. The letters, now published in full for the first time, cover a long period of American political history, beginning with the administration of Van Buren and ending with that of Cleveland. In all these years Mr. Tilden was high in the councils of the Democratic party. After his election as Governor of New York and his brilliant reform record in that office, especially in connection with the administration of the State canals, Mr. Tilden became the national leader of the party and its standard-bearer in 1876. His correspondence with politicians and statesmen throughout the country was carefully preserved, and as now published it forms a most interesting record of political history. But hardly less interesting than Mr. Tilden's own career is that of the friend and literary associate to whom he intrusted the task of editing these letters and who has now so satisfactorily completed the work in the ninety-first year of his age. Something is told of Mr. Bigelow and his activities



JOHN R. SPEARS.

as author, journalist, and diplomat on another page of this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS. As an editor of memoirs his record is unique.

Simultaneously with the increased interest in American naval affairs stimulated by the great cruise of this year appears an excellent short history of the United States navy, by John R. Spears (Scribners). This is more than a mere abridgment of the author's earlier work, since it contains the freshest information regarding our ships-of-war, in the building and equipment of which unusual progress has been made within the past ten years. The book as it stands is the best single-volume summary of American naval history that has yet been written.

In the rather ambitious series of historical volumes which the Harpers are bringing out under the general title "The American Nation: A History" (under the general editorship of Albert Bushnell Hart), Prof. John Holladay Latané, of the chair of history in Washington and Lee University, contributes volume XXV,—"America as a World Power, 1897 to 1907." This is the last volume in the narrative text of the series, the two following volumes being Professor Hart's own book on national ideals, and the index. The main field of Professor Latané's volume is the Spanish War of '98 and its consequent influences on the spirit and policy of the American people. The work also, however, includes a treatment of other administrative and economic questions. It really rounds out





JOHN H. LATANÉ.

the political and particularly the diplomatic history of the past half century in the United States. Aiming as he does at an exclusively objective treatment, Professor Latané has succeeded admirably in telling the story without prejudice on the questions which have been only recently settled or which still press for settlement. Just what the Spanish War meant to the American people, how it brought the United States out among the great world powers and gave to the American nation a new set of interests and purposes,—these are the themes which Professor Latané elaborates with historical accuracy and illumines with his attractive style.

It was well worth while for Thomas Nelson Page to apply his facile pen and nourishing style to the fascinating subject of old Virginia. One of the most interesting histories of exploration and colonial times is his book, "The Old Dominion, Her Making and Her Manners" (Scribner), including as it does not only the history and development of the State, but a description of the men and the women and the manners and the customs that grew up in it.

#### OBSERVATIONS IN THE ORIENT.

With a simple directness and most admirable lucidity of style the Earl of Cromer gives us in a two-volume account of his stewardship in Egypt ("Modern Egypt,"—Macmillan) (1) "an accurate narrative of some of the principle events which have occurred in Egypt and in the Sudan since 1876," and (2) the results which have accrued to Egypt from the British occupation of the country in 1882. While, says Lord Cromer, Egypt is not the only country in which a European civilization has "in a greater or less degree been grafted on a backward Eastern government and society," nevertheless "no counterpart can be found to the special circumstances which have attended the work of Egyptian reform." For one alien race (the English)

to control and guide a second alien race (the Turks), by whom they are disliked, in the government of a third race (the Egyptians), in the face of the suspicion, not to say hostility, of the rest of Europe, and to do this successfully, has been and is to-day one of the great triumphs of the English-speaking peoples. Lord Cromer's story deals with the entire political, economic, and social history of European influence in Egypt, beginning with the famous Goschen mission in November, 1876, and ending with his own retirement and the succession (on May 6, 1907) of Sir Eldon Gorst. Particularly, in fact absorbingly, interesting is the great English consul's account of the troubles in the Eastern



LORD CROMER.

Sudan in the early '80's of the past century and the mission and final tragic death of General "Chinese" Gordon. Although yielding a full meed of praise to the heroic Gordon for his devotion and self-sacrifice, the Earl of Cromer remarks that, in spite of Gordon's high qualities, "I do not think that a man of his peculiar character was a proper person to send on such an extremely difficult mission as that of arranging for the evacuation of the Sudan." Gordon was too impulsive and emotional, is his verdict. The chapters dealing with the financial and economic reforms in Egypt are most interesting, and the whole is one of the most noteworthy historical works of the past decade.

In "The Coming Struggle in Eastern Asia" (Macmillan) Mr. B. L. Putnam-Weale completes the series of four works on the Far East which he has issued during the past five years, all of them based on much travel and wide personal observation in Japan, China, Manchuria, and Siberia. The preceding works, which, it will be remembered, were noticed more or less at length in these pages, were: "Manchu and Muscovite," "The Reshaping of the Far East,"

and "The Truce in the East and Its Aftermath." The first mentioned, which appeared in 1903, gave the author's summing-up of opinion of the results of the Russian occupation of Manchuria. In this first of the series Mr. Weale warmly commended Japan's Manchurian policy as he then saw it. In the second work, "The Reshaping of the Far East," written toward the close of 1904, a later verdict was given with a description of the condition of things in China, Japan, and Korea, the writer in his preface (to quote his own words) "being compelled to qualify his former approval of the policy of Japan and to point out that in Korea at least there has been a grievous disappointment." In "The Truce in the East and Its Aftermath" Mr. Weale discussed the peace negotiations leading up to the treaty of Portsmouth, and gave it as his opinion that "the aims and ideals of the Japanese Government had developed in a direction entirely different from that which had been anticipated." He consequently concluded that the renewal of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance, "in a more comprehensive form than the original, was a political error of the first magnitude." The last volume, "The Coming Struggle in Eastern Asia," contains the author's "careful reevaluation of the old forces in the Far Eastern situation as they displayed themselves during the first half of the year 1907." The author's final verdict is that "it is oligarchic Japan which constitutes the new problem in Eastern Asia." This last volume is copiously illustrated and provided with maps and diagrams.

During the summer of 1906 Dr. George Trumbull Ladd, upon the invitation of the Japanese Government, paid a visit to Tokio to lecture in the Japanese capital before the Imperial Educational Society and to give a course on the philosophy of religion at the Imperial University of Kioto. Upon reaching Tokio, however, his entire plan was changed when he received an invitation from Marquis (now Prince) Ito, then Japanese Resident-General in the Korean capital, to visit the Hermit Kingdom and see for himself just what Japanese policy and its execution were doing for the Koreans. The results of his observations are embodied in a volume just brought out by Scribners, entitled "In Korea with Marquis Ito." The volume is divided into two parts,—first, a narrative of personal experiences; second, a critical and historical inquiry. Dr. Ladd's general verdict is that Japanese intentions, and in general her acts in Korea, have not merited the criticism which has been passed upon them in some quarters. She has enormous difficulties to overcome, and in the future "the new, redeemed Korea will have the most friendly relations with Japan, her benefactor as well as her protector."

Sir Hubert Jerningham, formerly Governor of Mauritius and of Trinidad and Tobago, is one of those British administrators who can write as well as govern. In the recently issued volume (Dutton), "From West to East," Sir Hubert describes his travels in Japan, China, and the "southern Far East," giving some vivid descriptions of visits to battlefields of the Russo-Japanese War, and some incisive picturesquely put opinions of Japanese national policies. A number of maps and illustrations completes the volume.



B. L. PUTNAM-WEALE.

In "The Ancient History of China" (Columbia University Press) Dr. Friedrich Hirth has given us a very scholarly study of the Chinese development up to the end of the Chou dynasty. Professor Hirth has the chair of Chinese at Columbia University, and this is not the first of his scholarly writings on Chinese subjects. While not a purely philological work, considerable attention is given in Professor Hirth's pages to the linguistic and cultural development of the Chinese people.

#### STUDIES OF PEOPLES.

An important work, in three volumes, is Mr. Jerome Dowd's study of "The Negro Races" (Macmillan). The first volume, which has already appeared, treats of the life of the most primitive of the black races: the Negritos (pygmies and Hottentots of South Africa), the Nigritians (Ashanties, Dahomans, and Central African blacks), and the Fellatahs (of Central Sudan). The second volume deals with slavery and the slave trade and the modern African labor problem. The third volume will deal with the negroes of East Africa and the negroes of America.

In a volume entitled "Over-Sea Britain" (Dutton) Mr. E. F. Knight, author of "Where Three Empires Meet," has written a very readable descriptive record of the geography, the historical, ethnological, and political development, and the economic resources of the British Empire. A number of very excellent up-to-date maps adds greatly to the value of this volume.

#### TRAVEL AND DESCRIPTION.

Dr. Frederick A. Cook's adventures in exploring Mt. McKinley are graphically described by him in a volume entitled "To the Top of the Continent" (Doubleday, Page & Co.). It will be remembered that in the issue for January, 1907, the REVIEW OF REVIEWS published an article by Professor Parker, who was one of Dr.





DR. FREDERICK A. COOK.

Cook's associates in the last Mt. McKinley expedition, giving some account of the discoveries made by the party in 1906. In the present volume Dr. Cook relates the experiences of the two expeditions, the first in 1903, and the latter in 1906. Needless to say, each of these expeditions accumulated an important stock of knowledge regarding the geography as well as the animal and vegetable life of Arctic regions that had hitherto remained practically unexplored. Dr. Cook and his companions are doubtless entitled to the distinction of being the last of pioneer mountain-climbers, since it is probably true that no other great peak,—at least none of 20,000 feet altitude,—remains unexplored.

The best traditions of British seamanship were maintained by Capt. Joseph Wiggins, whose "Life and Voyages," by Henry Johnson, has just appeared (Dutton). Captain Wiggins was the modern discoverer of the Kara Sea route to Siberia. He was an adventurous explorer.

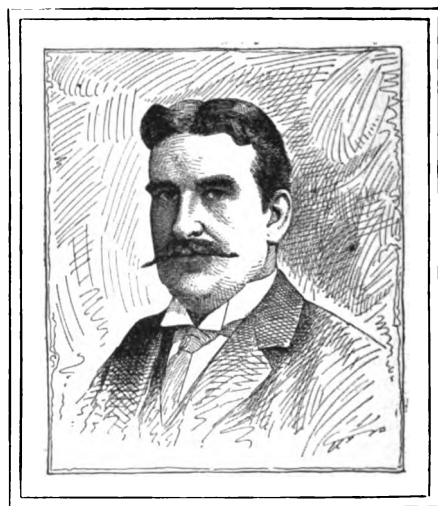
At last we have a thorough and reliable "Guide to the West Indies and Bermudas," by Frederick A. Ober (Dodd, Mead & Co.). A surprising amount of information, historical, descriptive, and statistical, is condensed in this little volume of 500 small pages. From beginning to end of the book there is not the slightest suggestion of "padding." All of the facts stated are pertinent and useful. Considering the greatly increased traffic between the United States and the West Indies since the close of the Spanish War, it seems strange indeed that no comprehensive guide-book of this kind has been published before. It is a boon to winter travelers from "the States," as well as to all Americans, whether travelers or stay-at-homes, who have commercial or other interests in the islands. The book not only describes each island in the archipelago, but gives full information regarding the route thither from the Atlantic ports of the United States, Canada, England,

and Europe. The book is illustrated from photographs. Colored maps are inserted.

#### MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT.

In "The British City" (Scribners) Mr. Frederic C. Howe, while giving full and hearty recognition to the relative superiority of the British to the American city in point of administrative efficiency, does not hesitate to disclose the economic weakness and dependence of the British city-dweller and to suggest a cause. In both countries, according to Mr. Howe's observations, the fight is essentially the same,—that of the masses against special privilege. In both countries democracy is gaining ground. It is as hard for the American to understand the all-pervading land monopoly which oppresses the British community as it is for the Englishman to comprehend the evils of bossism and franchise-grabbing in the American municipality. As in his earlier volume, "The City: the Hope of Democracy," Mr. Howe sounds an optimistic note.

Mr. Robert Donald's "Municipal Year-Book of the United Kingdom" for the current year (London: Edward Lloyd, Ltd.) contains nearly 300 pages more matter than the issue for 1907, especial effort having been made to treat Scottish local government on lines as generous as those hitherto followed in regard to England and Wales. A brief review is given of the



ROBERT DONALD.

work of each local authority in alphabetical order and with the name of the city, town, or district, and wherever possible the statistical and other information is arranged in a series of sections in tabular form. This annual, which has no counterpart in the United States, has become indispensable to the students of English municipal affairs.

Dr. Josiah Strong's little volume entitled "The Challenge of the City" (New York: Young People's Missionary Movement) is attaining a wide circulation in this country. It has been adopted for use in an aggressive campaign by an interdenominational committee rep-

representing seven leading religious denominations. As a solution of the "city problem," so called, which really comprehends the social problem of modern times, Dr. Strong offers the social teachings of Jesus Christ. In this little book he describes certain methods by which these teachings have been practically applied.

#### MEMOIRS OF THE SECOND EMPIRE.

An absorbingly interesting history from the personal-memoir standpoint is the account of the famous *coup d'état* of Napoleon III. in France, which Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have



MONSIEUR CLAUDE.

(Chief of Police of the Second Empire in France.)

brought out under the title "The Memoirs of Monsieur Claude, Chief of Police Under the Second Empire." This volume is a translation and condensation from the original French by Katharine Prescott Wormeley, the original being in ten volumes. This condensed and edited form of the memoirs takes the reader up to the beginning of the Franco-Prussian War. The narrative is told in the simple, direct style of the diary of a simple, direct man of the world who yet has retained something of the *naïveté* of the old-time soldier.

#### BOOKS ON VARIOUS THEMES.

Mr. Frederic J. Stimson, who holds the chair of comparative legislation at Harvard, delivered a course of lectures at Lowell Institute, Boston, in October and November last on "The American Constitution," discussing the rights of the States and popular liberties, as well as the powers of the national Government. These lectures now appear in book form (Scribners). Mr. Stimson vigorously opposes any straining of the national Constitution, especially as regards the



FREDERIC J. STIMSON.

regulation of interstate commerce. One of the lectures is devoted entirely to this phase of the subject. In general, Mr. Stimson's views are conservative and his exposition of the division of power between the States and the federal Government judicious and helpful.

The writings on landscape gardening by the famous English landscape artist, Humphry Repton, have been edited and published in one volume (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), under the title "The Art of Landscape Gardening," the revision and editing being done by John Nolen, of the American Society of Landscape Architects. Repton's contention was that the art of laying out ground is founded, like all other arts, not upon mere caprice and fashion, but upon fixed principles. His ideas and observations, as set forth in this finely printed and illustrated volume, cannot fail to be of value and interest to Americans, who are just beginning to awake to the necessity of ideals in landscape gardening. Repton, it will be remembered, died in 1818.

"Mornings in the College Chapel" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) consists of a second series of addresses to young men on personal religion delivered from time to time by Francis Greenwood Peabody, Plummer professor of Christian morals at Harvard.

A volume of essays on "some of the various principles which underlie the course of the political movements in the present age," by W. M. Flinders Petrie, comes from the press of Putnams under the title "Janus in Modern Life." Dr. Petrie's range of vision and thought-provoking style are evident throughout.

In "The Spinners' Book of Fiction" (Paul Elder & Co.) a number of well-known writers have given us a collection of fine short stories. The work has been brought out under the editorship of the Spinners' Club of San Francisco and the stories are all by writers of Californian reputation. Among others, these well-known

names are represented: Gertrude Atherton, Geraldine Bonner, Mary Halleck Foote, Jack London, Miriam Michelson, Frank Norris, and Herman Whitaker. The volume is pleasingly illustrated in color.

A poetical rendering of the love letters of Abelard and Heloise, by Ella C. Bennett, has been brought out by Paul Elder & Co. In the preface the author says that she has not tried to keep in touch with or in any way follow the originals, "except as to sentiment, upon which thread this rosary of my love letters has been strung."

Three little books in the Music Students' Library, published by Ditson, are: "Outlines of Music History," a concise survey of the entire

field of musical development, by Clarence G. Hamilton; "Counterpoint Simplified," by Francis L. York, M.A., and "Music Club Programs from All Nations," by Arthur Elson, giving a historic outline of each national school of music, with questions for study and a series of specimen programs.

From the same publishing house we have "Songs from the Operas," a volume for soprano, edited by H. E. Krehbiel.

"The Inward Light" (Macmillan), by H. Fielding Hall, consists of a series of essays on religious and metaphysical subjects, chiefly dealing with the philosophical and religious systems of the East. Some of the essays take the form of a story. The style is charming.

## OTHER BOOKS RECEIVED.

- Baccalaureate Addresses. By Arthur T. Hadley. Scribners.
- Baptizing: Biblical and Classical. By Clinton D. Day. Jennings & Graham.
- Better City, The. By Dana W. Bartlett. Neuner Company, Los Angeles.
- Blottentots, The. By John P. Carmel. Paul Elder & Co.
- Brasses of England, The. By Herbert W. Macklin. Dutton.
- Christianity in Japan. By Merriman C. Harris. Jennings & Graham.
- Commonplaces of Vocal Art, The. By Louis A. Russell. Ditson.
- Comradship in Sorrow. By James Stark, D.D. Jennings & Graham.
- Development of Shakespeare as a Dramatist. By Prof. George P. Baker. Macmillan.
- Esperanto in Twenty Lessons. By C. S. Griffin. A. S. Barnes & Co.
- Good Bridge. By Charles S. Street. Dodd, Mead & Co.
- Hoffmann's Meister Martin der Kufner. Edited by Prof. Robert H. Fife, Jr. Holt.
- Home Economics Movement, The. By Isabel Bevier and Susannah Usher. Whitcomb & Barrows, Boston.
- How to Keep Well. By Andrew Willson. Crowell.
- How to Play Chess. By Charlotte B. Rogers. Crowell.
- How to Play Golf. Crowell.
- Huck's Synopsis of the First Three Gospels. By Ross L. Finney. Jennings & Graham.
- Ibsen Secret, The. By Jennette Lee. Putnam.
- Joe Tilden's Recipes for Epicures. A. M. Robertson, San Francisco.
- Kentuckians in History and Literature. By John W. Townsend. Neale.
- Law and the Gospel of Labor, The. By Luther Hess Waring. Neale.
- Lifting the Latch. By Elijah P. Brown. Jennings & Graham.
- Lincoln Year Book, The. By Wallace Rice. A. C. McClurg & Co.
- Literature of Roguery, The. (Two volumes.) By Prof. F. W. Chandler. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
- Living by Natural Law. By John E. Ayer, Seattle, Wash.
- Man and Woman. By William T. Belfield, M.D., Chicago.
- Manners and Social Usages. (Revised.) Harpers.
- Methods in Teaching. By Rosa V. Winterburn. Macmillan.
- Meyer's Der Heilige. Edited by Carl E. Eggert. Holt.
- Money and Prices. By Prof. Edwin W. Kemmerer. Holt.
- Our World. By Maria Remington Hemlup. Hemlup Publishing Company, Geneva, N. Y.
- Philosophy of Life, The. By Charles G. Davis, M.D. D. D. Publishing Company, Chicago.
- Practical Guide for Authors, A. By William S. Booth. Houghton, Mifflin.
- Practical Health. By Leander E. Whipple. Metaphysical Publishing Company, New York.
- Praise of Hypocry, The. By G. T. Knight, D.D. Open Court Publishing Company, Chicago.
- Problem of Life, The. By Albert Denser. Pittsburgh, Pa.
- Proofs of Life After Death. By Robert J. Thompson. Herbert B. Turner & Co., Boston.
- Psychology of Public Speaking, The. By Prof. Walter D. Scott. Pearson Brothers, Philadelphia.
- Raven and the Chariot, The. By Elijah P. Brown. Jennings & Graham.
- Renan's Ma Sœur Henriette. Edited by Prof. William F. Gliese. Holt.
- Retrieval at Panama. By Lindon W. Bates. Technical Literature Company, New York.
- Romeo and Juliet. Edited by Charlotte Porter and Helen A. Clarke. Crowell.
- Short History of the Baptists. By H. C. Vedder. American Baptist Publication Society.
- Side Lights on Christian Science Church Controversy. Frank T. Riley Publishing Company, Kansas City, Mo.
- Social Aspects of Religious Institutions. By Edwin L. Earp. Eaton & Mains.
- Some Little Prayers. By Lucy R. Meyer. Jennings & Graham.
- Some Recent Phases of German Theology. By John L. Nuelsen. Jennings & Graham.
- Spanish Reader, A. By Carlos Bransby. Heath.
- Stories of Bible Victories. By Emma A. Robinson. Jennings & Graham.
- Tangible Tests for a Young Man's Faith. By Albert G. Mackinnon. Jennings & Graham.
- That Blessed Hope. By David Heagle, D.D. American Baptist Publication Society.
- Theoretical System of Karl Marx, The. By Louis B. Roudin. Charles H. Kerr & Company, Chicago.
- Thermodynamics and Chemistry. By Prof. Walter Nernst. Scribners.
- Thoughts on Business. By Waldo P. Warren. Forbes & Co., Chicago.
- Two Dramas and One Story. By Nelson Gardner. Rutherford, N. J.
- Wagnerian Romances, The. By Gertrude Hall. John Lane Company.
- Where Dwells the Soul Serene. By Stanton D. Kirkham. Paul Elder & Co.

# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

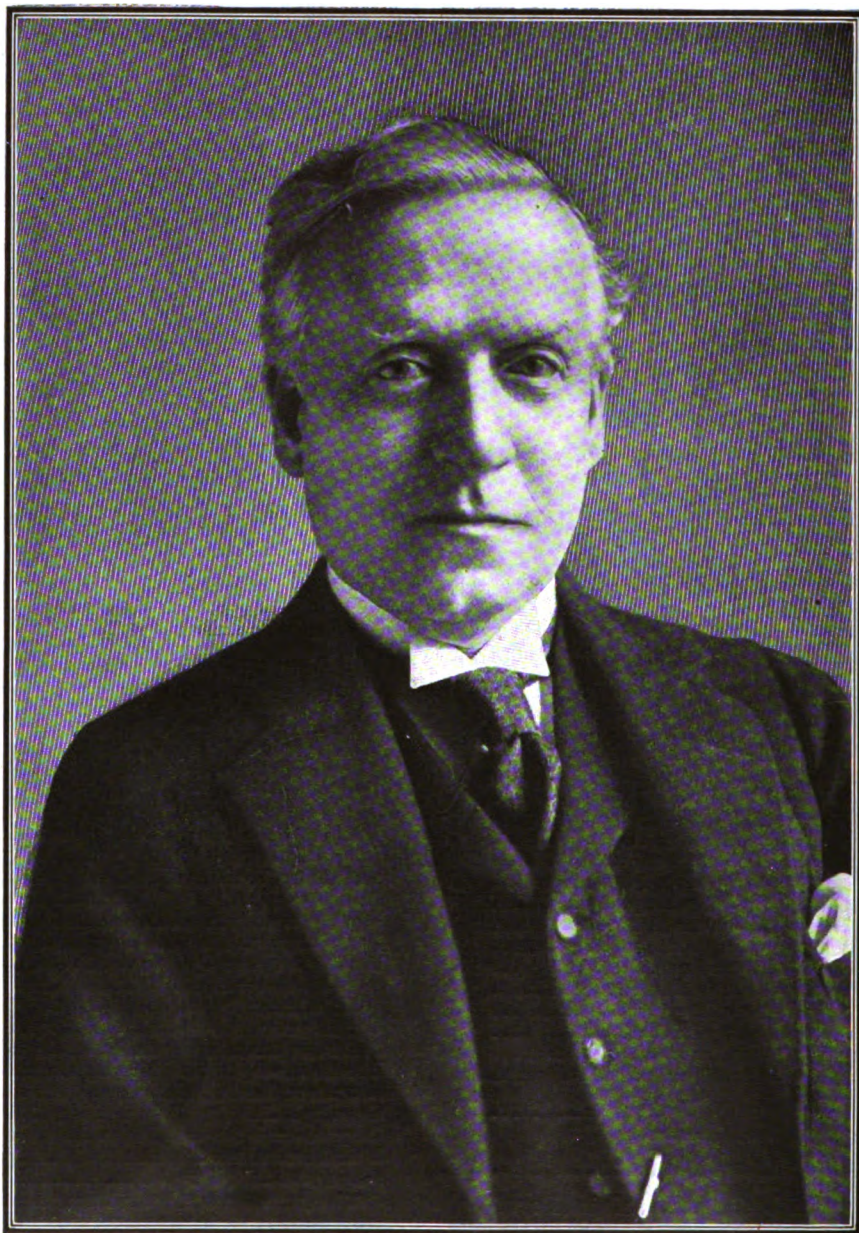
EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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RT. HON. HERBERT HENRY ASQUITH, THE NEW BRITISH PREMIER.

(The new hand at the helm of state in Great Britain is that of a lawyer, the first since the days of Pitt. Mr. Asquith is the twenty-sixth Premier since the beginning of the nineteenth century. He is a Yorkshireman by birth, in his fifty-sixth year, an Oxford scholar, of whom Dr. Jowett once remarked: "I never knew his equal for trenchancy and force." It is believed that Mr. Asquith, following the precedent set by Sir Robert Peel in 1842 and 1845, will introduce the budget, thus superseding the Chancellor of the Exchequer, as Peel superseded his Chancellor. The problems facing Mr. Asquith are outlined in our editorial pages this month.)

# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

VOL. XXXVII.

NEW YORK, MAY, 1908.

No. 5

## THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*Shall We  
Maintain  
the Navy?*

Nobody in this country wants war, with the possible exception of a few ambitious junior officers and a handful of people who would profit by the sale of military supplies. Since all parties, all classes, all sections, all elements that make up public opinion, are equally in favor of peace among the nations and of the settlement of disputes by diplomacy or by arbitration, it is scarcely worth while to make serious answer to those who claim that they are better friends of peace who favor two new battleships than are they who favor four. If some of the good people who make a shibboleth of the word peace were a little more robust in their intelligence they would not be less useful or influential in the community. The difference between being friends of peace and enemies of peace is by no means so simple and obvious as has been assumed by some of the opponents of the President's naval policy. The public opinion of the world was right when it heartily endorsed the granting of the Nobel Prize to Mr. Roosevelt for his work and influence in behalf of peace. His demand for new ships is also a peace proposal.

*Face the  
Real  
Alternatives.*

Our navy must either be a fighting machine, or else it must consist of a few cruisers and dispatch boats capable of doing errands. Those who are willing to support the policy of the House in voting at this session for two new battleships of the enormous size and power of the *Dreadnought* class are just as much committed to the idea of a modern navy for fighting purposes as are those who support the President in the belief that we ought now to order four new ships of that type. Those who do not believe in an efficient American navy from the standpoint of preparation to meet the emergencies of war should not tolerate for a moment the idea of

constructing any of these new battleships. We should know just where we stand and just what we intend. We should face the real alternatives. Mr. Carnegie is a peace advocate who has the courage of his convictions. He does not in the least believe in the policy of a large and powerful American navy. He would oppose the four big new battleships; and, for exactly the same reasons, he would oppose the two. If he believed in having the two, it would be for reasons which would undoubtedly lead him to accept the President's logic and demand the four. If any fighting machine, then a complete one!

*Let the  
Machinery  
Be Adequate.*

The French company was digging the Panama Canal with very small dredges and steam shovels. We are now working at Panama with an ample number of new machines, many times as powerful and efficient as were those used by the French. If there are reasons for using the new kinds of machinery, it is better to install enough machines promptly, rather than to make the change in a lingering and hesitating fashion. It was not possible at the last Hague Conference to get the nations to entertain the idea of any agreement looking toward the limitation of armaments whether by land or by sea. The only practical suggestion was that of Mr. Roosevelt, who desired to bring about an agreement limiting the size and power of warships. But the idea was rejected. The navies of other nations are in process of reconstruction on the basis of the new type of battleship. We must either cease to be a naval power or we must take and maintain a certain rank among those nations that have strong navies. There is no sense or logic in a drifting, shifting middle course. There are some people who so much dislike the idea of war that the sight of firearms jars upon their sensibilities, and they would prefer to prohibit the manufacture

and sale of gunpowder. Mr. Carnegie does not represent that class. He simply holds that the industrial and geographical position of the United States gives the country such a commanding place of influence and power that no other nation could afford to attack us, while we, on our part, have no reason for aggression. When Mr. Carnegie was manufacturing steel he did not hesitate to do business in a bold, large, efficient manner. He gives some very interesting facts about the way he met business emergencies in an article which appeared in the *Century* magazine for March. When once he had adopted his policy, he was never niggardly in the employment of means to achieve the desired ends. Our only excuse for any battleships at all is to have good ones and enough of them.

*The One  
Thing or  
the Other.*

This country is as much committed to the policy of having a strong navy as a fighting machine as it is committed to the policy of continuing to dig the Panama Canal until the great ditch is finished. We have still a great many individuals in this country who believe that it is a mistake to build the Panama Canal. But they know that we are so committed to it that it would be folly to do the work at Panama in a dawdling, half-hearted fashion. Since we have undertaken the enterprise we must see it through with all due energy. To do otherwise would be a confession before the whole world either of governmental inefficiency or else of a painful lack of financial resources. The question of the navy is one to be dealt with in a similar fashion. We are told in the newspaper reports of the recent Congressional debate that "Mr. Bartholdt opposed any enlargement of the naval program; he believed in the peaceful adjudication by arbitration of all questions of dispute." Everybody knows that Mr. Bartholdt believes in arbitration. But if Mr. Bartholdt believes that building battleships of the large type is likely to prevent the settlement of disputes by arbitration, he should not accept compromises. It is the logic of a man opposed to digging the Panama Canal who on that ground criticises a demand for twenty new dredges, but is willing to vote for ten. We all know in this country that we are in favor of settling international disputes by arbitration. The question between four new battleships and two new battleships has very little to do with the question of war *versus* arbitration. Other

considerations are what have prevailed with the House. The President's sole reason in asking for the four new battleships has been his great desire to maintain peace. He is confident that with the strong navy we shall be able to settle questions on their merits without fighting. To build any ships at all of the new type commits us to the policy of having a fighting navy. It we are to have an efficient navy we must plan for it. Our navy is very expensive in everything else except in the new ships that would keep us in our desired rank five years hence. It is not statesmanship to expend so vast a sum year by year as \$100,000,000 on the navy if, at a given moment, we are not willing to spend a small additional percentage of that amount to keep the fleet itself in its rank for its ultimate purposes. Such a policy is too much like that of a city which maintains a costly fire department but is unwilling to supply it with the proper number of adequate fire engines.

*The Navy  
as a  
Peace Agency.*

The American navy must be regarded as an agency for the promotion of peace at large, as well as for our own protection. No other country is as well fitted just now as our own for helping to maintain the world's order. We ought to have learned something from the expensive mistakes of the past. If we had possessed two or three more battleships ten years ago Admiral Cervera would not have risked Spain's navy in American waters. European naval experts had informed the Spanish Government that we ranked below rather than above Spain in actual naval strength. If our navy had been at the proper stage of development we should have been able to persuade Spain to withdraw from Cuba, and we should have avoided the responsibilities that fell to us with the acquisition of the Philippines. We have assumed a position in the world that it is our plain duty to maintain. It takes several years to build battleships, and the President, better than any one else, is in position to judge of the number of vessels that should be ordered this year. His special message of April 14 was as powerful and convincing a statement as any President has ever made to Congress. There was nothing in it of a sort to irritate the House or to offend Congressional sensibilities. It stated the reasons why we must maintain our naval position, and why, in order not to lose our relative rank, we ought now to provide for four new battleships.



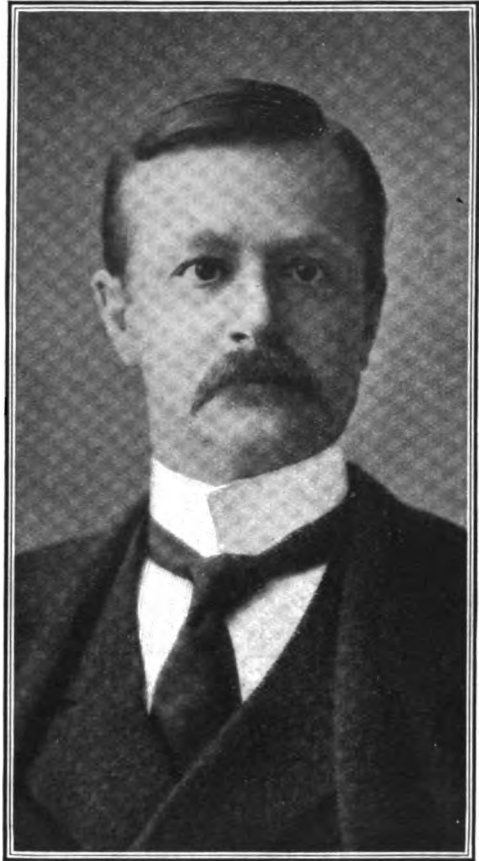
The answer of the House of Representatives was to pass a naval bill providing for two battleships. It is not yet too late for clear-headed citizens who think the President has ample reasons behind his demand, to write letters on the subject to their representatives at Washington.

*The President  
Should Be  
Sustained.*

The outcry against the plan of sending the battleship fleet to the Pacific Coast has entirely disappeared. The President adhered to that plan in the face of the most extravagant denunciation, and the long cruise has already been brilliantly justified by its good results. The lesson to be learned is that while discussion and criticism are always permissible, somebody's lead has to be followed. And the President has shown that in matters of naval policy he is entitled to the country's confidence and respect. There is nothing revolutionary in what he now asks in respect to the new ships. Sooner or later we shall have these vessels, and it is merely a question of beginning the work on some of them next year rather than a year or two later. The President stated his reasons broadly and from the standpoint of ample knowledge.

*Congress  
and Its  
Present Mood.*

The refusal of Congress to grant a request that should have been accepted unanimously does not in this case argue any strength of will or judgment on the part of the House. It is true that we are facing a considerable deficit of public revenue, after a series of years of large surpluses. But there is such a thing as economy in the wrong direction; and the present Congress in any case will not make a reputation for retrenchment. The outlay for free rural delivery will be larger this coming year, by many millions, than ever before. And the chief reason for this increase is to be found in the desire of every Congressman to secure as rapid an extension of the free system in the counties of his district as any other Congressman has been able to secure. Now it happens that Mr. Roosevelt and Postmaster-General Meyer are broadminded and sympathetic, and are quite willing to give the farmers the benefit of every possible convenience as respects the delivery of their mail matter. But it would be only fair if Congress in return would show an intelligent interest in the plans of the Administration to make the free rural service more lucrative and thus to diminish the deficit in the postal revenues.



HON. GEORGE VON L. MEYER.

(Who is making a brilliant record as Postmaster-General, and whose proposals for postal savings-banks and a parcel service in connection with free rural delivery ought to be adopted at this session.)

*Mr. Meyer's  
Postal  
Plans.*

For example, the Postmaster-General has excellent and well-matured plans for postal savings-banks and for profitably utilizing the service of rural delivery for a distribution of parcels. His projects are thoroughly commendable and are of a sort that in any other civilized country would be pushed with sympathy, energy, and statesmanship in the popular house of representatives. But while these plans are receiving encouragement at the Senate end of our national Capitol, they are meeting with stony indifference in the House of Representatives. Much as can be said in favor of free rural delivery, it is scandalously true that the system has been pushed far too rapidly, at unjustifiable expense, and that it will take a good while to reorganize postal work, county by county, throughout

the United States in such a way as to make it really efficient.

Where  
the Money  
Goes.

It will soon be half a century since the outbreak of the Civil War, yet pension appropriations are not diminishing, and the Pension bill for the coming year is increased by a good many millions through the operation of new kinds of pension legislation. Congress, furthermore, has prepared one of its typical "omnibus" public-buildings measures, which will carry a total appropriation of something like \$25,000,000. The real motive of the House of Representatives in refusing to face a matter of large public policy like the navy question on its merits is to be found in the fear that to provide adequately for the defense of the country might imperil the scores of local grabs that are always contained in these scan-

dalous omnibus bills providing for new public buildings in every State of the Union. The House of Representatives contains many excellent and intelligent members, but its mode of doing business has become so mechanical and arbitrary that the House no longer affords a hopeful field for statesmanship, and the individual member is the victim of a resistless system.

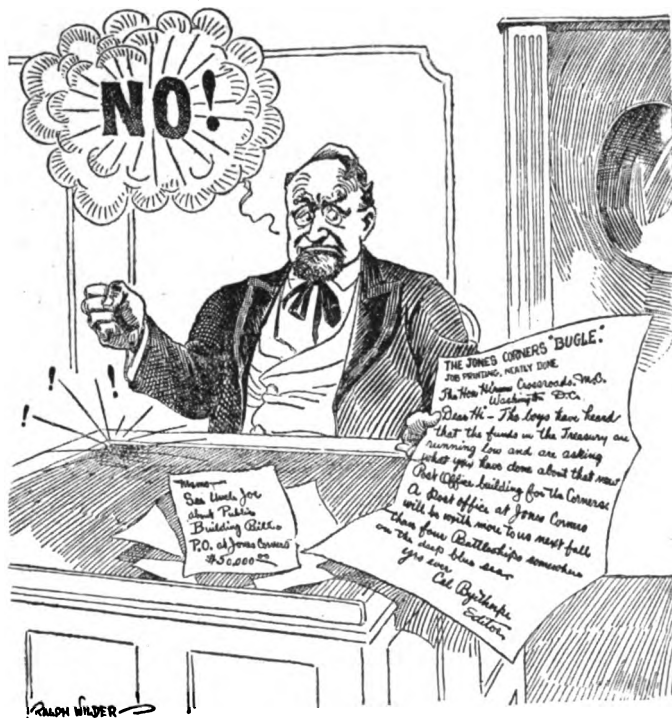
Failure  
of the  
House.

During the present session, with a number of important measures clearly desired by the country, the House has been seemingly in a hopeless and helpless state, with no ambition to do anything except pass the appropriation bills and adjourn. The Aldrich Senate bill for providing additional currency in times of financial stress could not withstand the negative and destructive attitude of the house

over which Speaker Cannon presides. The Aldrich bill doubtless had its serious faults, and it was much changed in the process of making its way through the Senate. But at least it represented an effort to meet the demand of the country for some currency legislation at the present session. In the House of Representatives neither the Aldrich bill nor its Vreeland substitute was thought up to the 20th to have any chance. The only thing that the House seemed able to consider favorably was the appointment of a commission to do the work outside of Congress and to prepare a currency bill. Under the circumstances this may be the best thing to do. Yet the manner in which the House has moved toward such an expedient has been suggestive of anything but energy, efficiency, and statesmanship on the part of that law-making body.

Another  
In-  
stance.

The best opinion of the country has plainly been in favor of relaxing the Sherman Anti-Trust



THE VOTE ON THE FOUR BATTLESHIPS.

The Jones Corners Bugle.  
Job Printing Neatly Done.

The Hon. Hiram Crossroads, M. C., Washington, D. C.

DEAR HI: The boys have heard that the funds in the Treasury are running low, and are asking what you have done about that new post-office building for the Corners. A post-office at Jones Corners will be worth more to us next fall than four battleships somewhere on the deep blue sea.

Yrs ever,

CAL BYETHORPE, Editor

MEMO.:

See Uncle Joe about Public Building bill. P. O. at Jones Corners, \$50,000.

From the Record-Herald (Chicago).

law in such a way as to permit business to be done under modern forms without violation of the statutes. At the same time it is undoubtedly the opinion of the country that there should be greater publicity as regards industrial corporations through the agency of the national Government, and that there should be the beginnings of federal oversight and regulation of interstate commerce as carried on by such corporations. To embody these ideas in a bill is not altogether easy. Such a measure was, however, recently prepared by the National Civic Federation with the encouragement of the commerce committees of the two houses. The measure was drawn up after much consultation and in perfect good faith. Doubtless it had its imperfections, but in its main features it was a fair and practical bill. It was introduced in the House of Representatives by Mr. Hepburn, chairman of the commerce committee, and was referred to the Judiciary Committee. The bill was ably explained and defended by the Hon. Seth Low of New York, president of the National Civic Federation, and by various others whose position was disinterested beyond a doubt. The Administration was openly committed to the bill, as were many leading representatives of business and of labor. But this measure, like everything else, had to face that mood of almost hopeless inability in the House of Representatives to entertain new ideas or to act in any way except negatively.

*The Speaker  
and His  
Power.*

The operation of the present House rules places an enormous responsibility upon the Speaker. Questions and proposals come before him in such bewildering multiplicity that if he were not able to say "no" with promptness and firmness, nothing whatever could be done. Every virtue has its accompanying temptations and faults. The man who is compelled to say "no" ninety-nine times out of a hundred is in great danger of failing to recognize the hundredth instance, where he ought to say "yes." Early in the session the House ought to have agreed, in Republican caucus or otherwise, upon a reasonable program of positive work for the present session. It has fallen far below the country's fair expectation. Its leaders were proposing last month to adjourn on Saturday, May 9, or else one week later. Yet this is the long session of the Sixtieth Congress. The party in power has a clear and large working majority, and to adjourn with a record of nothing accom-



HON. SETH LOW.

(Who is serving the public with great acceptance as head of the National Civic Federation and who is a delegate-at-large from New York to the Republican National Convention.)

plished is a rather inglorious way to make ready for the fall campaign. A policy preliminary to future tariff revision could have been adopted on businesslike lines that would have pleased producers and consumers alike and would have made the position of the Republican platform speaker less difficult in September and October. But the House at the present time seems to be without convictions, and its one absorbing desire is to adjourn and get away from embarrassing questions. Yet there is no escape.

*The  
Opposition's  
Methods.*

When the opposition party in Congress resorts to the tactics of obstruction its object has usually been to prevent the passage of distasteful measures. But last month the country was treated to the spectacle of Democratic filibustering, led by Mr. John Sharp Williams, the minority chief, whose avowed object was not to prevent the majority from jamming objectionable bills to a vote, but rather to compel a reluctant majority to take up those matters of business that had been generally regarded as belonging to the session's program. If Mr. Williams' purpose was to call

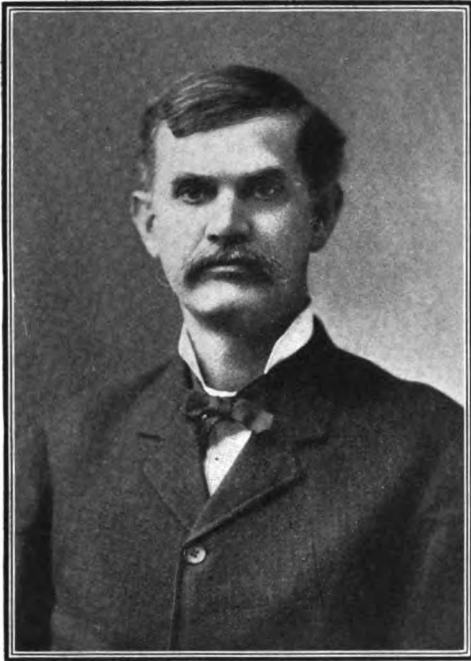


Photo by J. E. Purdy, Boston.

HON. JOHN SHARP WILLIAMS, OF MISSISSIPPI.  
(The minority leader of the House.)

the attention of the country to the cynical mood of the majority, his methods were successful. The present Congress was elected by the country with a clear mandate to support the policies of the President. To adjourn without doing anything, a month or six weeks earlier than Congress usually adjourns in the even years, will have the effect to make it more difficult for the members to mend their political fences at home than they would have found it if they had stayed longer at Washington and returned to their constituents with a better record.

*Theory  
versus  
Practice.*

Theoretically, it is the business of Congress to make the laws and of the Executive Department to administer them. Practically, however, under our system, the President is regarded as the general director of governmental work, and the formulator of policies. However well disposed the members of Congress may be as individuals, the two houses lack initiative and energy in the selection of a program; and they are not wise in failing to co-operate with an Administration as able and strong as the present one, especially where Congress is of the same party complexion as the Administration, and where it has been expressly

elected for the sake of supporting the policies of the Executive. It is not merely a difference between Mr. Roosevelt and certain leading men in the two branches of Congress. Mr. Taft, as Secretary of War, with the whole force of the Administration behind him, has for years been pressing upon Congress certain matters of legislation for the welfare of the Philippines. His proposals have been reasonable, just, and timely. Yet it has never been possible to get really effective co-operation in Congress. Mr. Root, as Secretary of State, with all his tact and moderation, has found it extremely difficult to secure support for measures obviously necessary to the welfare of the country. Our system of government has many merits, and upon the whole it is the best that is to be found among the large nations. It will be a long time before we can make any important changes in the governmental mechanism. The one thing that we can do, meanwhile, is to secure results by bringing the pressure of an intelligent public opinion to bear at the point where such pressure is most needed. There are times when the sentiment of the country needs to converge upon the Administration itself. There are other times when the Senate calls for the stimulus of public criticism. Just now it seems fair to say that the House of Representatives is the part of the governing machine that most requires the notice of the press and the public.

*A  
Shackled  
House.*

It is a matter of the utmost political importance that the Republican party should convince the country of its intention in good faith to revise the tariff. Senator Beveridge has taken the lead for two years in advocating a commission to deal with the industrial facts involved and to shape the case, so to speak. The most feasible proposal is that of a commission of experts to be selected from the Government departments and put at work immediately by the President. The Senate is ready to adopt such a proposal. The ruling coterie of the House is so strongly disinclined to admit the need of change or innovation in any direction that it seems to resent even an allusion to the tariff as a possible subject of discussion. By degrees it has come around to the idea that perhaps the Ways and Means Committee might set some people at work to collect tariff data. But the country expects something more positive and energetic than is implied in this reluctant con-

cession on the part of Messrs. Cannon, Payne, and Dalzell. Anxious as the individual members of the House are for their political salvation in the ordeal of next November, they are collectively too inert and negative just now to do the obvious things that would place them in strong fighting position when they enter the campaign. To have shown that they had already helped in good faith to start the work of tariff revision would be worth to them as a political asset next fall the equivalent of a dozen seats in the House. To have shown that they were capable of acting efficiently with the President in his railroad and economic policies would be worth another dozen seats. They have a more or less clear consciousness that they are the victims of their own system, yet they cannot find a way to unshackle themselves and to lay hold of their proper tasks with energy.

*Our Embassies  
and  
Their Needs.*

If Congress is to provide for a lot of public buildings in the near future, it ought to begin with an appropriation for the permanent and suitable housing of our ambassadors in the capitals to which they are accredited. There has been ample reason for a long time past to make this demand, and it has often been urged upon Congress. But recent occurrences and conditions have strikingly illustrated the need. Until Congress is willing to make such provision, no bill for miscellaneous public buildings here at home should be approved by the Executive. At present there is no standard, whether public or private, upon which an American Ambassador or Minister in a foreign capital may base his expenditures. Each American representative must rent such quarters as he can find or can afford. If he is to live as the representatives of other great nations do in the same capital, he must adopt a standard beyond the possibilities of the salary Congress allows him. If he happens to be a wealthy man, he is likely to accept the view that he must pay out his own money freely for the honor and credit of his country. He finds the salary so inadequate that it affords no criterion whatsoever; and he is in danger of going too far in the expenditure of his own money, in view of the fact that a poor man may be appointed to succeed him. Nobody ever has the slightest occasion to ask whether the British Ambassador at Washington, or Paris, or Berlin has large private means or small. There is an appropriate permanent British embassy, with suitable



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HON. CHARLEMAGNE TOWER, OF PHILADELPHIA.

(Who will retire from his post as Ambassador at Berlin at the end of the present month.)

emoluments and allowances for its maintenance. When Mr. Bryce is made Ambassador at Washington he does not have to hunt the town over to find a house, but follows his predecessor into the well-appointed British embassy, without annoyance or embarrassment of any kind.

*An  
Embarrassing  
Situation.*

But in a given European city, the representative of the United States of America may be found living in a palace and spending a quarter of a million dollars a year, or he may be found

occupying two rooms in a hotel and saving something out of his salary. In either case he feels himself justified; for, since no standard has been set for him, he must be governed by his own circumstances and his own sense of fitness. It is not dignified for American ambassadors or ministers to have no fixed place of abode, so that in a given city a half-dozen Americans succeeding one another will have lived in as many different streets or parts of the town, some in the deepest obscurity and others in a glare of social prominence. Americans are likable and adaptable; and since at European courts they have no real business to transact, and no serious reserve to maintain for reasons of statecraft or diplomacy, they can afford to be affable to an extent quite beyond the rule that must govern the representatives of great European powers. Berlin at best is a rather dull and unexciting place to live in, and it is not strange that Mr. and Mrs. Charlemagne Tower, with ample money to spend, should have been able to make the American embassy a very bright social spot in so somber a general setting. It seems that the German Emperor, who likes American people and American ways, and who also desires that Berlin should become a lively and happy place like Paris and London, has approved greatly of the pleasant social atmosphere that has lately surrounded the American embassy. When, some months ago, it was known that Mr. Tower would resign and return to America this summer, President Roosevelt selected Dr. David Jayne Hill to take his place. The choice was commended everywhere because of its inherent fitness. Dr. Hill was a scholar and a man of affairs to begin with, had served five years as First Assistant Secretary of State, was an authority on international law, and was United States Minister at The Hague, having also been Minister to Switzerland. Dr. and Mrs. Hill were fitted from every possible standpoint to represent the United States officially and socially at Berlin. But, it seems, the Emperor had received the impression that America might lose its relatively brilliant and leading place in the diplomatic life of Berlin unless Mr. Tower stayed on indefinitely or unless some other rich man were appointed to succeed him.

*The Lesson for Congress.* The Emperor is quite right in wanting to have the United States take and keep a prominent place in Berlin. Far from meaning to interfere in our choice of an Ambassador, he

doubtless intended his private suggestions as wholly friendly and complimentary. Dr. Hill is not a poor man and not dependent upon his salary. But he ought not to be put in the embarrassing position of being expected to keep up the expenditure of a multimillionaire. Neither ought President Roosevelt be put in the position of saying that only millionaires could be considered for the Berlin job. The predicament is one for which Congress alone is to blame. Certainly Mr. Tower has not consciously meant to make it difficult for a self-respecting public man to succeed him at Berlin. The upshot of the Emperor's well-intended hints is that the United States ought to have enough respect for Germany to provide as well at Berlin for the American Ambassador as Germany provides at Washington for the able and agreeable diplomats who are sent one after another to represent a great kindred people at our own capital. The accidental and sensational publicity that was given to the subject of the Berlin succession was for a time embarrassing to a number of people. Mr. Tower, will end his mission there a month hence, and Dr. Hill will be given the most cordial and agreeable reception by the Emperor as well as by official and scholarly circles of German society. But the glaring fact will remain that Dr. Hill has to go house-hunting over Berlin, and that he cannot possibly be expected to spend as much money as the Hon. Charlemagne Tower has been easily able to lavish for the credit of the American name. The remedy is perfectly simple. Congress ought to provide a dignified and suitable home for the American embassy in Berlin. The President has suggested that the White House in Washington would be the proper model for a series of American buildings in foreign capitals. National dignity and self-respect require that such provision be made for our representatives abroad that they may live in accordance with a fixed standard, so that a poor man may follow a rich man, or *vice versa*, without occasioning any comment.

*Labor Issues at Washington.*

The passage of the amended Employers' Liability bill can hardly be credited to the House as involving any new effort. The bill was passed with only one dissenting vote, everybody being favorable to it. The original law had been found invalid by the Supreme Court because it did not distinguish between interstate commerce and that which is strictly within the States. The new law attempts

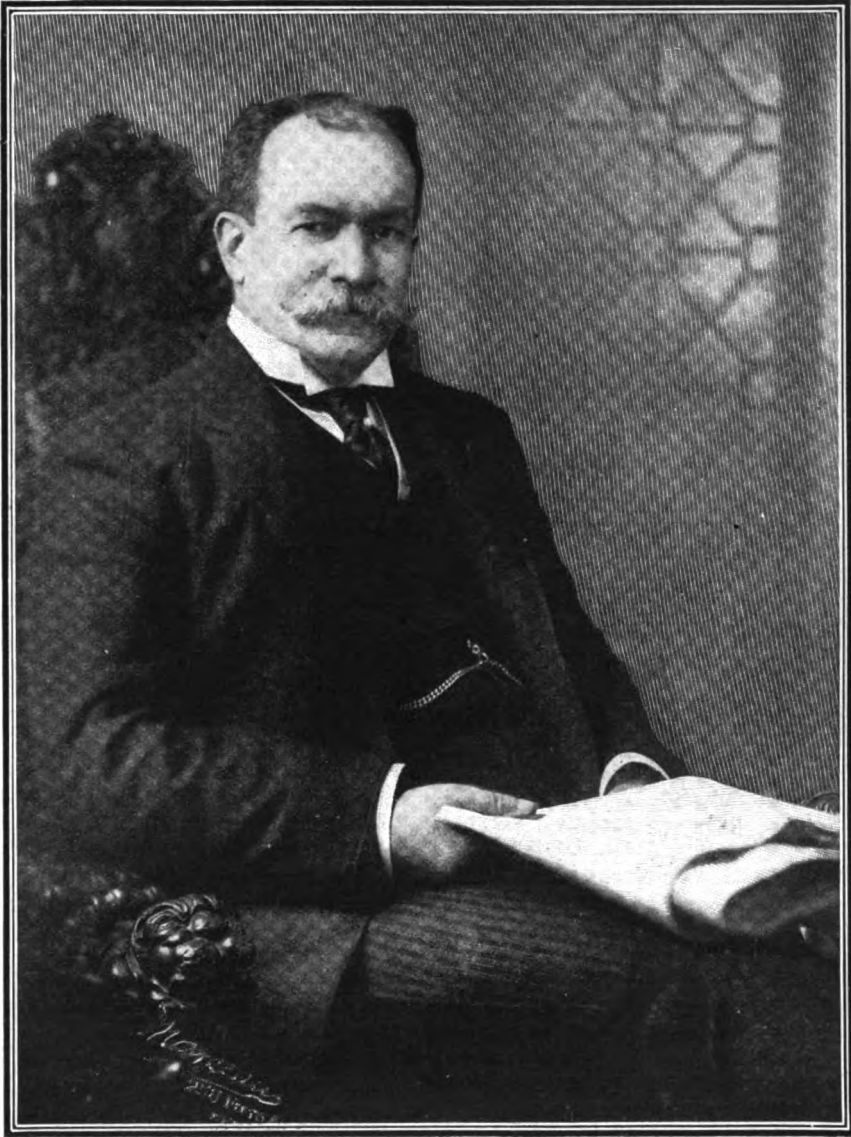


Photo by Marceau, N. Y.

HON. DAVID JAYNE HILL, OF NEW YORK, OUR NEW AMBASSADOR TO GERMANY.

to mark this distinction. Mr. Littlefield, of Maine, who seems always to enjoy the position of one who dissents for conscience sake, still had his constitutional scruples and voted against the bill. Mr. Littlefield is one of the strong men of the House, and it is to be regretted that he has decided not to be a candidate for re-election. In foreign countries the legislation providing for compensation to employees in case of injury is, as a rule, much more specific than in our States, or than under the new legislation of Congress. Generally speaking, the liability of employers in case

of injury or death is so precisely fixed in these foreign laws that no action for recovery of damages is required. The subject is one that is hedged about with many logical difficulties. In the case of organizations so vast and intricate as those of American railroads such a liability law as that which Congress has now enacted in amendment of the law of 1906 is undoubtedly in the right direction. Railroad employment is hazardous, and it is right that the companies should be held liable for injury to their men. When commerce is made a purely federal concern, legislation can be improved.



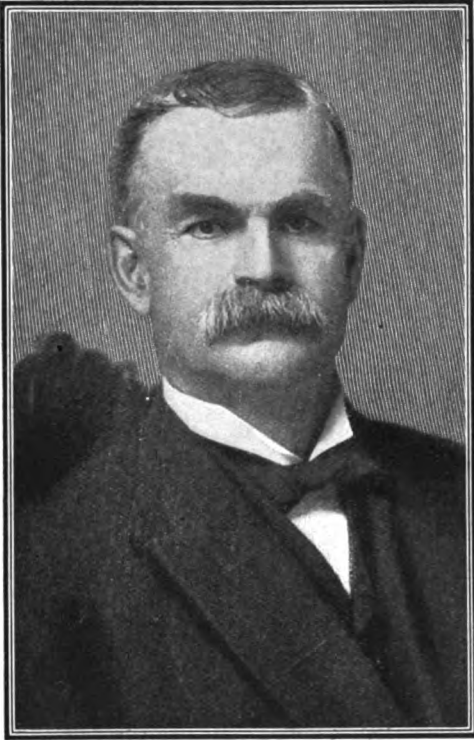


Photo by Pach, N. Y.

HON. CHARLES E. LITTLEFIELD, OF MAINE.

(A strong figure in the House who is to retire at the end of his present term.)

*The  
Influence of  
Labor.*

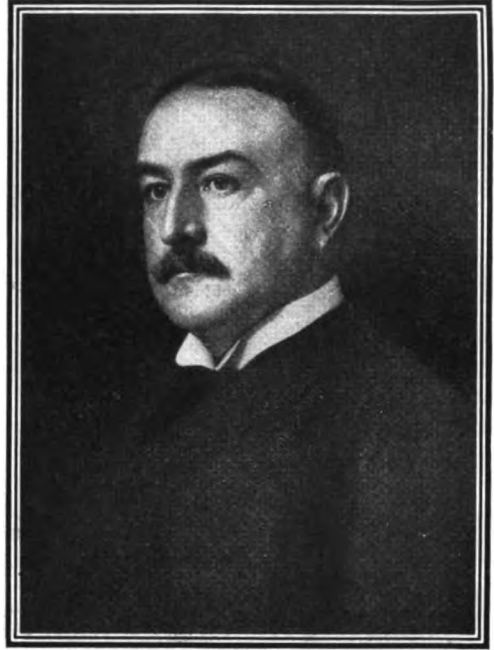
Doubtless the unanimity with which both houses of Congress passed the railroad liability bill was due in no small measure to the thoroughness with which the various groups of railroad men are organized and the united front these brotherhoods have been able to present at Washington in the advocacy of their interests. If they and the officers of the American Federation of Labor cannot in the present session secure the passage of a law to restrict the use of injunctions by the courts, they have at least accomplished much in winning the support of the President; and even without legislation there will be a tendency on the part of the courts to grant injunctions more carefully and in a less arbitrary spirit. The plan of compulsory arbitration in disputes between railroad companies and their employees is often advocated, but even without further legislation our existing law known as the Erdman act, which authorizes the Government to obtain information and offer its conciliatory services, is showing itself very valuable and effective. Thus the Commissioner of Labor, Mr. Neill, and the

other officials named in that act, were able recently to avert what would have been a complete strike on the railroads of the South and Southwest. They brought together in protracted conferences the representatives of the two opposing interests. The railroad companies felt themselves obliged to cut wages on account of financial difficulties due to the falling off of business with no reduction of expenditures. The men, on the other hand, held that so brief a period of business depression did not justify a reduction of wages, especially in view of the fact that wage increases are hard to secure when prosperity returns. The postponement of the crisis was fortunate. It seems to us that the men had the better of the argument. The more probable solution is to be found in the increase of rates on some classes of freight. If the railroads cannot earn enough to meet their expenditures, it may well be better to charge a little more for the services they render than to cut down wages and reduce the consuming power of their employees.

*Saving  
the Nation's  
Resources.*

President Roosevelt has seldom made use of the veto power. Last month, however, he returned to Congress unsigned a bill which extended for several years the time within which a certain power company might avail itself of its grant of the right to build a dam across a river in the Northwest. The President improved the opportunity in a brief message to call the attention of Congress and the country to the reckless way in which, heretofore, valuable public assets have been given away without present or prospective compensation. The whole subject of our national resources, their waste, and the means to be employed for their better use and conservation, has been brought into the first prominence by conditions which can no longer be ignored. President Roosevelt has been the leader in all endeavors to save such resources,—land, forests, minerals, streams, and water-power,—as yet remain within the Government's control, for the best possible future use. To that end he has taken one step after another ever since he came into office. His forestry policy demands the passage of the Appalachian Reserve bill, about which an article was published in this magazine last month. His Waterways Commission is making a comprehensive study of navigable rivers and allied topics. On May 13, at the President's invitation, there will as-

semble at the White House, for a three days' session, a conference on the conservation of the natural resources of the United States. It is to be attended by the Governors of the States, each accompanied by two or three advisers of his own choosing. The Supreme Court, the cabinet, the members of the Sixtieth Congress, the Waterways Commission, and a few others especially interested in the subjects to be discussed at the conference, have also been invited. Several articles in this number of the REVIEW, as well as in the number for last month, will suggest the scope and magnitude of the interests to be discussed. For example, Mr. Mitchell's article in this number, on the "The Waste of Our Natural Resources," contains much that our readers will find to be new and suggestive, while Mr. Edmonds' article upon the country's latent, as well as its developed, assets shows from another standpoint the need for wise administration of interests so gigantic. Mr. Casson's article on farming is also notable.



MR. WILLIAM L. WARD.

(National Committeeman from the State of New York, who goes to Chicago as a Taft delegate.)

*The  
Field of  
Politics.*

As the time for the holding of national political conventions draws near, the Republican situation becomes less problematical, while the Democratic shows some new and dubious features. Well-informed politicians of all parties have now for some time regarded Secretary Taft's nomination as altogether probable. Mr. Taft has not antagonized the supporters of any other candidate, and he is universally respected and admired. It will be very easy, therefore, for the supporters of Governor Hughes, Senator Knox, Vice-President Fairbanks, Speaker Cannon, and Senator La Follette to join with goodwill in making it unanimous just as soon as it is clearly determined that the Secretary is to have a majority of the delegates to the Chicago convention. The New York State convention was controlled by the wing of the party that is regarded as friendly to the Administration. The other wing, which is controlled by Mr. Odell and his political associates, was in a clear minority. It is the Odell wing which has for a long time past identified itself with the movement to secure the nomination for Governor Hughes. It is probable, however, that the other wing, which is certainly very cordial in its feeling toward Secretary Taft, is also the more trustworthy and sincere of the two factions in its espousal of the candidacy of Governor Hughes. As delegates-at-large to the con-

vention at Chicago the New York convention selected Gen. Stewart L. Woodford, who is the head of the Hughes National League; the Hon. Seth Low, also a very active Hughes man; Mr. Edward H. Butler, of the *Buffalo News*, and Mr. Frederick R. Hazard, of Syracuse, who is a close personal friend of the Governor. The New York delegation will not be unanimous, however. The National Committeeman, Mr. William L. Ward, found that the Republicans of Westchester County were strongly for Taft, and he and his associates will go as district delegates instructed for the Secretary. Mr. William Barnes, Jr., who is the local Republican leader at Albany and a force in the politics of the State, has also announced himself as a Taft man. The delegation as a whole will work for Hughes in good faith, but with cordiality toward other candidates.

*Taft in  
East and  
West.*

The Massachusetts convention found harmony by virtue of the most curious resolutions ever adopted in a serious body. These resolutions declare that for the sake of an appearance of unity and harmony the convention will not instruct for any candidate nor express

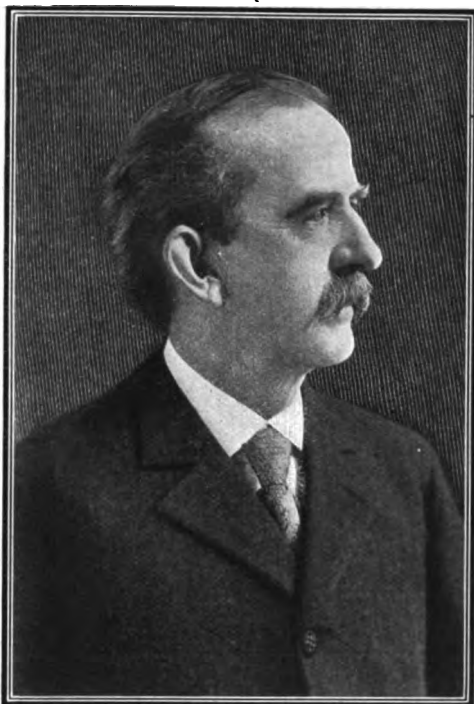


Photo by Harris &amp; Ewing. Washington.

HON. WILLIAM MURRAY CRANE, OF MASSACHUSETTS.

(Who has taken an especially active part in the preliminary politics of a Presidential year.)

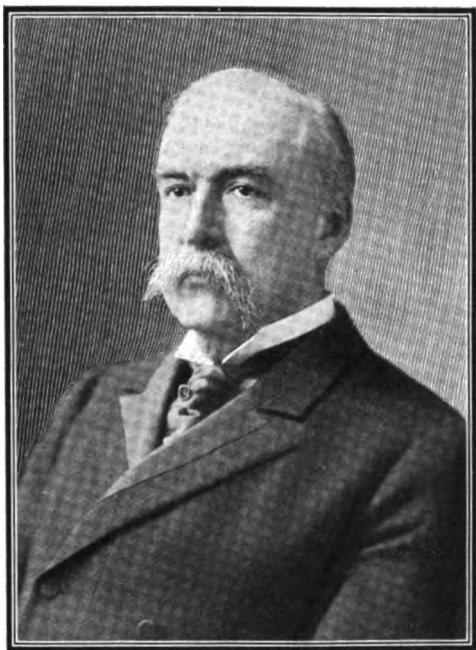
any preferences; but they go on to declare that if an opportunity were afforded the members of this Massachusetts body to express themselves, a majority would undoubtedly be in favor of Secretary Taft. To put it in another way, the Massachusetts Republicans declare, in effect, as follows: "We will not say whom we favor, nor will we give so much as a hint of instruction to our Chicago delegation; but we will candidly admit that if there were any way to find out whom we favor it would be discovered that we favor Secretary Taft. But this, of course, our delegates, being absolutely free and uninstructed, must not be allowed to know." The intellectual and ethical subtleties of Massachusetts politics are more highly developed than the sense of humor. With the exception of the complimentary vote that Indiana, Illinois, and Wisconsin will give to favorite sons, everything west of the Alleghany Mountains is for Taft. The Secretary has been much in evidence before the people, and has been seen and heard, with marked favor, in many places during recent weeks. He is in excellent health.

*The  
Colored  
Vote.*

The negro politicians are trying very hard to keep up their doleful cry, "Remember Brownsville!" Whatever reason they may have had at other times to assert themselves as a race, they are putting themselves sadly in the wrong when they go out of their way to make race issues for no sound reason. The Brownsville affair was a question not of race but of army discipline. When educated negroes throughout the country can so easily be led into false positions, they are giving a poor account of the opportunities they have had. Mr. Taft's work in the Philippines showed him to be a broad-minded humanitarian, superior to all race prejudice. This race sensitiveness on the part of the negroes leads to some curious results. Thus, while the educated negroes all over the country are proclaiming to their race that they must vote the Democratic ticket rather than accept Mr. Taft, it happens that Mr. Robert C. Ogden is serving as president of the Taft League in New York. Yet everywhere in the South Mr. Ogden is always named as the man who is foremost in work for the education and general advancement of the negro race. Of course, when election time comes around, if Taft should be nominated, the Republicans of the Northern States, including negroes, will vote the Republican ticket.

*Dem-  
ocratic  
Discord.*

The Democratic party is incomparably more discordant at the present time than the Republican. When Mr. Bryan returned from his foreign travels in August, 1906, the party leaders from all parts of the country came to New York to do him homage, and the radicals and conservatives alike declared that they would support him for the Presidency in 1908. It is probable that he will secure the nomination at Denver and that he will have the general support of his party. But in various quarters the standards of revolt have been raised. On Jefferson's birthday the National Democratic Club of New York held a banquet to which Mr. Bryan was invited to come but not invited to speak; while all of the speakers, apparently by instruction or common agreement, carefully avoided the mention of Mr. Bryan's name. The Democratic party is much given to fatuous performances of this kind. Of course nothing could have been used more tellingly to advertise the party's chief candidate and leader than this ostrich-like plan of the self-constituted élite of the party to ignore him.



JUDGE GEORGE GRAY, OF DELAWARE.

*New York's  
Bear-  
Garden.*

Later in the month the New York State Democratic convention was run on the bear-garden plan, with large bodies of policemen present to keep the riot from developing into wholesale massacre. The result of the convention was to establish the ascendancy of Mr. Murphy, the head of Tammany Hall, not merely in the metropolis, but throughout the State. Mr. Murphy's chief lieutenant is Mr. Conners, of Buffalo, a politician of like origin and method. The victory of Tammany was marked by the exclusion from the convention of State Senator McCarren, who has heretofore been the leader of the Democracy of Brooklyn. The convention was managed adversely to the interests of Mr. Bryan. Judged by standards of decency, this convention may be said to have marked the lowest ebb that the Democracy of the great State of New York has ever reached. There was a very good fighting chance for Democratic victory in New York this year. But under Murphy's leadership the party's chances are not much better than its deserts.

*Other  
Democratic  
Candidates*

There is undoubtedly a good deal of vigor and earnestness behind the movement for Governor Johnson, who is Minnesota's offering as a substitute for Bryan. The conservative

Democrats of the East are rallying strongly about the name of Judge George Gray, of Delaware, although this admirable public man is unwilling to be a candidate. The Hon. Judson Harmon, of Cincinnati, is the other conservative candidate most frequently mentioned. Mr. Bryan will be nominated, however, unless under the two-thirds rule a strong minority in the convention should force the majority to accept a compromise nominee.

*A Governor  
Who Looms  
Large.*

Ever since his election, in the fall of 1906, the country at large has displayed an unflagging interest in the policies and achievements of Governor Hughes, of New York. Everything that he has done in office, every repulse that he has encountered in his work, every triumph that he has won, has been heralded by the newspapers from Maine to California. Doubtless one reason for this nation-wide interest in a New York Governor's fortunes lay in the fact that this particular Governor was called upon to deal, inside his State jurisdiction, with matters of national importance. Mr. Hughes had come into national prominence through his connection with the exposure of wrongdoing in the great insurance companies, whose policy-holders are to be found in every nook and corner of the United States. By many of these people this clear-headed, resolute, persistent lawyer, whom nobody outside of his own professional circles in New York had ever heard of before, came to be regarded as a deliverer. It is not strange, then, that the nation has watched his gubernatorial career as it watched the record of Theodore Roosevelt in the same office less than a decade ago.

*Promise  
and  
Performance.*

When Governor Hughes took office, one year ago last January, he announced a program of legislation that occasioned more or less surprise, but met with an unsympathetic response, for the most part, from the legislators themselves. He asked for enactments that the party platform on which he was elected had never called for. Moreover, under his theory of the independence of the executive and legislative departments, he soon showed that he possessed no means of enforcing his demands save "an appeal to the people,"—an expedient about as foreign to the traditions of Albany as to those of St. Petersburg. Yet, in spite of this untoward attitude of the Legislature, most of the measures advocated



Photograph by Pirie MacDonald.

MR. CLARK WILLIAMS.

(The efficient Superintendent of Banking for New York State, to whom is largely due the credit for important reforms in the administration of banks and trust companies.)

by the Governor last year became laws; for the appeal to the people, where necessary, was found effective. The pressure brought to bear on legislators by their constituencies in behalf of the Public-Service and other bills resulted in their passage. The worse than useless State Railroad Commission was abolished; so was the Rapid Transit Commission of New York City. In their places were created two boards of Public-Service Commissioners, each endowed with far greater powers in dealing with public utilities than had heretofore been conferred on any official body in New York State.

*Far-Reaching  
Banking  
Reforms.*

Last fall, when the failures of trust companies and banks in New York disturbed the business confidence of the country, Governor Hughes appointed as Superintendent of Banking Mr. Clark Williams, who was himself an experienced and conservative banker, and later named a commission of representative financial men

to recommend changes in the State banking system. The reforms jointly advocated by Superintendent Williams and by this commission have been enacted into law by the Legislature during the session of 1908. The bills that have been passed make many changes, chiefly in the direction of increasing the required proportion of cash reserves, placing trust companies more nearly on an equal footing with banks, and the safeguarding of depositors, while the powers of the Superintendent of Banking in the case of failures are greatly increased, so that they now closely parallel those of the Comptroller of the Currency in respect to national banks, and expensive receiverships may thus be avoided.

*The Race-  
Track  
Issue.*

These solid achievements of the Hughes administration in New York, contributing greatly to business stability and the restoration of business confidence, have rightly commanded the attention of the whole country. But an issue arose between the Governor and the Legislature which for a time almost monopolized the comment of the daily press. The New York State constitution, as adopted in 1894, contains a rigid prohibition of gambling. This prohibition has never been made effective by the Legislature, as regards race-track betting. Governor Hughes demanded that such action should be taken. Bills for this purpose were introduced and passed by the Assembly, but failed of passage by the Senate on a tie vote. The Governor renewed his urgent request that the bills should be passed and called a special election to fill a vacancy in one of the Senate districts. The Legislature, however, prepared to adjourn without a reconsideration of the Senate vote. The Governor's defeat, if it can be called a defeat, is not to be regarded as final. Sooner or later the mandate of the State's organic law must be obeyed,—and this wholly apart from the moral question of gambling, on which the public sentiment of the State is tremendously aroused. Massachusetts, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Missouri are among the States that have already abolished race-track betting. New York has abolished it, so far as the people's vote on a constitutional provision could accomplish that object. It remains for the Legislature,—the people's representatives,—to give that prohibition effect. Meanwhile, nothing is more clear than that New York needs another two years of Hughes in the Governor's chair.

*The  
Fleet in Home  
Ports.*

When the Pacific fleet dropped anchor in Coronado Bay, before the city of San Diego, Cal., at a little past noon on April 14, safe and uproariously welcomed in the first home port since leaving Hampton Roads on December 16 last, it had officially made 13,569 knots. The run of 620 miles from Magdalena Bay to San Diego was made without incident, and then the triumphal reception at the California cities of San Diego, Santa Barbara, Los Angeles, and other coast towns to San Francisco began. While of course the actual records and scores attained in target practice during the stay at Magdalena Bay will not be made public, it is known that (we quote the words of Lieut. H. D. White, who makes the official report to Washington) "each and every ship in Admiral Evans' fleet has beaten its former record by a good margin." San Francisco will be reached on the 6th of the present month, and two days later, it is expected, a grand review will take place of the combined Atlantic and Pacific fleets by Secretary of the Navy Metcalf. On the return voyage around the world, as has been already noted, formal visits will be made to the Japanese port of Yokohama, the Chinese port of Shanghai, and the Australian port cities of Melbourne and Sydney. The Government has declined, with expressions of thanks and regret, the British invitation to

visit British ports on the way through the Mediterranean, stops being made only at Malta and Gibraltar for coal. It is expected that under the command of Rear-Admiral Thomas, and later of Rear-Admiral Sperry, the warships will reach Hampton Roads on their return voyage early in February next.

*"The New  
Nation to the  
North."*

Last month (on April 14) Secretary Root and Ambassador Bryce signed two treaties between the United States and Great Britain,—one settling practically all the questions relating to the water boundary between the United States and Canada, the other providing for the regulation and administration of the inland fresh-water fisheries on the Great Lakes and their tributary waters. This event made the month of April an important one in American-Canadian relations. Of greater popular interest, however, than even this important happening were the preparations for the Quebec tercentenary celebration, which was referred to in these pages last month. The event will really take the form of an historic pageant, the exercises beginning on July 20 and continuing for eleven days. Battleships will conduct a mimic bombardment of the old walled city, and the historic contest between Wolfe and Montcalm will be fought over again on the identical plains of Abraham, where the two heroes gave their lives for their countries. The progress of Canada as a nation has been remarkable, even in this age of marvelous national advance. We call our readers' especial attention to the article on the New Nation to the North, by Miss Agnes C. Laut, on page 557 of this number of the REVIEW.



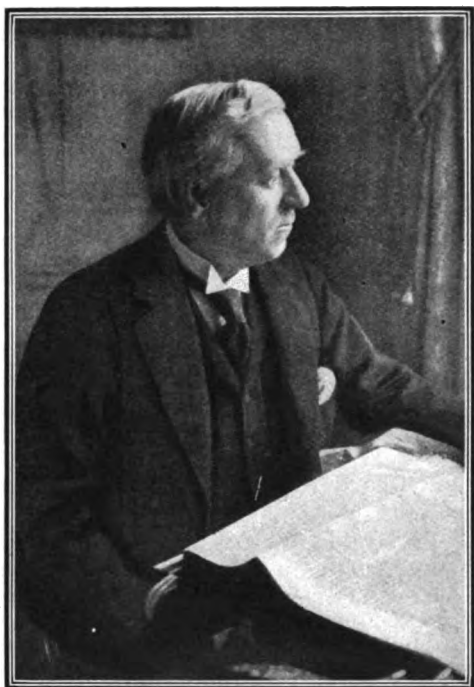
WHEN CANADA COMES INTO HER OWN.

Apropos of the Dominion's remarkable economic progress.

From the *International Syndicate* (Baltimore).

*The Claim  
of  
Castro.*

A new phase of the seemingly interminable Venezuelan dispute was entered upon on March 31, when President Roosevelt sent to the Senate the long-expected correspondence with President Castro regarding claims of American citizens against the Caracas government. From the fact that the President sent no explanation or recommendation with the document it is evident that both the Executive and the State Department regard the resources of diplomacy as having been exhausted and that they now put the responsibility upon Congress. The nature of the American claims against Venezuela has more than once been set forth and discussed in these pages. Venezuela's defense of her refusal to arbitrate is, it must be admitted,



RT. HON. HERBERT HENRY ASQUITH, THE NEW  
BRITISH PREMIER.

technically correct. President Castro asserts: (1) that a part of the controversy has already been arbitrated; (2) that the most important of the other claims have been passed upon by the highest courts in Venezuela and "no country ought to be forced to arbitrate property claims as to matters within its own boundaries already decided by its own courts" (3) that at least one and probably more of the claimants are not American citizens; (4) that some of the *bona fide* American claimants have encouraged revolution; and (5) that perjury and financial trickery have been employed by most of the claimants (referring particularly to the asphalt concessionaires) until they are not entitled to the support of their home government.

*The Contentions of Our State Department.* The substance of the claim of the United States is that President Castro has used his governmental machinery and the Venezuelan courts arbitrarily and wrongfully, to the injury of American citizens; that under forms of law, and at times in open defiance of legal right, Venezuela has deliberately confiscated American property and oppressed citizens of the United States. A fair and proper decision in a matter of this kind can be reached only

through an international tribunal of such dignity and impartiality as that at The Hague. To this body our State Department has asked Venezuela to submit the questions at issue, but President Castro has refused more than once with curtness and incivility. When Minister Russell reaches Washington early in the present month he will in all probability be summoned to appear before Congress and give his testimony in the matter. There is more than one way short of actual hostile demonstration in which the government of President Castro may be made to accord fair and courteous treatment to the United States Government and justice and right to American citizens. The entire matter is now in the hands of Congress. It has been referred to the Committee on Foreign Relations and ordered printed.

*The New  
British  
Ministry.*

Quietly and with no national strain, so smoothly does the machine of British national administration work, a new Premier and cabinet have come into the direction of Britain's imperial destinies. On April 5 it was announced from the famous "No. 10 Downing Street" in the British capital: "The Prime Minister, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, has tendered his resignation to the King, and his Majesty has graciously accepted it." Three days later, at Biarritz, France, where King Edward was staying, the Rt. Hon. Herbert Henry Asquith, having first tendered his resignation as Chancellor of the Exchequer, was appointed by his Majesty Prime Minister and First Lord of the Treasury. Before leaving the French watering-place Mr. Asquith submitted to King Edward his reorganized cabinet. The members of the ministry, in accordance with custom, had tendered their resignations immediately upon the announcement that Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman had given up his post. In the reorganized cabinet, however, most of the former ministers still hold portfolios. Mr. Asquith's official advisers are (in the official governmental order):

Lord President of the Council, Rt. Hon. Lord Tweedmouth (succeeding the Earl of Crewe).

Lord High Chancellor, Rt. Hon. Lord Loreburn (succeeding himself).

Lord of the Privy Seal, Rt. Hon. the Marquis of Ripon, (succeeding himself, delegating, however, at his own request to the Earl of Crewe the leadership in the House of Lords).

Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, Rt. Hon. Sir Edward Grey (succeeding himself).

Secretary of State for India, Rt. Hon. John Morley (succeeding himself, but created a peer).



Secretary of State for the Home Department, Rt. Hon. Herbert J. Gladstone (succeeding himself).

Chancellor of the Exchequer, Rt. Hon. David Lloyd-George (succeeding Mr. Asquith).

Secretary of State for the Colonies, Rt. Hon. the Earl of Crewe (succeeding the Earl of Elgin).

Secretary of State for War, Rt. Hon. Richard B. Haldane (succeeding himself).

First Lord of the Admiralty, Rt. Hon. Reginald McKenna (succeeding Lord Tweedmouth).

Chief Secretary for Ireland, Rt. Hon. Augustine Birrell (succeeding himself).

President of the Board of Trade, Rt. Hon. Winston Spencer Churchill (succeeding Mr. Lloyd-George).

President of the Local Government Board, Rt. Hon. John Burns (succeeding himself).

President of the Board of Education, Rt. Hon. Walter Runciman (succeeding Mr. McKenna).

Secretary for Scotland, Rt. Hon. John Sinclair (succeeding himself).

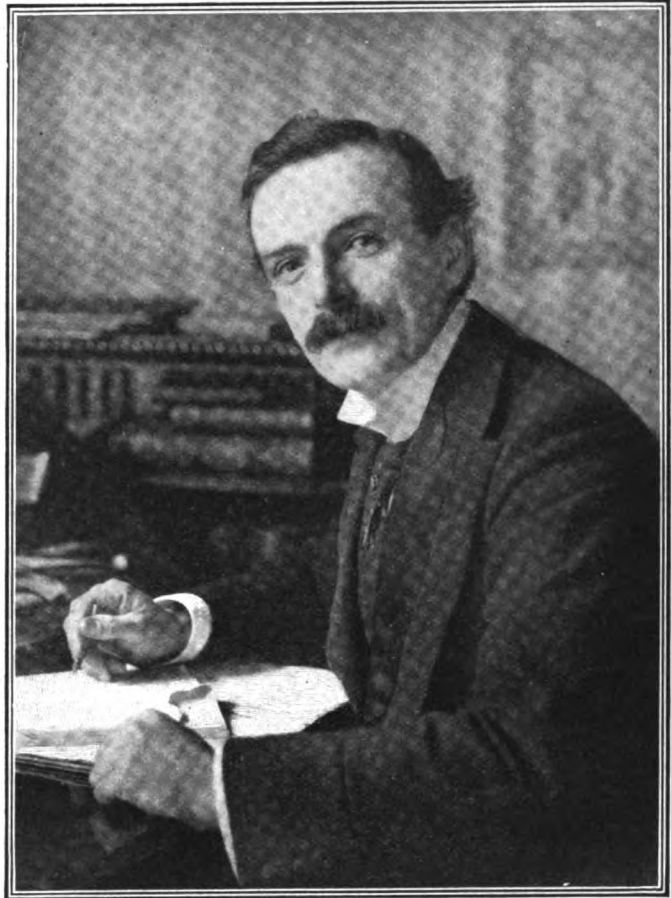
President of the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries, Rt. Hon. Earl Carrington (succeeding himself).

Postmaster-General, Rt. Hon. Sydney Charles Buxton (succeeding himself).

Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, Rt. Hon. Sir Henry H. Fowler (succeeding himself, but created a viscount).

*Some  
Significant  
Changes.*

The significant changes in the cabinet are the promotion of Mr. Lloyd-George to be Chancellor of the Exchequer, an officer who by the political tradition of the British House of Commons becomes the Premier's chief lieutenant in the Lower House and stands next in line to the premiership; the entrance of Mr. Winston Churchill and Mr. Walter Runciman; and the shifting of Lord Tweedmouth from the head of the admiralty to the Lord Presidency of the Council. The Earl of Elgin has resigned from the cabinet. Three of the seats to be contested in new elections at an early date the Liberals are confident they will be able to hold, but that division of Manchester heretofore represented by Mr. Winston Churchill will be bitterly fought



RT. HON. DAVID LLOYD-GEORGE, THE NEWLY APPOINTED CHANCELLOR OF THE BRITISH EXCHEQUER.

for by the Unionists, who normally control the district. Mr. Churchill's former post as Under Secretary for the Colonies is filled by Col. J. E. Seely, M.P. Other minor but noteworthy changes are: C. F. H. Hobhouse, Parliamentary Secretary to the Indian Office, to be Financial Secretary to the Treasury; Dr. T. J. McNamara, Parliamentary Secretary to the Local Government Board, to be Parliamentary Secretary to the Admiralty; C. F. G. Masterman, M.P., to be Parliamentary Secretary to the Local Government Board; and Thomas McKinnon Wood, M. P., for Glasgow, to be Parliamentary Secretary to the Board of Trade.

*A  
Strengthened  
Cabinet.*

Perhaps the most interesting and potential figure in the Asquith ministry is now David Lloyd-George, the courageous, indefatigable young Welshman whose promotion is universally



SIR HENRY CAMPBELL-BANNERMAN, WHO DIED ON APRIL 22, AFTER RESIGNING THE PREMIERSHIP OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

well received. The promotions and changes, including the elevation of Mr. Morley and Mr. Fowler to the peerage, have caused four vacancies in the House of Commons. In general, the reconstruction of the cabinet is looked upon in England as likely to strengthen the Liberal administration. Of the new men, Mr. Churchill is known as a brilliant, masterful character, with a high potentiality for leadership. He is a

radical advocate of free trade and upholder of the government's licensing bill. It is generally conceded that he will have a hard fight to keep his seat. The Conservatives, Socialists, and even the Suffragettes, have already combined against him. The elevation of Mr. Runciman to a cabinet position meets with general approval. His industry, concentration, and conciliatory temper, says the *London Daily Chronicle*, will begin a new era in educational legislation. The transfer of Mr. McKenna from the presidency of the Board of Education to the chief administrative position in the admiralty, however, is not so unanimously approved in England, even in Liberal circles. His views on naval policy are not well known, but he is strongly suspected of being a "little navy" man.

*Equipment of the New Premier* Of Mr. Herbert Henry Asquith's intellectual qualifications for the premiership there can be no sort of doubt. He is a lawyer of national eminence, of ripe experience, and of untarnished reputation. It is rather interesting to note the fact that in the long list of heads of governments since William Pitt he is the first eminent lawyer who has become Premier. Mr. Asquith is fifty-six years of age, in the possession of superb health, and, while temperamentally he is sometimes regarded as a "cold" man, he is an eminently sane, well-balanced, and constructive statesman. His accession to the premiership, for the first time in Britain's constitutional history, was formally effected on foreign soil. Taking place as it did at Biarritz, in France, it may, perhaps, the *London Times* admits, be regarded "as a picturesque and successful tribute to the reality of the *entente* with our French friends that the King and Prime Minister should find themselves so much at home in their beautiful country as to be able to transact the most important constitutional business on French soil." Nevertheless, British conservatism breathed easier when King Edward had returned to his capital. Mr. Asquith has perhaps a more homogeneous and workable cabinet than his predecessor, but he starts his administration under conditions much less favorable than those which surrounded Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman. The popular wave which brought his party into power appears to have spent its force, and the Liberals are now distinctly on the defensive rather than in a confident mood. Mr. Asquith is known to believe in adequate armaments, to favor a licensing bill, to ad-

vocate a compromise on the education question, and to be emphatically in favor of relegating to the rather dim and distant future the granting of Home Rule to Ireland. It looks as if he had already lost the support of the Irish Nationalists. Indeed, the announcement of Mr. John Redmond at the April meeting of the United Irish League that Irish voters could not conscientiously support Mr. Winston Churchill at the approaching by-election at Manchester would seem to sound the trumpet for the advance of all the political enemies of the new ministry.

It may be open to doubt whether the new Premier will prove as successful politically as did his predecessor, who was, it is generally admitted, much better fitted temperamentally than Mr. Asquith to hold in leash the different and often discordant elements of his party. History will perhaps not credit Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman with having been a brilliant statesman. He did not prove himself a great man as a political leader or as a political manager, but for prudence, sagacity, hard-headed common sense, integrity, and an unusual warm heart and cour-

*Sir Henry  
Campbell-  
Bannerman*

tesy he will not soon be surpassed. The late Premier, who stepped down from political life only because commanded to do so by his physicians, died in his seventy-second year. His experience in almost every branch of the British imperial administration fitted him peculiarly well for the exacting duties



RT. HON. REGINALD M'KENNA, WHO SUCCEEDS LORD  
TWEEDMOUTH AS FIRST LORD OF THE  
BRITISH ADMIRALTY.



THE NEW PREMIER AND HOME RULE.

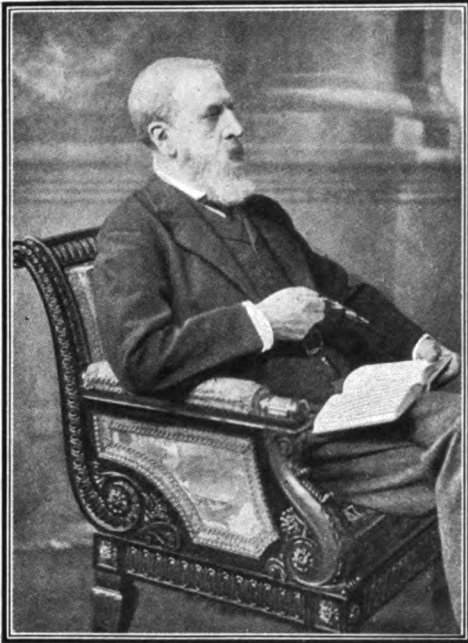
MR. ASQUITH: "That's right, my beauty, have a look at it. But we're not taking it just now; we're going round by the gate to-day."

From *Punch* (London).

of his exalted position. When he was Chief Secretary for Ireland, Mr. Healy remarked that Bannerman governed Ireland by Scotch jokes. This illustrates one important phase of his character,—his unfailing good humor. Fortunately for him, he resigned the premiership before what seems to be an inevitable break in his party. The recent by-election at Peckham, an industrial brewing district south of the Thames, which resulted in a crushing Liberal defeat, has been taken not only as popular disapproval of the licensing bill which is now agitating all England, but as a rebuke to the entire Liberal program.

*Home Rule  
in  
Parliament.*

Not since Mr. Gladstone's later Home Rule campaigns has there been such a fervid political interest in the Irish question as characterized the proceedings of the month of March in the House of Commons following upon Mr.



THE LATE SPENCER COMPTON CAVENDISH, DUKE OF DEVONSHIRE, 1833-1908.

(One of the best beloved and most highly respected of the English ancient nobility, an experienced administrator and member of three ministries, and one of the richest men in England, who died last month.)

John Redmond's now famous resolution. The leader of the Irish party arose amid great excitement on the parliamentary benches and moved the following:

It is the opinion of the House that the present system of government in Ireland is in opposition to the will of the Irish people and gives them no voice in the management of their own affairs; that the system is inefficient, extravagant, and costly; that it does not enjoy the confidence of a large section of the population; that it is productive of universal discontent and unrest, and is incapable of satisfactorily promoting the material and intellectual progress of the people; that the reform of the Irish government is a matter vital to the interest of Ireland and calculated to greatly promote the well-being of the people of Great Britain.

Therefore be it resolved that in the opinion of the House a solution of the problem can be attained only by giving the Irish people legislative and executive control of all purely Irish affairs.

*The Debate  
in the  
Commons.*

In the course of an impassioned speech Mr. Redmond said:

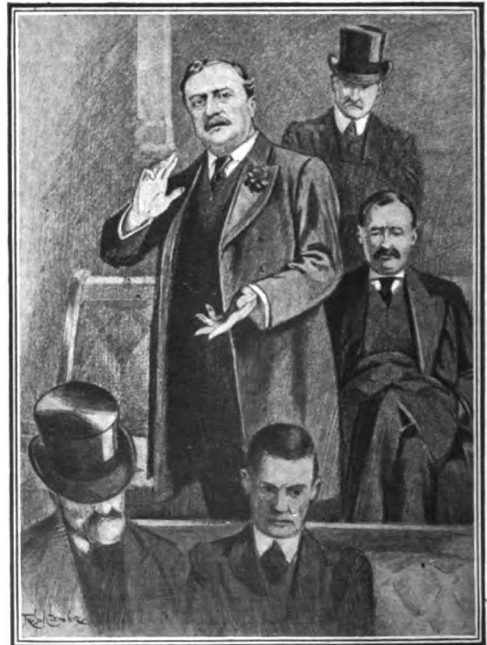
Ireland is worse governed and more discontented under British rule and is more determined never to cease agitation until she has Home Rule than at any other time since the movement began. . . . We say that what you have done for the Frenchmen of Que-

bec and for the Dutch in the Transvaal you should now do for the people of Ireland.

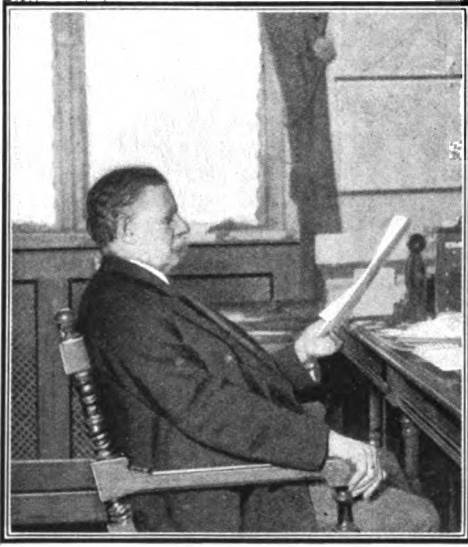
Mr. Birrell, Chief Secretary for Ireland, also made an uncompromising speech in favor of the resolution. Ex-Premier Balfour and Earl Percy spoke against it. Mr. Asquith from the Chancellor's bench, but with the full authority of the premiership, announced that while endorsing the idea of local self-government for Ireland as regards purely local matters, he could not vote for the motion, because "no House of Commons would be justified in embarking on such a task until the matter had first been submitted to the electorate." Amended so as to conclude with the words "subject to the supreme authority of the imperial Parliament," Mr. Redmond's resolution was then adopted by a vote of 313 to 157,—virtually 2 to 1.

*Will Home  
Rule Wreck  
the Liberals?*

Experienced English political leaders see Mr. Asquith's greatest peril in this Irish question in the difficulty of reconciling the conservative and radical elements within his own party. Another Irish question of prime importance is that of the new Universities bill recently introduced by Mr. Birrell, by the terms of which it is proposed to charter two new universities, one at Dublin and the other at



HON. JOHN REDMOND, IN THE HOUSE OF COMMONS, MOVING HIS RESOLUTION TO GIVE HOME RULE TO IRELAND.



HERR REINHOLD SYDOW, THE NEWLY APPOINTED  
GERMAN MINISTER OF FINANCE.

Belfast. At the capital the present college and two subordinate ones, at Cork and Galway, are to be combined, and, while they are not to be subject to religious tests, the head is to be a Roman Catholic layman. The single institution, the well-known Queens College at Belfast, will constitute the other university. Ample funds are appropriated, aggregating \$1,350,000. The bill received the expressed approval of Mr. Balfour, leader of the opposition, and Mr. John Dillon, the Nationalist leader, declared that it would be acceptable to all the Roman Catholics of Ireland. On April 3 the bill passed its first reading by a large majority.

*The Problem  
of German  
Finance.*

The entire financial and economic world is interested in the financial status of the German Empire. A number of things have contributed to this special interest at this time, chief among them being the issue of imperial and Prussian loans in 4 per cent. bonds to the aggregate amount of more than \$160,000,000 and the recent repeal of the Registry law enacted twelve years ago for the purpose of eliminating from the Berlin Bourse the stock-gambling evils which have been so denounced in connection with operations in Wall Street. Naturally the deficit in the German treasury is largely due to the recent reconstruction of the German naval program, which in its amended form for the present year calls for an expenditure of more than \$84,000,000 and

during the ensuing years up to and including 1917 an average annual outlay for naval purposes of nearly \$105,000,000. Some of this increase is also necessitated by the new Prussian law, which will permit of the expropriation of Polish landlords in Posen and West Prussia. The political aspects of these two demands for an increased budget are what are interesting the chancelleries of Europe. Of course, of the solvency of the German Empire and its capacity for meeting the debt there can be no doubt. The natural resources of all the constituent states of the empire and the fine commercial standing of German business make German credit second to none in the world. It is a fact, however, that taxation is increasing rapidly in the Fatherland, although as yet the German pays less for government than does the Italian, Frenchman, or Englishman.

*Political  
Aspects  
of the Loans.*

The real difficulty which the new Finance Minister, Herr Reinhold Sydow, will have to meet is political rather than economic. He may be unable to keep intact the so-called *bloc*, or government majority, in the Reichstag, which is made up of Conservatives, Liberals, and Radicals, each of the three holding views as to the incidence of taxation diametrically different from the others. It is reported on what appears to be a good foundation that an effort will be made to induce French bankers to subscribe for a part of the new loans in return for the concession of a certain measure of autonomy to the French-speaking inhabitants of Alsace-Lorraine. This would be the most dramatic as well as sagacious piece of diplomacy that has characterized the relations of France and Germany since 1870. A further evidence of the importance attached by the German Government to this campaign against the Poles and other non-German elements is shown by the passage, on April 4, of that clause of the government's Association bill which makes compulsory the use of the German language in all public meetings in every part of the empire, except in case of international congresses or election meetings. There are 5,000,000 non-German inhabitants in the empire,—Poles, Danes, French, Lithuanians, and Czechs,—and the passage of this new law gave rise to the wildest excitement in the Reichstag when the government triumphed over the combined representatives of these subject peoples. A prominent Bohemian political leader declared that the effect of the passage of this law would



IN THE ROYAL NURSERY AT MADRID.

(The little Prince of the Asturias, first-born of the King and Queen of Spain, will be a year old on the 10th of the present month. From a photograph by the *Nuevo Mundo*.)

be that hereafter in the empire it will be quite impossible for Germans and non-Germans to live together in peace.

*The  
Portuguese  
Elections.*

A good deal of disorder and rioting and some loss of life attended the elections for the Portuguese Cortes last month. Seven persons were shot and many wounded by the police in their efforts to suppress the riots in Lisbon alone on April 5. The most authoritative figures of the final results of the elections for the 148 deputies which make up the Camara dos Deputados indicate that, as was expected, the two old "rotating parties" carried the day. The Regenerators have secured 62 seats and the Progressists 59. The opposition, with its 27 votes, is almost solidly Republican in sympathy and contains many of the more patriotic and statesmanlike deputies. After the elections the country quieted down, but awaited with suppressed anxiety the assembling of the Parliament, on April 29, upon which occasion the new youthful monarch, King Manuel, was expected to take the oath to observe the constitution.

*China  
vs. Russia  
and Japan.*

China's territorial and governmental integrity was formally recognized and, it seemed, fully protected by agreement of the western powers at the initiation of our own State Department when the late John Hay was Secretary. The American note which secured the "open door" in Manchuria was accepted and approved by both Japan and Russia. The treaty of Portsmouth later bound both these powers to completely evacuate Manchuria (except the territory affected by

the lease of the Liao-Tung Peninsula), and to completely restore to the "exclusive administration of China all parts of Manchuria occupied by Russian or Japanese troops or under their control" (with the exception of the above-mentioned territory), further stipulating that these powers would "exploit their respective railways in Manchuria for commercial and industrial purposes exclusively." It is true that the Russian and Japanese troops have evacuated the territory in question, but,

China is claiming, neither Russia nor Japan has confined its exploitation of railways to exclusively commercial and industrial purposes. The Chinese Eastern Railway, which is ostensibly a private Russian company, is really a government concern. Ever since the close of the Russo-Japanese War this company has been exercising at Harbin and some other of the larger cities in the vicinity an actual form of municipal



Photograph by Clinedinst

THE LATE DURHAM W. STEVENS, JAPAN'S ADVISER IN KOREA.

(Mr. Stevens, who was an American, a native of Washington, was assassinated on March 23 by a Korean named I Wong Chaeng, at San Francisco.)





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JAPANESE NEWSPAPER MEN AND MERCHANTS AT MOUNT VERNON.

(A party of sixty Japanese business men and journalists,—including three women,—on a tour organized by the *Asahi Shimbun*, of Tokio, last month passed through the principal cities of this country on their way to London.)

government, dominating the councils on the claim that these Chinese cities are situated in the zone through which the railway passes and which, according to their lease of 1896, is railway property.

*Our Stand for China at Harbin.* The climax in the dispute was reached last month when Frederick D. Fisher, the American Consul at Harbin, refused to recognize in any way the Russian administration, asserting that he was accredited solely to China and that Chinese sovereignty was supreme throughout Manchuria. The German Consul took similar ground, whereas the French Consul accepted the Russian administration. In upholding the rights of Chinese sovereignty in Manchuria Consul Fisher acted under the direct authority of our State Department, and the question was discussed frankly and openly between Mr. Root and Baron Rosen at Washington and our Ambassador and the Russian Foreign Office at St. Petersburg. On the other hand, the American Consul at Mukden, Willard D. Straight, became involved late in March in an unfortunate dispute between a Japanese postman and a Chi-

nese watchman at the consulate. His decision in favor of the Chinaman was followed by an attack on the consulate, in which Mr. Straight received personal injury. The Japanese Consul-General promised an early investigation of the matter. Of no great importance in itself, the incident is indicative of the general resentment felt by both Chinese and foreigners over the often high-handed actions of some of the local Japanese authorities in Manchuria.

*The Assassination of Stevens.* The Japanese and Chinese central governments continue to disagree over railroad concessions. China's growing enmity to Japan's efforts to control the trade of Manchuria is indicated by a commercial boycott against Japanese goods, as a protest mainly, it is believed, against what the Chinese allege is Japanese injustice in exacting indemnity in the recent *Tatsu Maru* controversy, which has already been described in these pages. The Chinese are coming to realize that they have in the United States a sincere and powerful friend, while the Japanese are apparently anxious lest the stand taken by the



United States in northern Manchuria against the Russians should interfere with their own projects in the matter of the southern railroads. A dramatic incident of the Japanese absorption of Korea called attention, late in March, to a bitterness in the anti-Japanese feeling among the Koreans of which perhaps the western world has not been aware. Durham W. Stevens, adviser to the Korean Council of State, an American who had for more than twenty years been one of the most trusted foreigners in the service of the Japanese Government, was shot and killed in San Francisco by I Wong Chaeng, a Korean who claimed to be a member of one of the princely families of Seoul. Mr. Stevens was recently decorated by the Japanese Emperor for his services to the Island Empire. He was a man of fine ability and high principles and universally respected in Europe and Japan as well as in this country.

*The Problem  
of the  
Anarchist.*

Anarchist propaganda and several manifestations of anarchist activity in different sections of the country during the past few weeks have called the attention of thoughtful American citizens to the fact (of which most of them were perhaps unconscious) that the United States is facing a real anarchist problem. It is seriously maintained by the New York *Herald* that New York City and Paterson, N. J., are "admittedly the anarchistic centers of the world," from which "all wires are pulled." This comment was inspired by two occurrences of last month in these American cities: One was the attempt, on March 28, of young Selig Silverstein (or Cohen), a member of the Anarchist Federation of America, to destroy by a bomb a platoon of policemen in Union Square, New York City, and the other the denial of the use of the mails by the Postmaster-General to the anarchist weekly journal, *La Question Sociale*, published in Paterson, N. J. President Roosevelt, who holds very decided views on the question of anarchistic theories and propaganda in this country, sent to Congress on April 9 a brief but cogent message (ac-

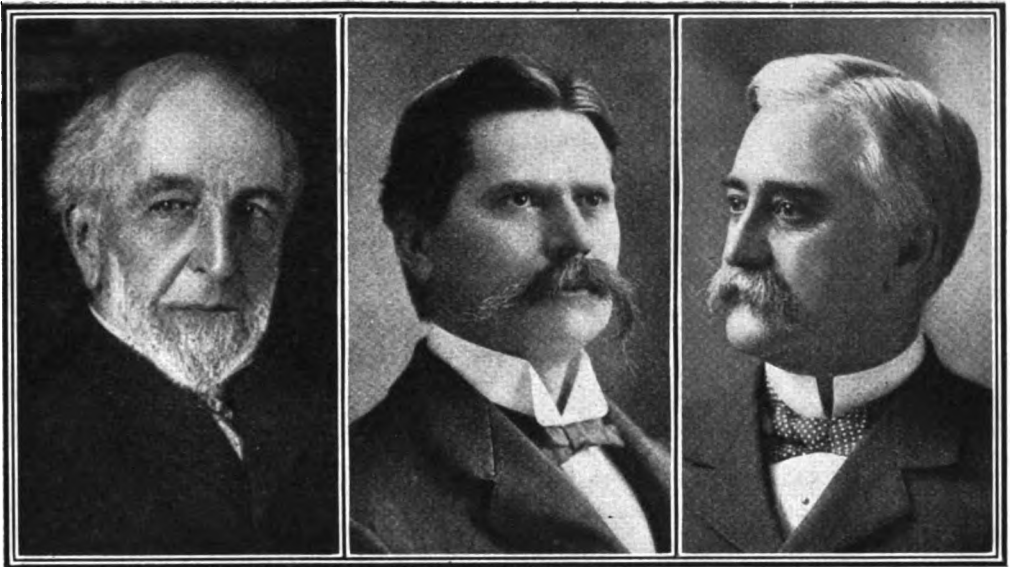
companying a long opinion of Attorney-General Bonaparte) suggesting new legislation on the subject. The Paterson paper referred to has specifically advocated, to quote the President's words in a letter to the Department of Justice, "the murder of enlisted men in the United States Army and the officers of the police force and the burning of the homes of private citizens." The President says in his message to Congress:

When compared with the suppression of anarchy every other question sinks into insignificance. The anarchist is the enemy of humanity, the enemy of all mankind, and his is a deeper degree of criminality than any other. No emigrant is allowed to come to our shores if he is an anarchist; and no paper published here or abroad should be permitted circulation in this country if it propagates anarchistic opinions.

*Anarchism  
vs.  
Socialism*

The action against *La Question Sociale* was taken at the urgent request of Mayor McBride, of Paterson, who, "as mayor of a law-abiding community, proud of its kinship with the American people," requested the President to exclude the publication from the mails. The action of the New York Park Department in refusing to issue a permit for the proposed meeting of the unemployed in Union Square on March 28, and the conduct of the police afterward when the crowds actually began to assemble, have been the subject of a great deal of comment pro and con in the press of the country. Most good citizens will sympathize with the determination of the authorities to suppress violence. It is not fair, however, to accuse the Socialist and labor elements of the American metropolis with being responsible for the bomb-throwing on this occasion. Indeed, they themselves repudiate it, and it must never be forgotten that, far from desiring to destroy government, Socialism,—the precise opposite of anarchism,—aims at vastly increasing the powers of government. Whatever this man Silverstein was, he was not a Socialist. Just at this time, on May-day, we believe, our readers will be more than a little interested in the Socialist statement of Socialistic progress throughout the world which we print on page 577.





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Hon. John W. Stewart (Rep.), of Vermont.

Hon. Hall Milton (Dem.), of Florida.

Hon. John Walter Smith (Dem.), of Maryland.

A TRIO OF NEW UNITED STATES SENATORS.

## RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From March 21 to April 20, 1908.)

### PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

March 21.—The Senate passes the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial Appropriation bill. . . . The House passes the Fortifications Appropriation bill.

March 23.—In the House, Mr. Hepburn (Rep., Iowa) introduces the National Civic Federation's bill to amend the Sherman Anti-Trust law.

March 24-26.—The Senate debates the Currency bill and the House the Agricultural Appropriation bill.

March 27.—The Senate, by a vote of 42 to 16, passes the Aldrich Currency bill.

March 30.—The House receives the Aldrich Currency bill and refers it to the Committee on Banking and Currency.

March 31.—Nearly the entire session of the Senate is consumed by the consideration of a bill to permit the building of a dam on the Snake River, Washington. . . . The House passes, with modifications, the paragraph of the Agricultural Appropriation bill relating to the Bureau of Forestry.

April 1.—The Senate passes the Snake River Dam bill.

April 2.—The Senate, in executive session, confirms the nomination of Dr. D. J. Hill as Ambassador to Germany and adopts some of the Hague arbitration treaties. . . . The House passes the Agricultural Appropriation bill.

April 3.—To forestall filibustering, the Republican members of the House force the adoption of a rule limiting general debate on the District

of Columbia Appropriation bill, which was under consideration.

April 4.—The Republican majority of the House forces the adoption of a sweeping closure rule.

April 6.—The Senate passes the Army Appropriation bill and adopts a resolution offered by Mr. Foraker (Rep., Ohio) relating to the Brownsville affair. . . . The House passes the Sterling Employers' Liability bill, and a bill providing for a naval station at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii.

April 7.—The Senate passes the Fortifications Appropriation bill (\$12,106,187). . . . The House passes the District of Columbia Appropriation bill.

April 8.—The House passes two resolutions introduced by Speaker Cannon calling for information about the alleged paper trust.

April 9.—A special message urging further legislation for the repression of anarchy is received from President Roosevelt. . . . The Senate passes the Employers' Liability bill as received from the House without amendment. . . . The House sends to conference the Army and the Fortifications Appropriation bills.

April 10-11.—The House considers the Naval Appropriation bill.

April 14.—A message from President Roosevelt, urging that four battleships instead of two be provided for, is read in both branches. . . . In the Senate, Mr. Foraker (Rep., Ohio) makes a long speech on the Brownsville affair. . . . The House continues the debate on the Naval Appropriation bill.

April 15.—The Senate passes the bill prohibiting betting in the District of Columbia.... The House, by a vote of 199 to 83, defeats the proposition for four battleships advocated by President Roosevelt, the Naval Committee's recommendation of two ships being adopted.

April 16.—The House passes the Naval Appropriation bill.

April 17.—The Senate passes the bill providing that injunctions against the enforcement of State laws can be issued only by two out of three federal judges; the fisheries treaty is adopted in executive session.

April 18.—The House passes the Diplomatic and Consular Appropriation bill.

April 20.—In the Senate Mr. Borah (Rep., Idaho) defends the course of the Administration in the Brownsville affair.... The House sustains Speaker Cannon's action in his controversy with Mr. Williams (Dem., Miss.).

#### POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

March 21.—New Mexico Republicans instruct for Secretary Taft.

March 22.—Congressman Charles E. Littlefield (Rep.) tenders his resignation as Representative from the Second Maine District.

March 23.—The United States Supreme Court, Justice Harlan dissenting, declares the railroad-rate laws of Minnesota and North Carolina unconstitutional.... President Roosevelt asks the Department of Justice to take steps against the anarchist publication, *La Question Sociale*, of Paterson, N. J.

March 24.—The New York State Senate passes the bill providing for the equal pay of men and women school teachers of New York City.... Governor Proctor, of Vermont, appoints ex-Governor John W. Stewart (Rep.) to succeed the Hon. Redfield Proctor as United States Senator.

March 25.—The committee of the House of Representatives appointed to investigate the charges against Judge Wilfley, of Shanghai, reports censuring the judge but not recommending impeachment.

March 26.—Senator-elect Smith (Dem.), succeeding Senator Whyte, of Maryland, is seated by a close vote after debate.... Illinois Republicans instruct delegates to Chicago for Speaker Cannon.... The New York Assembly, by a large majority, passes the Agnew-Hart Anti-Race-Track Gambling bills.... Rhode Island Republicans elect uninstructed delegates-at-large to the national convention.... The first hearing in the investigation of charges against District-Attorney Jerome, of New York, is held.

March 27.—Governor John A. Johnson (Dem.), of Minnesota, in a letter published at St. Paul announces his candidacy for the Presidency.... Governor Broward, of Florida, appoints Hall Milton (Dem.) to succeed the late W. J. Bryan in the United States Senate.

March 30.—The Indiana Railroad Commission issues an order cutting the rates of express companies from 10 to 12 per cent.

April 2.—Indiana Republicans instruct for Vice-President Fairbanks.

April 3.—The National Populist Convention at St. Louis nominates Thomas Watson, of Georgia, for the Presidency; the Nebraska and Minnesota delegations, supporting Bryan, bolt the convention.

April 4.—President Roosevelt announces his decision to appoint John S. Leech, of Illinois, to the office of Public Printer, to succeed Charles S. Stillings, resigned.

April 6.—The United States Supreme Court decides that the State of New Jersey has the right to prohibit the diversion of the water of the Passaic River to supply Staten Island.... Governor Fletcher D. Proctor (Rep.), of Vermont, announces that he will not be a candidate for United States Senator next fall.

April 7.—South Dakota Republicans instruct for Secretary Taft.... Delaware Republicans elect an uninstructed delegation to the national convention.

April 8.—Virginia Republicans instruct for Secretary Taft.... By a tie vote in the New York State Senate the Anti-Race Track Gambling bills are lost.

April 9.—Governor Hughes, of New York, sends a message to the Legislature advocating the passage of the Anti-Race-Track Gambling bills and other legislation.

April 10.—Governor Hughes, of New York, issues a proclamation for a special election on May 12 in the Niagara-Orleans Senate district to choose a successor to the late Senator Franchot.... Massachusetts Republicans send an uninstructed delegation to Chicago.

April 11.—By a decision of the Tennessee Supreme Court the Standard Oil Company is barred from further business in the State.... New York Republicans instruct their delegates-at-large for Governor Hughes.

April 13.—The New York City mayoralty recount case is begun in the Supreme Court.

April 14.—Delaware Democrats instruct for Judge George Gray, notwithstanding his declaration that he is not a candidate for the Presidential nomination.

April 15.—Twenty-nine delegates, headed by State Senator McCarren, are thrown out of the New York Democratic State Convention.

April 16.—Minnesota Republicans instruct for Secretary Taft.

April 17.—The House of Representatives Committee on Currency tables the Aldrich bill.... William J. Bryan holds a conference with William J. Conners, Democratic State Chairman of New York.

April 20.—The House Committee on Banking and Currency votes to table the Vreeland Currency bill, and orders a favorable report on the Fowler Currency Commission bill.

#### POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

March 21.—Figures presented to the Japanese House of Peers show the necessity of an increase in taxes to meet deficits.

March 23.—The Revolutionary Claims Commission in Cuba grants \$1,389,287 out of \$3,803,395 asked.

March 24.—The British Unionist party wins a great victory in the elections for the London

district of Peckham....The French Senate passes the bill approved by the lower house widening the grounds for the Bourse.

March 25.—At a meeting in London, England, it is resolved to establish a national ratepayers' federation....The Commission of XVII., after thirty-nine sittings at Brussels, votes the Colonial law as amended.

March 30.—The terms of the new gold law are published at Johannesburg....The British House of Commons passes by a 2-to-1 vote a resolution offered by John E. Redmond favoring self-government in Ireland of purely Irish affairs.

March 31.—Mr. Birrell, Chief Secretary for Ireland, introduces in the British House of Commons his Irish Universities bill providing two new universities in Ireland.

April 1.—The Canadian province of Alberta purchases the Bell telephone system within her boundaries for \$675,000.

April 2.—The Czar of Russia decides to dissolve the Finnish Diet on account of a resolution adopted expressing sympathy with the Terrorists....It is announced in Germany that an imperial and Prussian loan of \$162,500,000 will soon be offered....Troops fire on rioters at Rome, killing three and wounding fifteen; a general strike is threatened.

April 4.—The German Reichstag, by a vote of 200 to 179, decides that the German language must be used at public meetings in all parts of the empire.

April 5.—Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman resigns the premiership of Great Britain....Fierce riots follow the elections in Lisbon, Portugal; the Monarchists win a victory at the polls; the Republicans charge fraud.

April 6.—The Russian Duma succeeds in forcing the retirement of M. Alexiev, Vice-Minister of Commerce.

April 8.—H. H. Asquith, Chancellor of the British Exchequer, is appointed Premier of Great Britain....After passing the German Language bill and the Bourse bill, the German Reichstag adjourns over Easter.

April 12.—The new British cabinet is announced; David Lloyd-George is made Chancellor of the Exchequer....It is announced that the Bavarian Government will spend \$90,000,000 for the construction of great systems of waterways.

April 14.—The Danish Folkething adopts the government's Franchise bill, which gives to women taxpayers the right to vote in communal elections....The British Parliament adjourns for the Easter recess; Mr. Lloyd-George makes his first speech as Chancellor of the Exchequer.

April 16.—Alexander Stolypin, brother of the



THE FIFTH AVENUE HOTEL, OF NEW YORK, LONG THE MECCA OF REPUBLICAN POLITICIANS.

(This famous hostelry was closed last month, and the building will be demolished to make way for a modern skyscraper.)

Russian Premier, is sentenced to imprisonment and a fine in St. Petersburg for libel.

April 20.—Winston Spencer Churchill, in a speech at Manchester, England, says that the Liberal party will claim a free hand in dealing with the Irish question.

#### INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

March 22.—China and Great Britain agree to a decrease in the imports of opium; the Chinese Throne issues an appeal to the people to stop using the drug.

March 23.—Japan requests China to suppress the boycott and check the agitation growing out of the *Tatsu Maru* affair....China presents an invitation to the United States for the battleship fleet to visit China.

March 24.—Japan informs China that all export of arms and ammunition to Macao is forbidden unless guaranteed by the Governor of Macao.

March 27.—An understanding is reached between the United States and Great Britain in regard to the fresh-water-fisheries disputes between Canada and the United States....The French Chamber of Deputies votes the budget for the war in Morocco....A massacre of Armenians by Bashi-Bazouks takes place at Van.

March 29.—An important dispatch from the British Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs to the powers of Europe on Macedonian reforms is published....Emperor William of Germany recalls all objections to the appointment of Dr. David Jayne Hill as American Ambassador to Germany.

March 31.—The United States supports the action of Consul Fisher at Harbin in refusing to recognize other rights than those of China in Manchuria....Charlemagne Tower's resignation as American Ambassador to Germany is accepted, to take effect June 1, and Dr. David

Jayne Hill, now Minister to the Netherlands, is named for the place.

April 1.—According to figures published in Tokio, America leads the world in trade with Japan.

April 2.—Venezuela's answer to Secretary Root's last note is, in effect, a refusal to consider the American demands diplomatically.

April 6.—The Chinese Foreign Board rejects the Japanese proposal regarding a reciprocal postal arrangement in Manchuria....The boycott against the Japanese due to the release of the *Tatsu Maru* is spreading rapidly in China.... Russia, Germany, Denmark, and Sweden agree to a convention maintaining the *status quo* of the Baltic....Four Japanese enter the American consulate at Mukden and attack the native staff.

April 7.—An agreement to check emigration from India to Canada is reached between the Dominion and British officials.

April 10.—The United States receives an invitation from Great Britain to take part in a conference in London on the international prize courts proposed by the last Hague Conference.

April 11.—Treaties between the United States and Great Britain for determining the Canadian boundary and regulating the fisheries on the Great Lakes are signed at Washington.

April 13.—The United States makes representations to Great Britain regarding the seizure by Newfoundland of fishing vessels.

April 14.—The government of the Congo Independent State issues a reply to the charges made by British consuls regarding deficient government.

April 15.—The debate on the Congo treaty begins in the Belgian Parliament.

April 16.—Russian troops avenging an attack by Kurdish brigands cross the Persian frontier and destroy several villages.

April 18.—Orders are issued at Rome for an Italian naval demonstration in Turkish waters....The Czar of Russia approves the appointment of Senator Malévsky Malavitch as Ambassador to Japan....A resolution empowering the President of the United States to deal with the case of Venezuela is declared by the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations.

April 20.—Turkey having granted Italy's demands, the orders for the departure of the Italian fleet are countermanded.

#### OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

March 21.—Henri Farman makes a successful aeroplane flight at Issy—A reduction of wages affecting many cotton-mill operatives is announced at Providence, R. I.

March 22.—Charles H. Keep is chosen president of the Knickerbocker Trust Company of New York.

March 23.—Henri Rochette is arrested in Paris charged with having swindled French investors out of \$12,000,000....The Japanese postal steamer *Lutsu* is sunk in collision and 200 lives are reported lost....An explosion of the Chilean Government powder-houses thirty miles north of Santiago causes great alarm in the city....Durham W. Stevens, an American, member of the Japanese Council in Korea, is

shot and mortally wounded by a Korean at San Francisco.

March 25.—The temporary receivers of the Knickerbocker Trust Company of New York are discharged by the court.

March 26.—The Knickerbocker Trust Company successfully reopens for business in New York....Sir Robert Hart, about to return to England after fifty-four years in the service of the Chinese Government, is received in a farewell audience by the Emperor and Empress Dowager of China.

March 27.—Many lives are lost in earthquakes in Mexico.

March 28.—More than sixty miners are entombed by an explosion in a Union Pacific Coal Company's mine at Hanna, Wyo....A bomb is thrown at a labor demonstration in Union Square, New York City, killing one man and injuring several others.

March 30.—The Emperor of Japan bestows upon the late Durham White Stevens, an American, the decoration of the Grand Rising Sun; his family is to receive \$100,000.

March 31.—As a result of the expiration of the wage agreement between operatives and miners, 250,000 coal miners throughout the United States quit work.

April 2.—During maneuvers off the Isle of Wight the British torpedo-boat destroyer *Tiger* is cut in two and sunk; thirty-four of her men are drowned.

April 3.—A general strike is proclaimed in Rome....Mr. Andrew Carnegie increases his pension fund for college and university professors by \$5,000,000 in order to enable the professors of State universities to receive pensions.

April 4.—The Erie Railroad Company decides to issue \$15,000,000 in notes....The Fifth Avenue Hotel, of New York, closes its doors.

April 6.—Central Massachusetts cotton-mills reduce the wages of 125,000 employees by 10 per cent.

April 8.—E. H. Harriman offers to buy sufficient of the new issue of Erie notes to enable redemption of the old in cash.

April 9.—The report of the Canadian Grand Trunk management at the semi-annual meeting in London, England, arouses sharp criticism....The Lake Carriers' Association decides on an open-shop policy affecting 40,000 men....Mrs. Russell Sage gives \$250,000 to Princeton University for a dormitory for freshmen.

April 11.—The German armored cruiser *Blucher*, costing \$6,915,000 and having a displacement of 15,000 tons, is launched at Kiel....The German and Prussian loans are several times oversubscribed....Arrangements for the rehabilitation of the Westinghouse Electric & Manufacturing Company are practically completed at Pittsburg.

April 12.—The ship *Jacques Cartier*, carrying an Arctic expedition, sails from Dunkirk....Fire destroys many public and private buildings in Chelsea, Mass., causing a loss of \$6,000,000; twelve persons are killed and about fifty injured....Governor Broward, of Florida, orders the State militia to Pensacola because of expected

riots in connection with the reopening of the street-railway service.

April 13.—Floods at Hankow are reported to have caused the loss of 2000 lives.

April 14.—The American battleship fleet arrives at San Diego, Cal.

April 17.—The Citizens State Bank of Chautauq, Kan., is robbed of \$3000 in broad daylight.... An agreement is reached by the coal operators and miners of the Central Competitive District, in conference at Toledo, by which 200,000 miners in western Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Indiana return to work.

April 18.—More than 100,000 persons greet the arrival of the American battleship fleet in San Pedro Harbor, the port of Los Angeles, Cal.... Severe floods do much damage in the vicinity of Fort Worth, Texas.

April 20.—In a collision of excursion trains near Melbourne, Australia, twenty-seven persons are killed and forty injured.

#### OBITUARY.

March 21.—Dr. Joseph Daniel Pope, dean of the law school of the University of South Carolina and one of the three survivors of the Ordinance of Secession, 88.

March 22.—Senator William James Bryan, of Florida, the youngest member of the United States Senate, 31.... Col. John Walter Fairfax, a Confederate veteran of the Civil War, 79.... Leopold Eidlitz, the New York architect, 85.

March 23.—Brig.-Gen. Jacob Kline, U. S. A., retired, a veteran of the Civil War, 67.... John Good, prominently identified with the cordage industry, 66.

March 24.—Spencer Compton Cavendish, eighth Duke of Devonshire, 74.... State Senator Stanislaus P. Franchot, of New York, 57.... Dr. Truman J. Backus, president of the Packer Collegiate Institute, Brooklyn, N. Y., 66.... Brig.-Gen. Elisha I. Baily, U. S. A., retired, 83.

March 25.—Rev. Charles Cuthbert Hall, D.D., president of the Union Theological Seminary, 55.... Durham White Stevens, diplomatic adviser to the Japanese Government, 56.

March 27.—F. Louis Soldan, for twelve years superintendent of the public schools of St. Louis, 66.... Ex-Chancellor Charles N. Sims, of Syracuse University, 73.

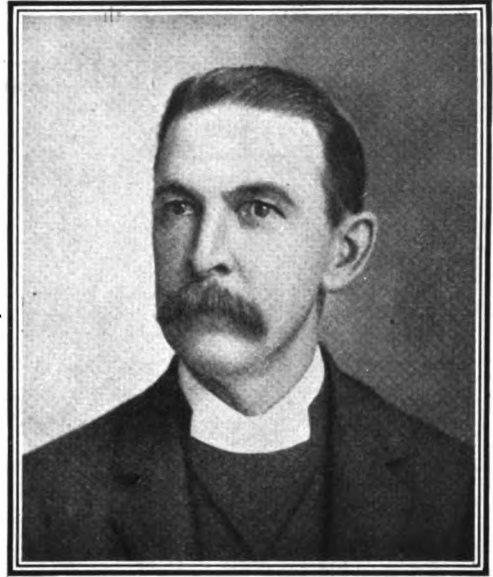
March 31.—Joseph Howard, Jr., a well-known newspaper writer, 75.

April 2.—Benjamin Curtis Porter, the American portrait and figure painter, 65.

April 3.—James Jeffrey Roche, poet, author, and editor, the American Consul at Berne, 61.... Rev. Samuel C. Ewing, D.D., a pioneer missionary worker of the United Presbyterian Church in Egypt, 70.

April 5.—Rev. Edward Abbott, D.D., of Cambridge, Mass., 67.

April 6.—Wilhelm Lassen, the Danish Minister of Finance.



THE LATE DR. CHARLES CUTHBERT HALL.

(President of Union Theological Seminary, New York City.)

April 7.—Representative Abraham Lincoln Brick, of the Thirteenth Indiana District, 48.... Sir Howard Vincent, M.P., a British authority on police and military affairs, 59.... Franklin Haven, president of the Merchants' National Bank of Boston.

April 9.—Count Tornielli, Italian Ambassador to France, 72.

April 11.—Benjamin Franklin Stevens, for more than fifty years president of the New England Mutual Life Insurance Company, 84.... Samuel L. Carleton, at one time head of the world organization of the Sons of Temperance, 86.... John Vandercook, president and general manager of the United Press Association, 34.

April 12.—Ex-Congressman Byron M. Cutcherson, of Michigan, a veteran of the Civil War, 72.... Count Andreas Potocki, Governor of Galicia.... Lieut. C. A. L. Totten, formerly instructor in military tactics at Yale and a millennial forecaster, 57.

April 13.—Hartwig Derenbourg, the Orientalist, 64.

April 14.—Willie Edouin, the English actor, 67.

April 15.—Ferdinand Schumacher, founder of the breakfast-food business in the United States, 82.... John H. Mandigo, head of the sporting department of the New York Sun, 50.

April 16.—Rear-Admiral George B. Balch, U. S. N., retired, 87.

April 20.—Henry Chadwick, known as "the father of baseball," 83.

## SOME OF THE RECENT CARTOONS.



VENEZUELA IS SPOILING FOR A SPANKING.  
From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane).



ONE OF UNCLE JOE CANNON'S HAPPY MOMENTS.  
From the *Herald* (Washington).



A SLIGHT MISFIT.

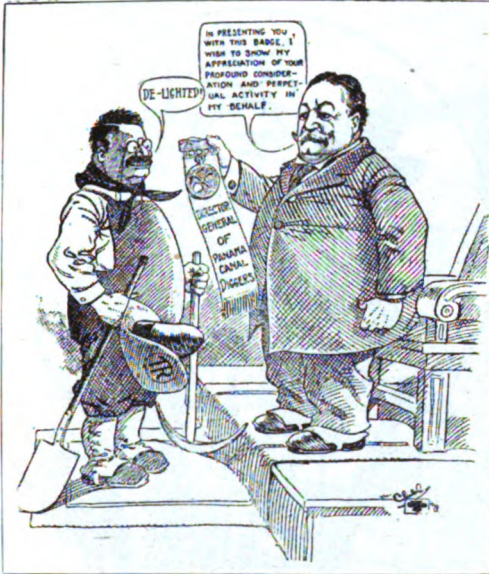
UNCLE SAM: "You see, if I had a bigger one it would be easier for me to keep my balance."  
From the *Daily News* (Chicago).



IN THE PRESIDENTIAL PANTRY.

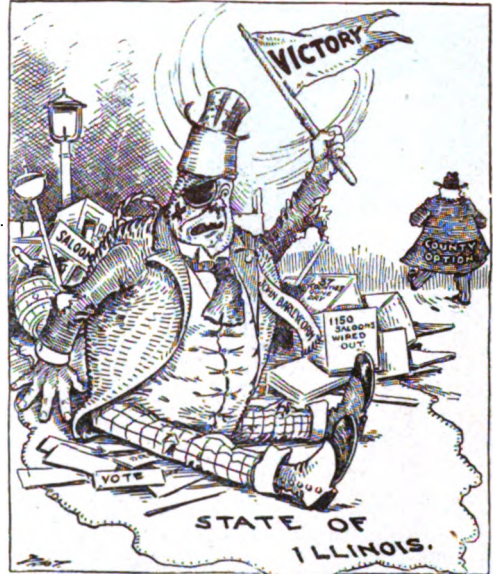
THE FAVORITE SONS (in chorus): "Somebody's taken a bite out of my pie!"  
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).





WHAT WOULD BE IN ORDER IF TAFT SHOULD BE PRESIDENT.

From the *Herald* (Rochester).



THE ILLINOIS LOCAL-OPTION VICTORY.  
JOHN BARLEYCORN: "Another victory like that and I'd be in the hospital."

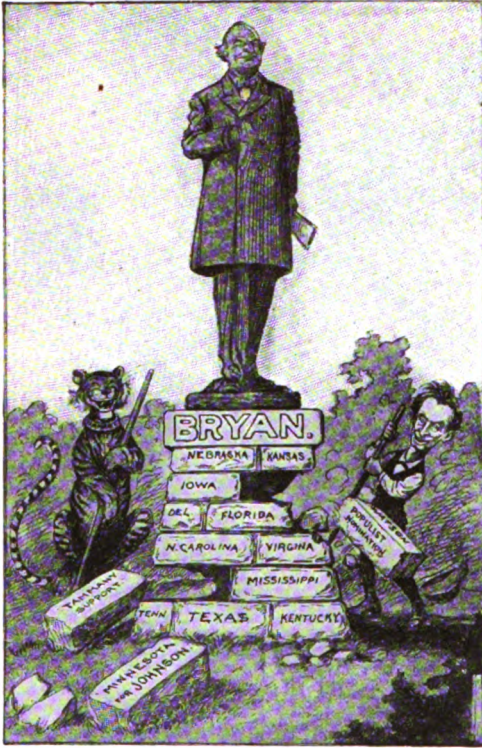
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



THE TAFT MINSTRELS STRIKE BROWNSVILLE.

From the *Herald* (New York).

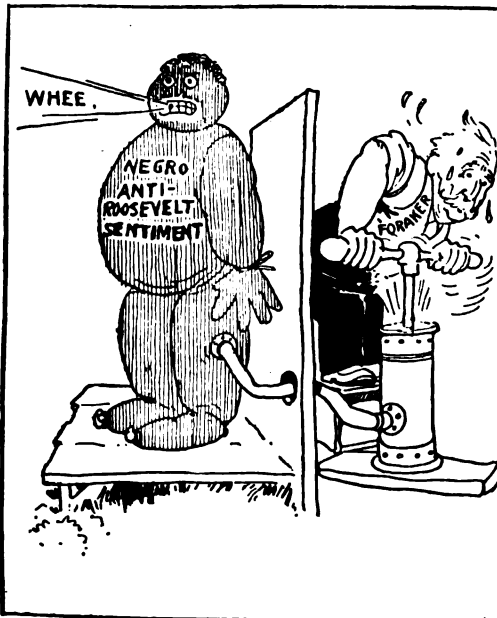




TEARING OUT THE FOUNDATION.

Between Johnson, the Tammany Tiger, and Populist Tom Watson, the Bryan statue may come to the ground.

From the *Saturday Globe* (Utica).



THE MAN BEHIND THE NEGRO ANTI-ROOSEVELT SENTIMENT.

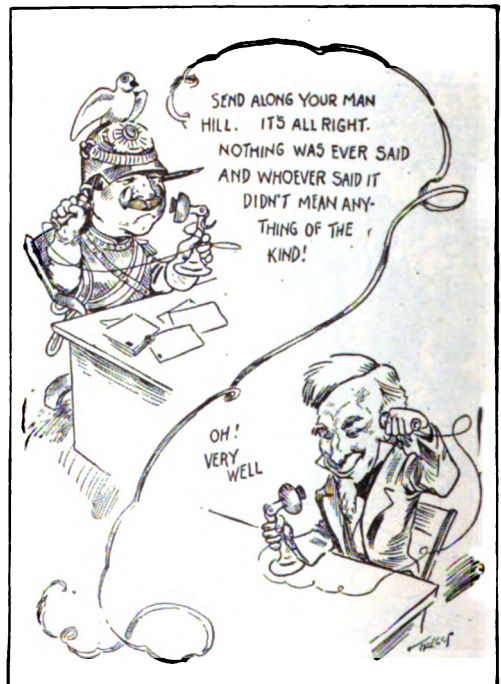
From the *Public Ledger* (Philadelphia).



UNDER THE DEMOCRATIC PLUM TREE.

JUDSON HARMON: "I wonder if they'll let me pick that top one."

From the *Meddler* (Cincinnati).



ANOTHER DIPLOMATIC INCIDENT CLOSED.

From the *Press* (New York).

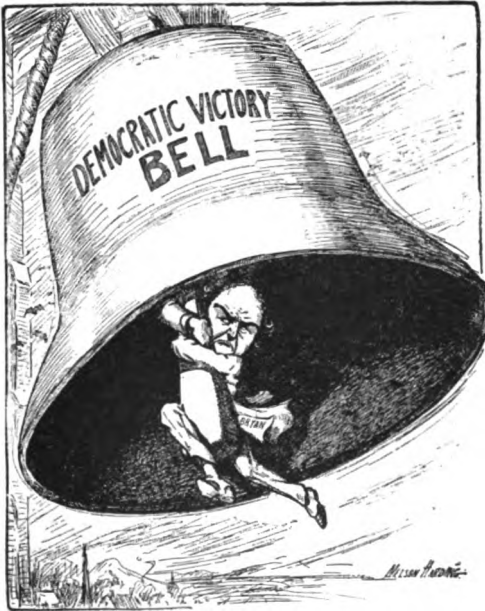


A PICTURE WHICH COMPELS HER ATTENTION.

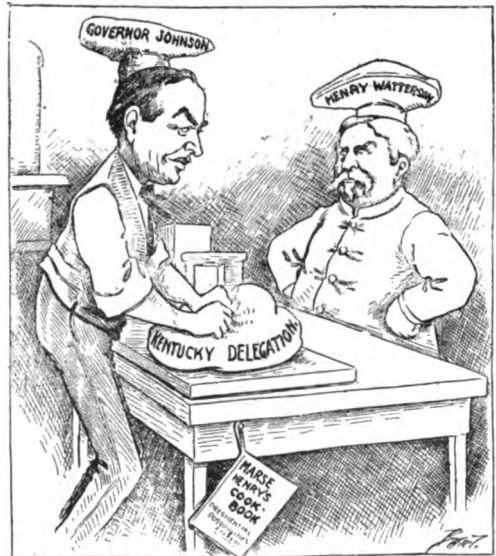
BRYAN: "Come away, Aunt Demmy; you're forgetting me."

MISS DEMOCRACY: "Don't hurry me, William. This strikes me as worth studying."

From the *Saturday Globe* (Utica).



THE SILENT BELL—WHY IT NEVER RINGS.  
From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).



"BREAD IN OLD KENTUCKY."

Taking lessons from an old hand at the business.

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



"HIT HARD, UNCLE."

Appropos of President Roosevelt's anti-anarchist message.

From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).



A WELCOME SPRING OPENING.  
From the *Globe* (New York).



THE ATLAS OF THE NATION.

On the shoulders of the American farmer rests the world.

From the *Constitution* (Atlanta).

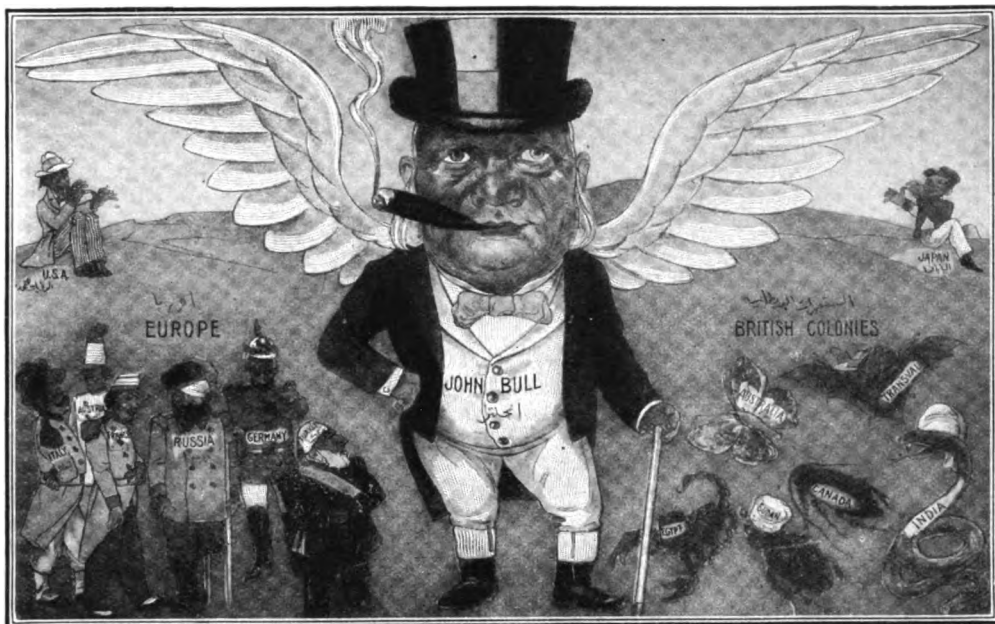


THE LAST STAND AT ALBANY.

Is bribery to be always the successful weapon?

From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).





A CURIOUS EGYPTIAN VIEW OF INTERNATIONAL POLITICS.

**JOHN BULL:** "I am absolute master of the seas and sovereign of all lands; and all the inhabitants of the East and West are submissive to me."

**JAPAN (talking to America):** "May Washington's bones be sanctified; without him you would still be crawling among those vile insects."

**AMERICA:** "I beg Him who has given me my liberty to strew under the feet of this giant, wherever he passes, as many Washingtons as he deserves, to pull down his pride."

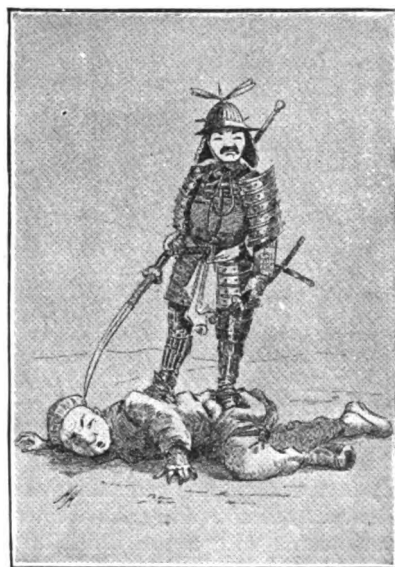
From the *Punch* (Cairo).



UNCLE SAM ENTERS THE JAPANESE BALLROOM.

Apropos of Japan's request that the American fleet visit Japan.

From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).



"THE SAVIOR OF MANCHURIA."

Japan, having driven the Russians out of Southern Manchuria, now proceeds to exploit the country for her own exclusive benefit.

From *Eastern Sketch* (Shanghai).

## LÁSZLÓ AND HIS PORTRAIT OF THE PRESIDENT.

IN April there was exhibited at Knoedler's Gallery in New York a group of paintings by Philip A. László, the Hungarian artist. Among them were portraits of President Roosevelt, Mrs. Meyer, wife of the Postmaster-General, and H. L. Terrell, Esq. The portrait of President Roosevelt was painted for Lieut. Henry Lee, formerly military attaché of the British Embassy.



PHILIP A. LÁSZLÓ.

It presents President Roosevelt in black riding dress, with a cape, lined with purple, thrown over his shoulders. The canvas has been pronounced one of the best likenesses of a long line of portraits of the President by both foreign and American painters, and artistically is a striking achievement.

László paints with a full brush, a broad stroke, and a *prima*,—that is, he tries to obtain his effects at the first painting, finishing one part at a time,—the head before the shoulders, the shoulders before the hands,—and the result is a freshness reminding one of Franz Hals' portraits.

In the portrait of the President one notes the artist's keen observation of the planes of the head, especially in the upper part. There is, however, in the rather brusque rendering of the nose and lower lip a suggestion of foreign observation. Indeed, it is rare that an artist can paint a citizen of another country without giving his sitter a slightly foreign air. But on giving the portrait careful consideration we can appreciate the value of a presentation that is not pompous nor official, but intimate and frank, and the fact that Mr. László's fresh, unprejudiced observation, backed by habitual skill in rendering men and women of forceful character, has given us a valuable addition to modern portraits of celebrities.

Mr. László, who is at present a resident of London, was born in 1869, in Budapest, where he received his first art instruction. Later he studied, at the cost of the state, in Munich and Paris, under Liezenmayer, Lefevre, and Constant. He received the Bavarian King's medal at the Munich Academy in 1891, and a prize of 3000 francs from the Hungarian Art Association. In 1892 he painted his first portrait, a likeness of his master, Professor Liezenmayer, and was then commissioned by the Hungarian Government to copy the portrait in Dresden of Prince Rákocsy for the Hungarian Museum. Then followed orders for portraits of Princess Frederick August of Saxony, the Hungarian Ambassador, Count Chotek, which received a bronze medal at the Mellenium Exhibition at Budapest, and a portrait of the Grand Duke of Saxe-Weimar, for which he received the Order of the Knight of the Falcon. In Berlin he painted the Prime Minister, Prince Hohenlohe, which received a gold medal at the Paris Salon. The artist then went to Potsdam, where he painted the Empress of Germany and the little Princesses.

Mr. László has painted the portrait of Pope Leo XIII.,—for which he was made a knight of the Order of Pius IX.,—and of Cardinal Rampolla. For these two portraits he received gold medals at the Paris Salon, Düsseldorf, Vienna, and Munich. He also received a gold medal at St. Louis.

In 1907 he received a gold medal for a portrait of his wife, at the International Ex-



THE LATEST PORTRAIT OF PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT, BY THE HUNGARIAN PAINTER, PHILIP A. LÁSZLÓ.

hibition at Venice. The Vatican bought this painting for the Modern Art Gallery at Rome. In 1907 he painted the Grand Duke and Duchess of Hesse-Darmstadt, and last summer he painted King Edward and Queen Alexandra. He has made several portraits of the Emperor Franz Josef, who presented

him with the Order of the Iron Crown. In 1905 Mr. László was elected Chevalier of the Legion of Honor. He is a member of the Art Association of Madrid, an honorary member of the Royal Society of British Artists, and a correspondent member in the Société des Beaux Arts, Brussels.



## DR. WILEY, GOVERNMENT CHEMIST.

BY SNELL SMITH.

**L**AST month Dr. Harvey Washington Wiley rounded out a quarter of a century of continuous and distinguished service as chief of the Bureau of Chemistry in the Department of Agriculture, and in commemoration of that event leaders in the fields of chemistry, medicine, and scientific agriculture gathered in New York City to do him honor. Although it was the recently successful movement for a national pure-food law that brought Dr. Wiley most prominently before the country, he and his bureau have done immensely valuable work along other lines also. The oleomargarine law was more or less the direct result of investigations by the Bureau of Chemistry, and this bureau also deserves credit for its vastly important achievements in improving the grade and increasing the yield of a number of agricultural products through experiments with and analyzation of soils.

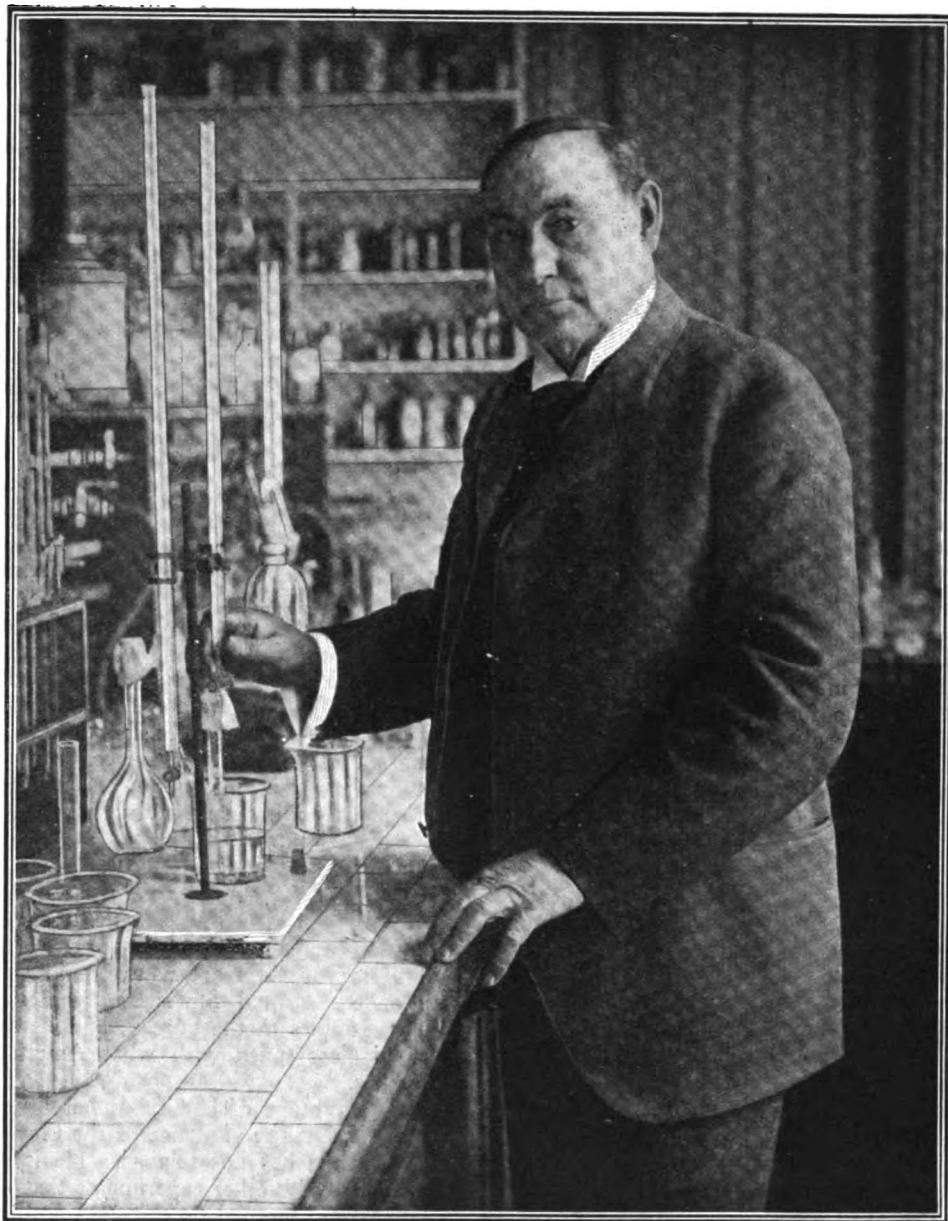
Dr. Wiley was graduated from Harvard in 1873, and the next year became professor of chemistry in Purdue University, taking on also, in 1881, the duties of State Chemist of Indiana. It was in 1883 that his connection with the Government began. He had been sent by Governor Porter, of Indiana, as a delegate to represent the State at an agricultural convention,—a rare occurrence in those days. There he met the Hon. George B. Loring, then United States Commissioner of Agriculture. The two men spoke from the same platform. Commissioner Loring was impressed with Dr. Wiley's argument in favor of transferring the weather branch of the Signal Corps to the Department of Agriculture, a suggestion which was afterward carried out. Mr. Loring thereupon offered Dr. Wiley the position of chief of the Bureau of Chemistry of the Department of Agriculture. The offer was accepted, and from that time the development of that bureau and its activities became Dr. Wiley's life-work. To-day he is recognized as one of the world's great chemists, with a membership in many foreign and American scientific societies.

Arriving in Washington to take up the duties of his new post, Dr. Wiley found his

quarters confined to a laboratory in the basement of the antiquated Agricultural Department building and a little office upstairs. His full working force consisted of four assistant chemists and a dish-washer. The first year's appropriation for the work of the bureau was \$15,000. During the fiscal year which will end on June 30 of this year Dr. Wiley finds himself in charge of a corps of 350 persons, 200 of them chemists, and the budget of the bureau will total \$800,000. It is interesting to note that the appropriation for the entire Department of Agricultural in 1883, when Dr. Wiley began his work in Washington, was only \$250,000.

One of Dr. Wiley's chief characteristics has always been a capacity for hard work. As soon as he took hold of the little bureau he began a wide range of experiments. Sugar was one of the first things to claim his attention. At that time this industry was confined to cane-growing in Louisiana. He experimented in soils, found where the sugar-beet would grow, advertised the facts in his bulletins, and soon saw practical results. The great sugar-beet production of Michigan and Colorado afterward sprang up like magic. The experiments of the bureau increased the average yield per ton of the Louisiana cane fully 30 per cent. When Dr. Wiley first visited that State, in 1884, not a sugar chemist was to be found. Now almost every plantation has one, and every factory has a corps.

Dr. Wiley had conducted his earliest experiments in scientific agriculture at Purdue University, where he studied the problem of the production of sugar and syrup from sorghum cane and the relation of the glucose industry to agriculture. As a result of these studies the culture of sorghum in Indiana and adjoining States was greatly extended. There also he investigated the chemical control of fertilizers and was made State Chemist by act of the Legislature. He was charged with the investigation of all fertilizing materials sold in the State. These investigations led the farmers of Indiana to the scientific use of fertilizers and increased the output of the crops without extending the acreage.



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DR. HARVEY W. WILEY, OF THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

When called to Washington Dr. Wiley continued his studies along this line and inaugurated the first experiments in the improvement of crops by scientific selection. In a series of selections based on scientific analyses, extending over eight years, he succeeded in establishing, in collaboration with the late A. A. Denton, of the Department of Agriculture, four new varieties of sorghum cane. These contained 14 per cent. of sugar in-

stead of the 10 per cent. in the original parent canes. Dr. Wiley's chief achievement in scientific agriculture is found in his investigations of the effect of the environment,—that is, soil, fertilizer, rainfall, sunshine, and temperature,—upon the chemical composition of plants. These investigations revealed in a marked degree the influence of each element upon the plant, and opened up the possibility of developing its more useful

properties to the exclusion of the less valuable. The results in regard to the sugar-beet have already been published. Those on Indian corn and wheat and barley are to follow.

It may be said without exaggeration that Dr. Wiley has accomplished more than any other living man in the work of placing agriculture on a more scientific basis. He has helped to make the work of the farmers more effective and productive. The most useful changes that have been produced in the United States in the last twenty-five years in the field of agriculture are directly traceable to the influence and activity of the agricultural chemists throughout the country. In all their activities Dr. Wiley has been the leading spirit.

But it was his experiments with foods that brought Dr. Wiley fame. He began work along this line in 1885, when not a State in the Union had a food commissioner. Under general authority to make "such investigations as pertain to the interests of agriculture," Dr. Wiley began to purchase samples of various kinds of food, carried them off to his workshop for analysis, and found some interesting results. Part of the lard turned out to be beef fat. A considerable proportion of the maple sugar, molasses, and honey was found to be glucose. Beers and wines were adulterated to an alarming extent. In various prepared foods in which preservatives were used he found harmful quantities of salicylic acid, formaldehyde, sulphate of copper, borax, and benzoate of soda.

Bulletins were issued giving information of the insidious poisons in some of the foods offered to the public, but at first little interest was shown. To convince the people as a whole Dr. Wiley decided to give them a unique object-lesson. Seven years ago he organized what is known as the "poison squad," so-named by the Washington newspaper correspondents, who had fun with it, but have widely advertised it ever since. Twelve young men, employees of the bureau, volunteered as subjects for experiment. The men pledged themselves to remain as boarders under the direct care of Dr. Wiley for a year. They were given the best selected food in the market, and when about half way through each meal every member of the squad was given a small capsule containing a preservative of the kind that was being used by some manufacturers in

preserving foods. The amount was approximately that which the users of such foods took into their systems every day. No member of the squad was allowed to eat anything outside of the rations put before him at the Government boarding-house. At the end of a year Dr. Wiley had some startling results to place before the public. He had proved his case by actual experiment. The poisons taken with the foods had broken down the health of a number of the men. The conclusions from the data gathered from these experiments have been of vital interest to physicians and chemists the world over.

With the results of his experiments Dr. Wiley went to Congress, carrying with him from his laboratory what appeared to be a miniature apothecary shop, and displayed the incontrovertible proof before the members of the proper committees of the House and the Senate. He interested Representative James R. Mann, of Illinois, and Senators Heyburn, of Idaho, and McCumber, of North Dakota. With them he worked out a bill which finally became a law practically as it was framed. Every article of food now sold in the United States,—in so far as it enters into interstate commerce,—is subject to expert inspection, and if found to contain any injurious preservative or adulterant the manufacturer is liable to a heavy penalty.

With Dr. Wiley on guard in the Bureau of Chemistry now there is little likelihood of any let-up in the strict enforcement of the law. His inspectors are watching in every part of the United States and constantly sending samples to the bureau, and he thus keeps in close touch with what Americans are eating.

The percentage of bad foods has become very small, but the vigilance of the Government Chemist has not relaxed. He is also going ahead with other experiments that will be heard from in good time.

Dr. Wiley has found time, in spite of his pressing duties, to indulge in considerable literary activity, resulting in valuable contributions to the periodical press, and Government bulletins and scientific papers galore. Several substantial volumes also stand to his credit, the most notable being "Principles and Practice of Agricultural Chemistry," "Foods and Their Adulteration," and "Beverages and Their Adulterations."

## WHAT MEDICINE OWES TO ROBERT KOCH.

**B**ACTERIOLOGY, since it became a real science, has been the foundation of most of the progress made in medicine and surgery during the past quarter of a century. In this advance no name occupies a more illustrious and honored place than that of Robert Koch, who developed and elaborated the discoveries and theories of Lister, Pasteur, and others, and vastly improved the methods and technique of bacteriological investigation until it has become the real science of preventive medicine.

Dr. Koch's entire life has been given to painstaking and persevering but bold and original research in medicine, particularly in the development and extension of our knowledge of the disease-bearing germs and their behavior under all possible conditions affecting human health.

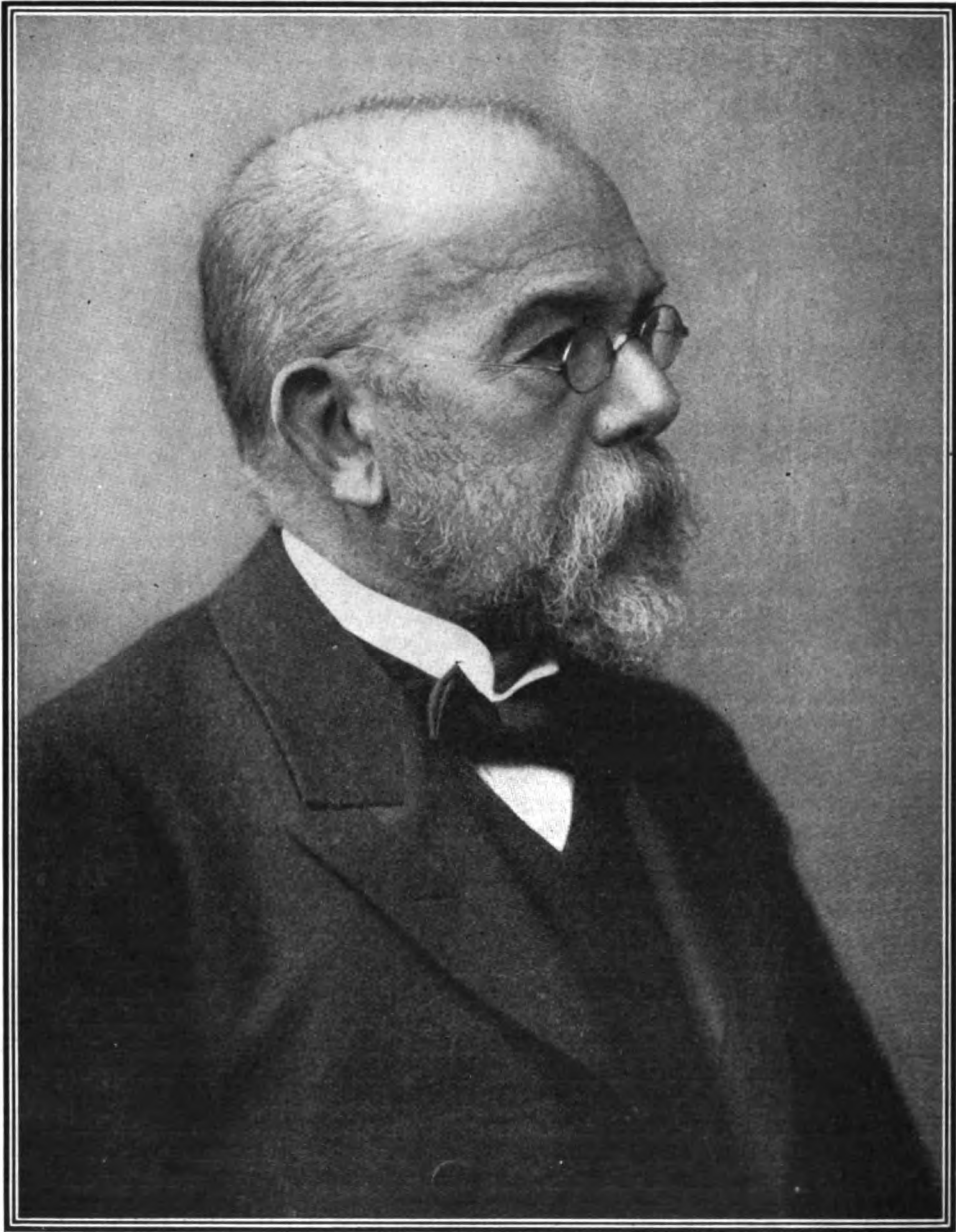
This hearty, genial, spectacled German professor, who last month began a brief American tour, has just completed a year and a half of close study in South Africa on an island in Lake Victoria Nyanza, studying the "sleeping sickness." For this strange, fatal malady he has already discovered a palliative, if not a cure. Dr. Koch's career as investigator began after his graduation in 1866 from the University of Göttingen. During the fourteen years following, which he spent as a humble practicing physician in several small towns of eastern Prussia, he was studying bacteriology, then a comparatively unknown science. As early as 1876 he had isolated the bacillus of anthrax. That this disease,—splenic fever, as it is sometimes called,—to which cattle and sheep are subject and which sometimes attacks man, was caused by a bacillus had been demonstrated in 1863 by the French scientist Davaine. It was Koch, however, who first worked out the life history of this organism and showed conclusively its causal relation to the disease itself. The germ of anthrax was the first discovery of those micro-organisms, or bacilli, which we now know to be the cause of infectious disease in men and animals.

Preventive inoculation against disease by the use of a serum or lymph,—the development of the Jenner method of vaccination,—is a method one might almost say originated by Dr. Koch. After his discoveries as to the nature of the bacillus causing anthrax, and

the publication of some admirable literature on the subject, Koch devoted himself to the study of the tuberculosis germ and to the so-called "comma" bacillus identified with the cause of cholera. It was by the discovery and use of tuberculin (popularly known as "Koch's lymph") that his fame became world-wide. This tuberculin, which he prepared in 1891, he himself claimed to be useful only in pulmonary tuberculosis, confining its use to the comparatively early stages of the disease. A good deal of undeserved criticism was passed upon Dr. Koch because of the failure of this tuberculin to fulfill certain popular hopes. It was used in unsuitable cases, in too large doses, and without certain necessary precautions which had been prescribed, and, of course, failed to work the almost miraculous cures expected of it. As an agent of proved value in certain cases, however, its importance in medicine is unquestioned. Dr. Koch, strange to say, at present holds that tuberculosis in man is a disease distinct from tuberculosis in cattle and other lower animals, and he denies the possibility of the transmission of the disease from these animals to man. The great majority of the medical profession, however, now holds to the contrary view.

Koch's investigations and discoveries with regard to the cholera bacillus have been the foundation of investigations carried on in Egypt, in India, and in other Asiatic countries, and have made possible a much more definite knowledge of epidemic cholera conditions and methods of preventing the spread of this dread disease.

Wide and generous recognition of Dr. Koch's scientific achievements has been given him, not only by his own but by other governments. In 1880 he became a member of the force of the Imperial Health Office at Berlin. Three years later he was made Privy Councillor, and in 1885 he was appointed director of the new Hygienic Institute of the University of Berlin. He went to Italy, Egypt, and India in 1884 as the head of the German Cholera Commission, and on his return was decorated by the Emperor and presented with 100,000 marks in recognition of his services in discovering the cholera bacillus. A year later he went to France as the German Government's official cholera



DR. ROBERT KOCH, THE EMINENT GERMAN BACTERIOLOGIST.

commissioner. In 1891, upon the founding of the Institute for Infectious Diseases in the German capital, Dr. Koch was made director. Twice, in 1896 and in 1903, he went to South Africa to study the rinderpest, and in 1897 he took an extended trip through German East Africa to study malaria. In 1905 he was awarded the Nobel Prize for

achievements in physiology. His best-known works are (we give the English titles): "On Cholera Bacteria," "On Bacteriological Investigation," and "The Investigation of Pathogenic Organisms."

Dr. Koch is on his way to Japan, to study, it is reported, the progress made by Japanese military medical science.

# THE NEW NATION TO THE NORTH.

BY AGNES C. LAUT.

THIS summer there will be held in Quebec City the three-hundredth anniversary of the founding of the first fort built in what is now British North America. This celebration marks the beginning of things with Canada as a nation, and Canada as a nation has suddenly become a topic of live interest to the American people. The Dominion is the United States' nearest neighbor,—nearest as to place, race, speech, and financial interests. The United States yearly sends to Canada almost 100,000 settlers, and this number does not include the Pullman-passenger class of people, the American capitalists who exploited the nickel fields of Sudbury and the silver mines of Cobalt, the band of wealthy promoters who are to-day,—at this moment of writing,—sending in a secret expedition provisioned for three years to prospect the minerals of the Hinterland round Hudson Bay. Official immigration figures do not enumerate the American land promoters who have overrun Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Alberta by the thousands, buying up large tracts of land by the millions of acres. Nor does that total take account of the big lumbering syndicates, which have bought up limits from Bush River near the Columbia to Smokey River and the Peace. Official records have no cognizance of New York capitalists backing ventures to run railroads to the big asphalt beds of Athabasca and Mackenzie River, which were regarded ten years ago as the backyards of the North Pole.

## A HALF-MILLION AMERICAN IMMIGRANTS.

For seven years the number of American settlers going into Northwestern Canada has fluctuated from 59,000 to something over 100,000 a year. In other words, counting promoters and capitalists, more than half a million Americans have gone into Canada in the last seven years; and the extraordinary thing about it is that even the homesteaders have been a moneyed class. They have been Western American farmers who have sold their land in Nebraska and Kansas and Missouri and the Dakotas and Minnesota and Iowa for from \$50 to \$150 an acre, and with that amount have moved into Canada, homesteading a quarter-section and buying adjoin-

ing sections. A railroad man told me some three years ago that very few of the American settlers going into Canada arrived with smaller capital than \$3000, and that many of them had as much as \$10,000. I am not overstating it at a guess if I suppose that the American settlers going into Canada average up a capital of at least \$1000 each. That means that \$500,000,000 of American money has gone into Canada in the past few years, not counting what has gone for stocks and bonds. For instance, the Morgan house took \$10,000,000 of Mackenzie-Mann or Canada Northern Railroad bonds two years ago; and that amount is a mere bagatelle compared to holdings of other bankers in other ventures, like banking and municipal bonds. And the next five years will see an increasing influx both of people and of capital. Two weeks ago J. K. Cornwall, the Athabasca transportation man, was called to New York to confer on the building of a railroad to,—where do you imagine? To Mackenzie River.

More facts need not be adduced to prove that Canada and the United States are near neighbors as to financial interests, but if you think that means annexation, you are mistaken. You can search Canada from Halifax to Victoria and you cannot find one genuinely sincere annexationist who is a representative man, except Goldwin Smith, and he is not a Canadian. He is an English scholar whom Canadians are proud to have among them, but his sentiments on annexation are not the sentiments of the Canadian people. The fact that there is absolutely no annexation sentiment in Canada may not please certain theorists, but it is a fact, and we have to accept it and acknowledge that the United States has solely and wholly herself to thank for the fact. Canada has been forced into the self-reliance of nationhood independent of the United States by the American policy toward her.

## INDIRECT RESULTS OF OUR TARIFF POLICY.

Look at the map: Canada is 3000 miles broad at her greatest width. The natural course of trade would have been north and south across an invisible boundary, instead of east and west across barren wastes between

isolated provinces, but the United States erected a tariff wall that shut out Canadian trade. Yet more, at repeated conferences from 1860-'70, when John Macdonald went to Washington, to 1899, when Sir Wilfrid Laurier trekked to the same Mecca of Canadian trade hopes, the United States absolutely refused to make special concessions to Canada in the way of trade. What has been the result? Put in a nutshell, this:

**Confederation:** Sir John Macdonald saw that the only hope of Canada lay in the union of the provinces and inter-provincial trade,—though one side of Canada lay 3000 miles from the other side.

**Railways:** The Intercolonial was built to connect Ontario and Quebec with the Maritime Provinces; the Canadian Pacific was planned to connect the provinces from Atlantic to Pacific. To-day the Grand Trunk Pacific and the Canada Northern are being pushed westward for practically the same reason,—to carry trade east and west, instead of north and south.

**The Canal System:** If Canada's hope lay in movements of traffic east and west, then her inland waters must be connected. Incidentally it may be stated that through the Canadian Sault Canal passes more traffic than through the Suez.

**The Preferential Tariff to Britain:** If the United States would not trade with Canada, then special concessions must be made by Canada to attract British trade, and the reduction of 25 per cent. on all British imports was made.

**Penny Postage to British Possessions:** With an aim which I need not give.

**The Sending of Canadian Troops to the Boer War:** Which means that Canada is ready to take her place in the empire with all attendant obligations.

**The All Red Route:** Which is now the favorite scheme of Canadian statesmen to belt the globe with a line of purely British steamships and so forever render Canada independent of harbor and terminal facilities in the United States. Whether this scheme will materialize remains to be seen.

#### HOW CANADA BECAME A NATION.

Look back forty years! Suppose when Sir John went to Washington in 1871 he had secured for Canada the free entrance of all raw products,—suppose, I say,—can you conceive of Canada's railways and canals running east and west instead of north and south; of Canada literally forcing British

trade by a reduced tariff; of Canada planning closer relations with the British Empire by penny-post and military service in foreign wars and subsidizing of British steamships round the world?

If you read Sir John's private letters you will find expressed over and over the conviction that the only hope for Canadian nationality, for Canadian safety, lay in union, in confederation; but the Civil War had taught Canada one effective lesson,—the weakness of federation unless authority were centralized; and when Canada followed the example of the American federated colonies she shunned their one great error. In the United States all affairs not specifically delegated to federal authority are supposed to be under States' rights. In Canada all affairs not specifically delegated to the provinces are supposed to be under federal control.

#### A QUARTER-CENTURY'S GROWTH.

This national development took time in the progress of Canada. She seemed to be standing still. In reality she was only getting up steam.

Twenty-five years ago Canada had not 2000 miles of railroads. To-day she has 23,000 miles. Then she had no transcontinental road. To-day she has three.

Twenty-five years ago her total output of gold for all time did not exceed \$50,000,000. To-day she has taken out of Klondike alone more than \$100,000,000.

In 1851 Canada's total trade was \$34,000,000. To-day it is over \$550,000,000.

In 1851 her population was not 3,000,000. To-day it is almost 7,000,000.

In 1851 Manitoba's population was not 18,000. To-day it is almost 500,000.

In 1871 there was only one small town on the Canadian Pacific Coast,—Victoria. To-day there are two large cities, and a third city is in the making,—Prince Rupert, the terminus of the Grand Trunk Pacific,—and there are hundreds of smaller towns.

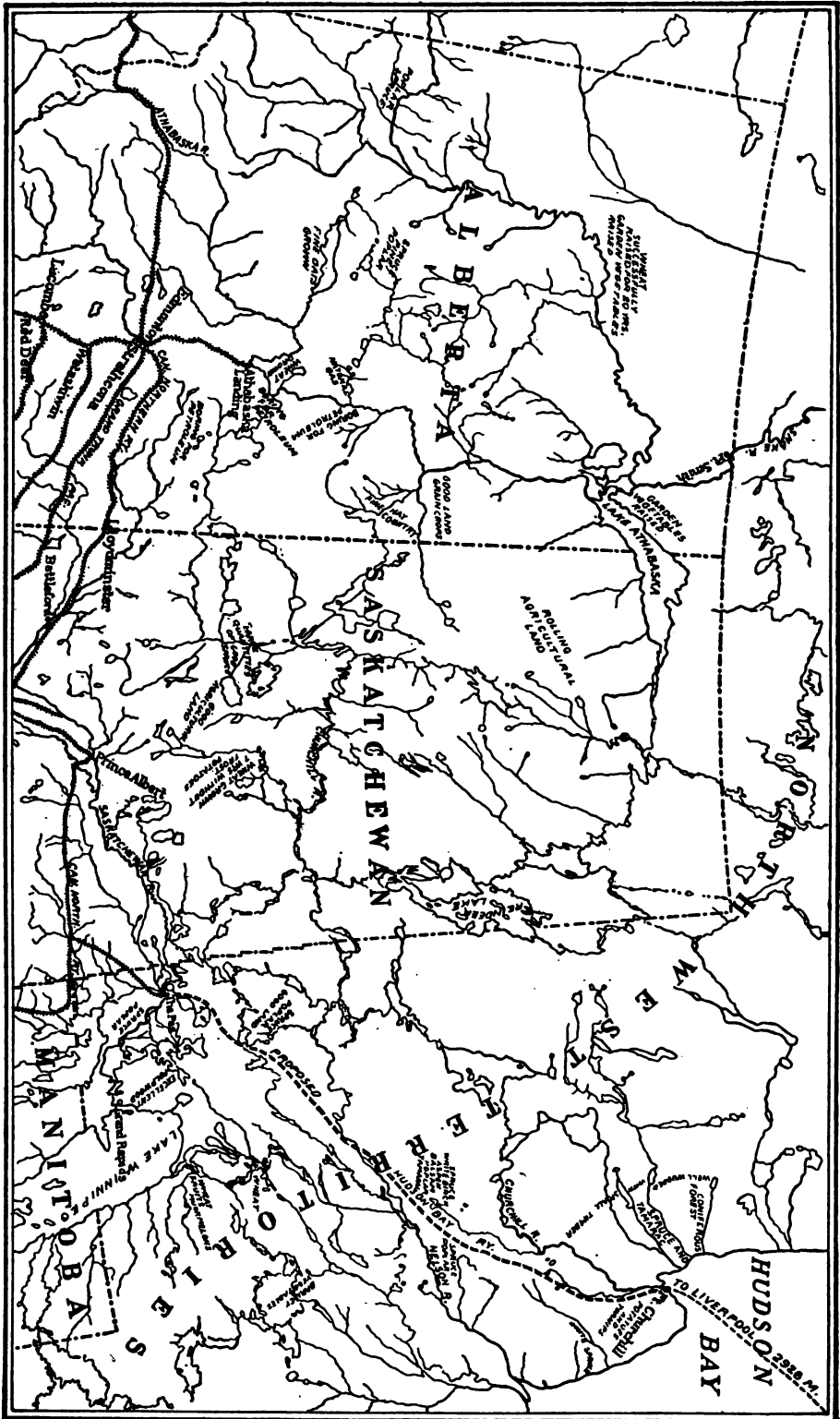
Twenty-five years ago you could not sell Northwest land at \$1.50 an acre. To-day the minimum price runs from \$6 to \$10.

As late as 1903 Manitoba was proud of raising 47,000,000 bushels of wheat. To-day her record is 87,000,000 bushels.

#### WHY CANADIAN WHEAT EXCELS.

And withal, note this: Only one-tenth of Canada's fertile lands are occupied. In area Canada is, roughly speaking, the size of Europe. In size Eastern Canada equals Italy.





A MAP TO INDICATE THE ECONOMIC POSSIBILITIES OF THE CANADIAN NORTHWEST.

(This map, which was prepared by the Bureau of Railway and Swamp Lands, which is a part of the Department of the Interior of the Canadian Government, indicates the agricultural and mineral actualities and possibilities of the three provinces, Alberta, Saskatchewan, and the Northwest Territories. The new railroads,—the Grand Trunk Pacific, the Canadian Northern, and the Hudson Bay lines,—are also indicated.)

Spain, Turkey, Greece, Austria, and Germany. The Maritime Provinces are about the same area as England. Quebec is a third larger than Germany, Ontario a third larger than France. Labrador or Ungava is about equal to Austria. Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta, British Columbia equal a country four times the size of the German Empire; and that does not take into account Mackenzie River and the Athabasca, which may be compared to European Russia.

"But,"—you object,—“aren't Mackenzie River and Athabasca backyards of the North Pole?” I used to think so; and I'll be able to say more when I come back from both regions next fall; but I was basing my opinion on the daily journals of fur-traders; and some revolutionary experiments have been going on in these sections for the past twelve years which are definite enough now for the facts to be made public.

"Our big millers prefer your Canadian wheat," said an agricultural expert of Minnesota to me apropos of the request of the American Millers' Federation to admit Canadian wheat free of duty.

"Why?"

"It produces whiter flour, better bread."

"Why?"

"Because of the long sunlight. There is some mysterious something absorbed from the sun which makes for perfect kernel; and though the Northwest season is short,—last frost in May, first frost in September, if not late August,—you have such long daylight,—from four in the morning till ten at night,—almost glare, sunlight undiluted by humid air, that if you added up the total hours of sunlight you'd find the north-grown cereal got more sunlight than the south-grown. You'll find the farther north a cereal can be grown, yes,"—seeing me smile,—“the nearer to the Pole you can grow it to full maturity, the bigger the yields you are going to have,—sixty and seventy bushels to the acre of wheat,—and the better the quality.”

Now, the bearing of this on Mackenzie River and Athabasca and Peace River,—an area fit for settlement estimated altogether at 200,000,000 acres,—look at the map! Up on Peace River, between 55 and 60 degrees, is a little fur-post marked Fort Vermillion. About twelve years ago some samples of soft wheat,—Ladoga, they call it now, but that wasn't what they called it when it came,—were sent up from Kansas and Illinois. It was a *soft fall* wheat for a country where the thermometer goes to 40

below and the ground freezes to a depth of five feet. It was too late to plant it that fall; so they planted it in spring; and it yielded a *hard wheat* harvest of from fifty-five to sixty bushels to the acre. A year ago Kansas sent up for some samples of that wheat of hers, and Peace River sent down *hard spring wheat* to Kansas,—a *species literally made over by the long sunlight of the north*. Wheat has been grown at Fort Providence, on Great Slave Lake, north of 60 degrees. In this Athabasca country there are large enough asphalt beds to pave all America.

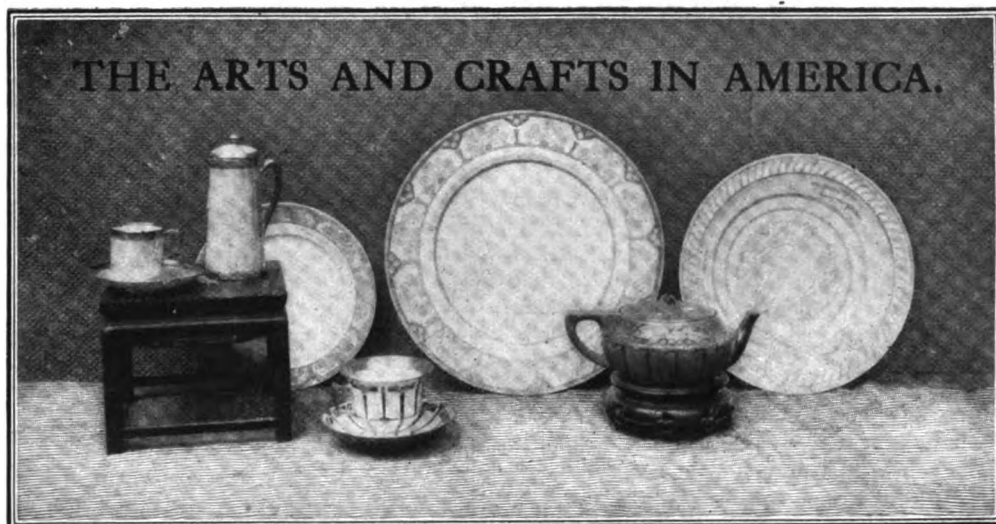
"How about that wheat story?" I asked a resident of Peace River, J. K. Cornwall. Here is his answer: "We are milling our own flour from our own wheat in our own mills." And this is the backyard of the North Pole.

#### FARMING LANDS ONLY ONE-TENTH TAKEN.

"Why did the Western boom collapse if Canada is still forging ahead?" That is best answered in the words of Barnum, "There's one born every minute." And whenever so many investors of the Barnum sort buy city lots,—*city lots, mark you*,—seven miles from the heart of a city that has no existence except in the dot on the map or in a lone flat-car dumped on the prairie; whenever so many investors do that sort of thing blindly, they are apt to give the investment a hard name. But the genuine farm-land is still there, and the fertility is still there, and the *bona fide* settlers are still flocking westward, 250,000 a year.

The great westward movement in the United States began in 1857. It took just fifty years to fill up the best free lands of the United States. It will take less time in Canada, for 1,500,000 European immigrants yearly cross the Atlantic. These push into the States, and farmers in the States in turn sell their lands to the newcomers and push over into Canada. Besides, when the movement took place to the Western States there were no railroads. People migrated from New England to the Mississippi in canvas-top wagons,—a journey that took six months. To-day, railways gridiron the West. A man can go from New York to within ninety miles of the Athabasca in less than five days.

With one-tenth of her fertile lands occupied, Canada numbers a population of almost 7,000,000. When all her lands are occupied she will have a population equal to the United States.



DECORATED PORCELAIN (OVERGLAZE), BY MRS. ANNA B. LEONARD.

(The flat bowl at the right is decorated with the water lily motif, blossoms and buds in two shades of soft blues, leaves in cool greens. The decorations of the teapot are bronze, dark green and gold, rich in tone. The other pieces are in enamels, blues, and greens with touches of gold.)

BY ERNEST KNAUFFT.

**A**BOUT twenty years ago there appeared in literature the expression "Arts and Crafts," and readers wondered at the significance of the term. Why not the old appellation "Decorative Art?" This expression did not seem to suit the conditions of the times. An expression was needed that would qualify the movement that had taken place all over Europe, for which William Morris stands as the ideal exemplar, and by studying the propaganda of William Morris we arrive at the kernel of the arts and crafts principles.

William Morris was, like many artists before him, a decorator, and, like many workers before him, a craftsman, but he differed from the decorators and craftsmen of his time, who were generally each of a separate class. The man who designed the stained glass window did not cut the glass for the window; his work was finished when his design on paper was completed, and to the manufacturer was left the final execution of the drawing.

In thus separating craftsmanship from design, a mechanical standard had arisen that robbed the decorative arts of two of their greatest charms, the personal mark and the mark of the tool. The result was mechanical and commercial production.

Besides being a designer and a craftsman,

William Morris was a poet, a pamphleteer, and a Socialist, and through his writings he did much to awaken the conscience of the public to the fact that honest material and honest workmanship were moral benefits. We cannot separate Morris the artist from Morris the poet and Socialist.

The true significance of the arts and crafts movement is the production of beauty through personal expression by handicraft. Morris designated himself and his fellow-craftsmen as "a small minority composed of educated persons, fully conscious of their aim to produce beauty, and distinguished from the great body of workmen by the possession of that aim," and again he writes, "there is still a minority with a good deal of life in it which is not content with what is called 'utilitarianism,' which, being interpreted, means the reckless waste of life in the pursuit of the means of life."

Probably no period in the history of the art crafts is so base as that of 1850-1860 in England, when the Birmingham silversmiths produced the most perfect conglomeration of rubbish imaginable! Against this condition of things William Morris' propaganda was the first effectual protest, and his principles soon permeated the entire art world. In every country in Europe artists and craftsmen began to execute their own designs in

every possible material. The arts and crafts movement of to-day is the result of this union of design and workmanship.

#### PIONEER MOVEMENTS IN AMERICA.

In America prior to 1876 there had been some slight effort made to foster art craftsmanship. In Cincinnati Ben Pitman had, as early as 1874, interested the women of that city in wood-carving, and in 1875 a ceramic club was organized. In 1880 Miss Maria Longworth, now Mrs. Storer, founded the Rookwood Pottery.

In 1895 the following ladies organized an exhibition of china-painting in Cincinnati: Mrs. S. S. Fletcher, Miss Clara Fletcher, Mrs. L. B. Harrison, Mrs. William Hinckle, Mrs. E. G. Leonard, Miss M. L. McLaughlin, Miss Lincoln, Mrs. A. B. Merriam, Mrs. Richard Mitchell, Miss Clara Newton, Mrs. Maria L. Nichols, Miss Rauchfuss, and Miss Schooley.

Cincinnati has indeed been the cradle of many art-crafts movements, especially in connection with pottery, and it is to be noted that women played an important part in this activity. Miss McLaughlin has long been identified with that city and has mastered almost every form of ceramic decoration, under and over glaze. Of recent years she has made a specialty of "Losanti" ware and "Cincinnati faience."

Miss Laura Fry, the daughter of the well-known wood-carver of Cincinnati, William Fry, served her apprenticeship at the Rookwood Pottery, and has taught both wood-carving and china-decorating for many years in Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind.



WISTERIA VASE, BY MRS. ADELAIDE ALSOP-ROBINEAU.

(In mat green and brown. Background left unglazed and shows vitrified biscuit of uncovered porcelain. Carving executed with fine needle after vase was finished and dry. Snails modeled separately by hand and cemented on the vase with liquid clay.)



LOCKET AND CHAIN, BY JESSIE M. PRESTON.

(The locket is set with a very handsome Wisconsin pearl, a sapphire quiet in color, with none of the brilliant tones best known to the public, and these, with the repoussé gold of the locket, make a most harmonious whole. The gold was largely worked from the top, with here and there the accent from the back, which gives a snap to the leaves. The object of the design was to bring out in low relief the straight lines of the supporting ornament, and is an integral part of the whole. The chain repeats the leaves of the locket design at intervals, thus carrying the interest the length of the chain.)

Mrs. Adelaide Alsop-Robineau, another woman pioneer, has had her studio in Syracuse of recent years. Here she has built a picturesque studio and a kiln near her home, where she has developed several forms of pottery, among them delicate pieces in crystal and *flamme* reds of copper.

#### THE ARTS AND CRAFTS MOVEMENT WIDESPREAD.

The development of the arts and crafts in this country has been rapid and widespread.

The Deerfield, Mass., movement was begun in 1896. The arts and crafts societies there make a specialty of colonial "home industries." Members dye their materials with old-fashioned dyestuffs; they weave bedspreads, table-covers, and curtains, that they afterward embroider in colonial "blue and white." They make rag rugs, raffia, and palm leaf baskets, and they have a museum in which are collected colonial relics.

At "Red House," Laurel, Md., Miss Charlotte Pendleton is not only concerned with weaving,—both rugs and baskets,—but she makes her own dyes,—mainly vegetable dyes,—which she supplies to arts and crafts workers throughout the country.

In the Middle West F. L. Packard, an architect of Columbus, Ohio, has made a specialty of suburban houses, in which he makes a feature of utilizing local material in harmony with the landscape which surrounds the building.

Miss Jessie M. Preston, of Chicago, has conducted a class in jewelry work in Minneapolis, where not only the students are interested in the many branches of the art crafts, but the head of the school, Mary Moulton Cheney, after the end of the school year, makes a point of visiting the exhibitions and posting herself in regard to the work the best artists are doing in Chicago and Boston.

In Massachusetts over thirty years ago Alexander W. Robertson founded the Chelsea Pottery. It is now the Dedham Pottery, and is presided over by his brother Hugh Robertson. Here is made beautiful crackle and blood-red "volcanic" glazes that rival the best Oriental work.

In New Orleans, Prof. William Woodward has organized a class in Tulane University,—from which comes the Newcomb pottery,—taking its name from the "Sophia Newcomb" art school of that University. Here the interesting experiment of allowing the students to work together somewhat in the spirit of the Renaissance has been tried. The pupils work more or less in similar styles, and pride themselves upon the joint output of the studio-shop,—corresponding to the Italian bottega of the Renaissance,—rather than upon their individual efforts. There is a general similarity between all Newcomb pottery, a mark of excellence that the buying public is beginning to recognize, just as there has been a mark of similarity between all



CIDER SET, BY CHARLES VOLKMAR.

(When the desired form fresh from the potter's wheel is complete it is set away to dry and then placed in the kiln for the first burning, being biscuit colored when removed. To this burned clay-form is applied a glaze, a thin coat of a bright surface on the inside, and a heavy coat of soft green [dull finish] on the outside. Then it is placed in the kiln once more, on a tripod-arrangement that keeps it in the air with only three small points of contact while the glaze is in fusion. From this set may be seen what has been done with the beautifying of the common gray pitcher, keeping it at the same time strong and serviceable, plus better proportion, finer line, simple but beautiful color, and soft, delicate surface texture.)

Copenhagen pottery. But the students are not tied down to any special glaze, shape, or color. It is remarkable how admirably they have grasped various styles and developed them with satisfactory results.

In Alfred University, Alfred, N. Y., Prof. Charles F. Binns, who was for many years connected with the Royal Worcester Factory in England, has taught the ceramic arts in a most thorough manner. The facilities in ceramic study for the student are probably greater in this university than in any institution in America,—unless it is in the Ohio State University. Here, by reason of the thoroughness of the instruction and the predilection among the students for "pure forms," "single color," and "undecorated ware," there is a harmony in the entire output of the school. One might almost believe, on seeing the "forms" produced by Mr. Binns' pupils; that he was viewing the work of some Oriental pottery, where grandfather, father, and son worked together in unison, intent upon perfecting the character of their family *genre*, rather than each one asserting his individuality.

Mr. Binns himself is an expert potter and has made a specialty of the ware known as *grès* or *grès de Flandres*. This ware, hitherto unknown in America, was first made in the low countries and in Northern Germany in the sixteenth century.



FERN STAND AND BOWL IN GRÈS, BY CHARLES F. BINNS.

(A. Fern stand in grès. Pedestal also in grès. Pedestal, dark iron gray with mat surface. Bowl, Indian red with slightly mottled surface. B. Bowl in grès. Mat glaze of eggshell blue with gray and brown markings.)





FIGURINE, "THE STUDENT," BY MRS. CAROLINE PEDDLE BALL.

(Memory sketch of a little child. Figurines like this one are first modeled in clay or wax, then cast in plaster. For bronze, when done by the *cere perdue* process, a wax model is cast from the plaster mold, which the sculptor retouches. The mold for the bronze is made around this, in which molten metal is poured. The heat of the molten metal entering the mold melts the wax, which runs out through vents, the bronze taking its place, and a very accurate copy is obtained. The plaster copies are tinted like ivory, wax and colors being employed.)

At Metuchen, N. J., Charles Volkmar has his pottery. He uses clay mined from one of the better grades of clay along the Raritan

River in northern New Jersey. The clay is exposed to the weather for a time to loosen it up, and is then pounded and soaked in tubs, sieved, and run out in plaster basins to harden. When well beaten and manipulated by the potter's wheel, a lump of the proper size is thrown on the disc and worked to the center, then opened by the thumb and drawn up into a hollow form with straight sides; this form with a few touches may be shaped as desired. A steel wire is passed between the clay and the wheel, and the pot removed. When stiff by evaporation the handles,—if any,—are applied and modeled to the form.

In Chicago the Atlan Club, founded in 1893 by Mrs. Le Roy I. Steward, has long fostered the ceramic arts.

The Art Students' League, the Teachers' College, and the Young Women's Christian Association, New York; the Art Academy, Cincinnati; the Art Institute, Chicago; the Herron Institute, Indianapolis; the Art Museum, St. Louis; the Hopkins Institute, San Francisco; the Philadelphia School of Applied Design, and the Lowell Technical School, Massachusetts, all have arts and crafts departments which have proved successful.

The following mention of some other pioneer craftsmen in America will further show how widespread the movement has been: Miss Florence Lundborg, in California, and Will Bradley, in Chicago, designing and engraving posters and illustrations on wood; Charles Rohlf, in Buffalo, executing furniture from his own designs; Miss Starr, in Chicago, teaching and practicing bookbinding at Hull House, and George E. Ohr, of Biloxi, Miss., practicing the pottery arts.

The arts and crafts movement has also influenced the collector as well as the maker of furniture, so that the "Colonial" is appreciated to-day more than ever before, and dealers and householders scour the country in order to pick up specimens of the handwork of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. A large number of books have been published upon the various "periods" of furniture-design, so that the householder now keeps his furniture all in the "Elizabethan," "Jacobean," "Empire," or "Colonial" style; and though many of the arts and crafts workers have followed the *L'Art Nouveau* or "Naturalistic" styles, some of them have made a specialty of reviving with rare sympathy the remote "periods" of the past.

Karl von Rydingsvard has of recent years concentrated his efforts upon the Scandinavian style, and in his teaching in New York

and the Manchester, N. H., Institute, has done much to arouse sympathy among carvers in the old Norse motifs so eminently adapted to wood decoration.

Both the construction and the decoration of Mr. von Rydingsvard's work follow closely the characteristics of the Scandinavian antiques. These antiques were always heavy and strong, the parts being held firmly together with "tenons" through which passed stout wooden pegs, as simple as possible, but strong and bold in design. The projecting dragon-heads were a favorite form of decoration used on prows of warships, roofs of houses, and on furniture, as well as on smaller domestic utensils. Its originality and vigor, so characteristic of the race, have made the Scandinavian style very popular.

In the past artists have shown an abominable lack of taste in the framing of their pictures, but of recent years Hermann Dud-



A WRITING DESK IN EARLY SCANDINAVIAN STYLE, CARVED BY KARL VON RYDINGSVARD.

(The outline drawing of the ornament is first placed on the wood, then with a veining tool a groove is cut outside, following the line of the design. The background is cut down with tools fitting the contours of the pattern, which are held perpendicularly and hammered. The wood must be removed to an even depth, leaving the ornament standing in relief. Then comes the modeling. The entire design is shaped in the rough, obtaining the final contours as nearly as possible. Lastly the background is cleaned out, the details of the ornament are put in, as are the final touches which give individual expression to hand work. To treat the wood, staining, fuming with ammonia, oiling, etc., are resorted to, but a high polish is avoided, as the reflected lights spoil the effect of the decoration.)



PICTURE FRAME, BY HERMANN DUDLEY MURPHY.

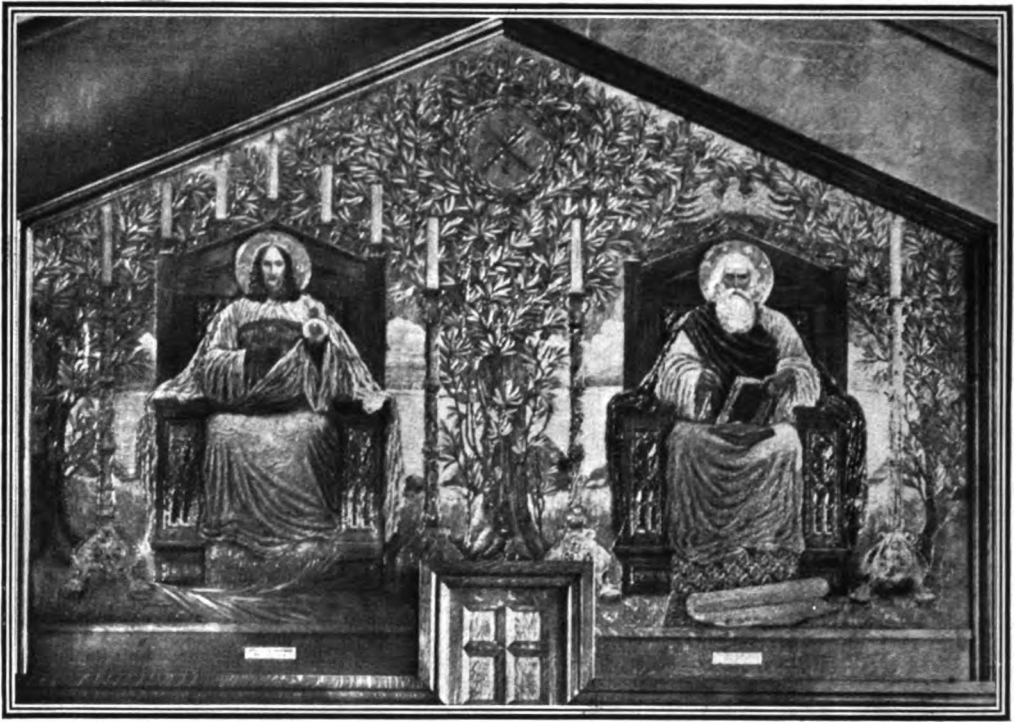
(It is necessary that the frame shall be in harmony with the relief or "value" contrasts of the picture, and repeat in a measure the masses of light and shade, the line or movement giving a suggestion of the color scheme also. It is possible to kill the best picture by a bad frame, and it is also possible to make presentable and attractive a mediocre one, by a perfect setting. The frames are carved from the best and most thoroughly seasoned white pine, prepared with the "gesso" foundation and red clay gold size, and the gold leaf laid on in the old Italian method with water and alcohol. The burnishing is done in a manner not too mechanical, and then the glare of the new red gold is toned down and the red size is allowed to show through, giving the frame a rich, old quality. From notes by Mr. Murphy.)

ley Murphy, of Boston, has come to their assistance, and a number of frames have been designed by him in the true spirit of the Renaissance. These form striking contrasts to the commercial concoctions that we usually see in our art galleries. His frames are made both by carving in wood and by the use of the usual gesso composition.

Mr. Murphy is an instructor and lecturer on art in Harvard University; he has conducted classes in the Art Institute of Chicago, where he has also exhibited his own landscape paintings.

J. William Fosdick, of New York City, has revived an old craft,—namely, incised line painting,—that is, painting on wood, the drawing having been first etched with a hot point; this has proved its fitness for large mural decorations. That one of these is in a church suggests a wide field open to the craftsman,—the decoration of local churches.





REREDOS, BY J. WILLIAM FOSDICK.

Presented by Wm. T. Evans, Esq., to St. John's Episcopal Church at Montclair, N. J.

(The decoration is an important one, being the first incised line painting to be put in a public place,—that is, a painting on wood, the drawing having first been etched with a hot point. The reredos is in rich Venetian reds, blues and greens, much gold being used on candlesticks, aureoles, eagle, and "Christus Rex" over the center. St. John sits writing, balanced by his vision of Christ [Revelations]; Christ enthroned with seven candlesticks, holding in his hand the seven stars. In the center is the tree of life, and beyond the Aegean Sea, over which decorative clouds float.)

#### CULTURE IN THE ARTS AND CRAFTS.

The paramount influence of the arts and crafts is toward a refining culture. He who works with the hand or the tool learns to value simplicity and sincerity and to hate tawdry, superfluous and meaningless ornament. The growth of this culture is worth considering.

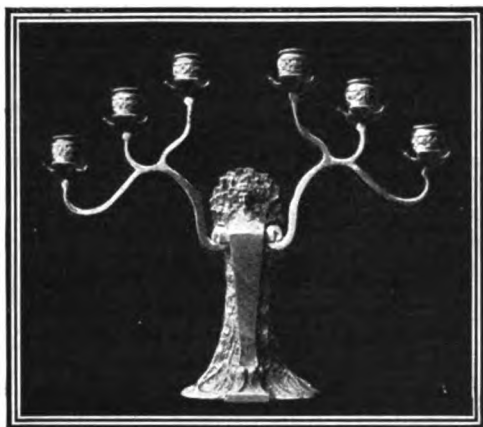
We may first remark that reverse to the law of physical evolution, which is from the simple to the complex, is the arts and crafts evolution, which is from the complex to the simple. At the outset the worker wishes to cover his surface with elaborate pictures or ornaments. By degrees he simplifies his pictures into decorations, his ornaments into patterns, and then becomes enamored of beautiful form and correct construction only.

The amateur china-decorator clamors for a picture of cupids or pansies painted on any porcelain "form" made in a factory, but the expert potter cares more for the organic

"form" of the piece, and wants it to be the work of his own hands. He cares as much for the purity of the glazed surface as for the pictorial matter of the decoration.

Similarly, the beginner at bookbinding plans out an elaborate design, rich with gold tooling, or brilliant with parti-colored mosaic or inlay, but after he becomes expert he is satisfied with a few lines of lettering, framed in a "blind tooled" rectangle, provided the whole is a piece of balanced design, and the book perfect both in sewing and forwarding.

The worker in the arts and crafts is apt to be a person of greater culture and education than the public would surmise is necessary. It is not essential from a technical point of view, but the fascination for the work comes a great deal from having studied the best specimens in foreign or home museums. The person who only sees the handwork that appears in the shops is not apt to have a strong predilection for executing something himself. One usually finds in studying the personal



BRONZE CANDLESTICK, "DIONYSUS," BY CHARLES H. BARR.

(The shaft was modeled in wax, after which plaster impressions of the several parts were taken. Into these parts was poured a pewter liquid; the shaft being then in pewter, all the finishing touches were added before it was used as a model for the bronze. "Better results are obtained in my bronze castings than I get when I use the plaster," says Mr. Barr. "Plaster casts for models in casting in bronze won't stand the treatment nor give the results that I get from metal models." The two arms of the candle holders in this piece were cast separately and assembled.)

side of our exhibitions that the workers predominate who have traveled much and are really conversant with what is produced the world over. Mr. Charles H. Barr, for example, studied the metal work of the museums of Rome, Pompeii, and Naples.

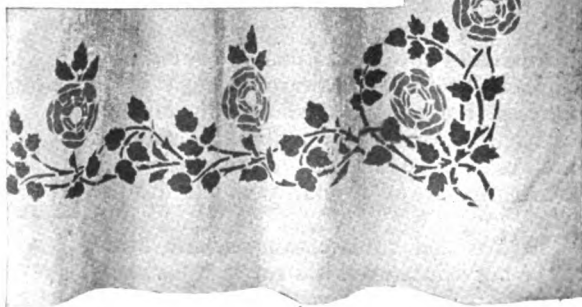
#### THE ARTS AND CRAFTS IN EDUCATION.

Educational organization is by no means perfect in every State, but throughout Massachusetts and many of the large Western cities, like Minneapolis, Indianapolis, and Cincinnati, a carefully considered curriculum gives training to the children from the primary grades up. In Minneapolis the school children in the very lowest grades model in clay simple vases and bowls, which are afterward fired for them at a cost of but a few cents apiece in a kiln owned by one of the art clubs; and if the child wishes to pay this small amount he may take home his work, which at the club has been dipped in a "slip" that after firing results in a glaze of soft color tone. The education of the child's taste by this color-

tone awakens his appreciation of chromatic effects, just as the modeling awakens his appreciation of form; and the vase or bowl made by the child and taken home and kept on the mantelpiece, where it is no doubt discussed by the family and by visitors, becomes an unfailing advocate in favor of the broader culture of the coming American people.

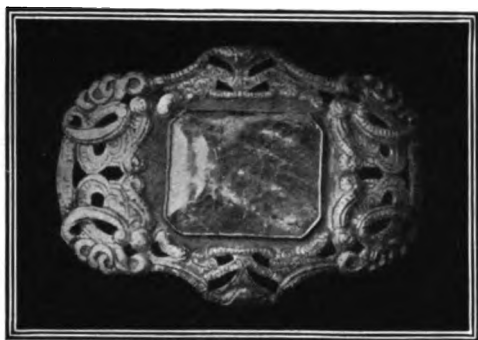
The arts and crafts taste has influenced the manufacturers, though not to so great an extent in this country as in Germany. One to-day may buy so-called "Mission furniture" and textiles decorated in simple patterns in the shops, which, while they are lacking in the true arts and crafts quality of sincerity, are simple in construction, and do much to direct the attention of the public to the charm of the virtue of simplicity in the decorative arts. And one may at least be thankful for the superiority of the furniture seen in the lounging-rooms of our hotels and public buildings to-day as compared with the furnishings found there twenty-five years ago.

The arts and crafts movement in America



RUSSIAN CRASH CURTAIN, STENCILED, BY MRS. MABEL TUKE PRIESTMAN.

(Stencilled with oil paint, diluted with two parts of turpentine, and one part Japan drier, which is applied with a short, round stencil brush. The white hiatuses between the vines show where the "fles" were in the original stencil.)



BUCKLE, BY MARY W. PECKHAM.

(Set with a piece of Labradorite, a grayish blue stone with intense blue showing in certain lights. The design is Maori Indian in character and was first etched and chased, the silver being oxidized dark,—so that the grays of the silver will harmonize with the grays of the stone.)

has received considerable help from the art journals like *The International Studio*, *The Craftsman*, and *The School Arts Book*, that have published from time to time attractive illustrations of the handicraft of to-day.

Outside of the influence of the periodicals, arts and crafts literature has not had as much force in this country as in England, where there have been many text-books and pamphlets published in the interest of both the technique of the craft and of organizing guilds. But the subject of basketry has been fairly well covered by practical books like those by Mary White, and the Smithsonian Institution publications on the basketry of the Indians.

Basket-weaving has been taught in most of the industrial schools of the country, and has been particularly popular with amateurs. It is an art easily learned, the materials are obtained with no great difficulty, and its technique is so entirely manual that the workers who take it up become fascinated with the multitudinous possibilities that lie within the realm of dexterity, and learn through it to appreciate not only the wonderfully pliable and supple "weaves" of Indian baskets, but enthusiastically enter into the fascination of the irregularity of regularity in all handicrafts.

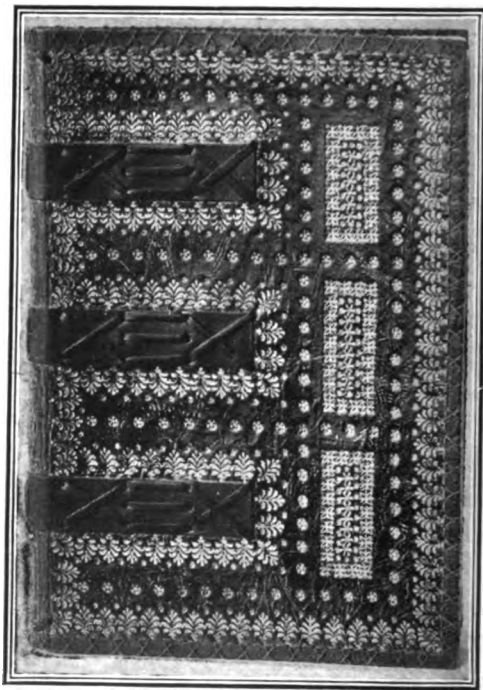
The arts and crafts movement has been felt in our educational system, and manual training is being taught in almost every State in the Union. Not only is manual training taught as a hand drill,—as in the old days when the teacher was content to have the student cut out cubes and pyramids without any regard to application or attractiveness,—

but children are taught to-day to make book-racks, baskets, tables, rugs, and curtains, and, in short, to apply their manual training to the creation of useful things of beauty.

This training gives the children an open sesame to the appreciation of architecture in all its branches, so that even if they themselves do not become craftsmen, they can appreciate the value of good workmanship to a degree that the school children of former days could not.

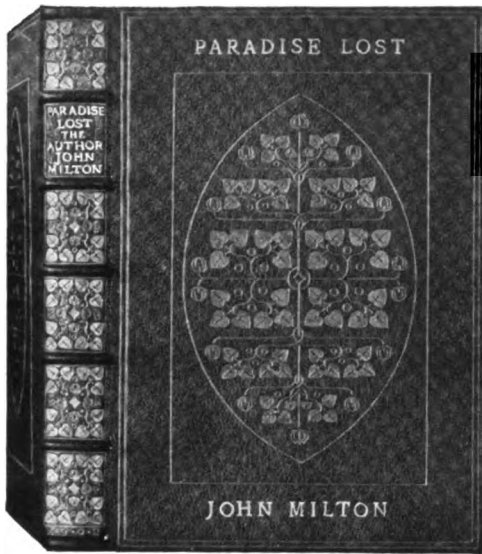
Educators recognize the importance of the cultivation of appreciation, and it will probably be but a short time when arts and crafts departments will be necessary adjuncts to every model public school.

With the adult who takes up the arts and crafts, either from an amateur or a professional point of view, the case is similar, except that the education is carried further,—that is, he himself not only knows how to construct, but he knows how to value correct construction. There are many bungalow-like



BOOK BINDING, BY ANNA A. C. RIPLEY.

(A reproduction of one of the bindings in the collection of the Archives in the Piccolomini Palace at Siena; fifteenth century. The antique leather is decorated in gold tooling on a very dark brown calfskin. The style of binding is characteristic of that period by reason of its structural features and the size and boldness of the tools used. Adapted to use as a guest book.)



BOOK COVER, "PARADISE LOST," BY MISS E. G. STARR.

Tooled in gold on dark green morocco; the fruit inlaid in light green. Each leaf and the fruit is made by a separate tool-pressure. There are three different leaf tools. The stems are formed by combining curves and straight lines of different lengths.

homes where the owner has constructed little more than a settle or a table, or embroidered a curtain, but the whole house is built and furnished in the arts and crafts spirit because of the intelligent appreciation the owner can give to handwork in all its manifestations.

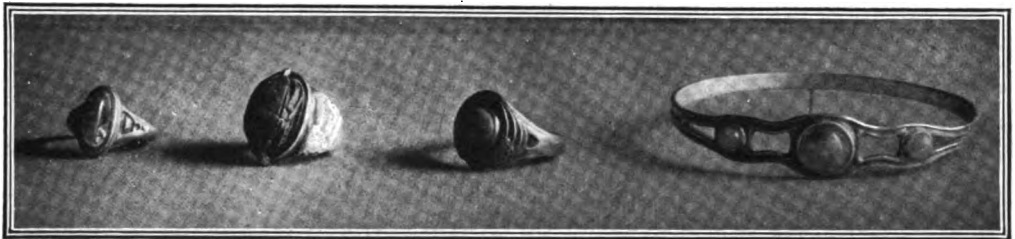
## ARTS AND CRAFTS IN SIMPLE LIFE.

In America the socialistic side of the arts and crafts has been partially developed through the propensity to live "the simple life," making itself felt in domestic architecture; so that there are suburban homes, generally in the bungalow style, built by people of culture and refinement, outside of cities like Buffalo, Syracuse, and Los Angeles, which are furnished with arts and crafts products, and in which "the simple life" is led.

## THE FUTURE OF THE ARTS AND CRAFTS IN AMERICA.

Whether or not the arts and crafts in the aggregate will take root in this country is a moot question; some believe so, while others maintain that the American public go to the exhibitions to admire, but "go to the department stores to buy."

At all events the salutary effect of one's study by actual execution, of the possibilities that lie in each material,—wood, textile, metal, and clay,—cannot readily be overestimated. There is probably not a person in the land who, having once been initiated into the mysteries of any one of the crafts, regrets a moment he has spent in that toil, so surely does it open his eyes to the moral beneficence of logical construction and of the mastery of the tool.



No. 1.

No. 2.

No. 3.

Bracelet.

## RINGS AND BRACELET, BY MRS. AVA M. FROELICH.

(The rings were modeled in wax, in which the stones to be used were placed. These served as working models. The body of the first ring was sawed out of a heavy strip of silver formed into a circle and joined by soldering. The circle, hammered to the correct size, was filed to assume the general proportion of the wax model. An outline was scored around the setting and sawed out. The ring, after being filed down, was slipped on a wooden frame, embedded in warm chaser's pitch, and engraved with a deeply cut line. The second ring is an Egyptian scarab, mounted in silver. The third ring was sawed from a heavy piece of gold. The stone, a lapis lazuli, is held in place by a narrow gold band, called a "bezel." In the bracelet the settings for the stones are joined by narrow bands, leaving openings between them to give the effect of lightness. The large band is shaped to harmonize with the setting. It is then oxidized to soften the harsh whiteness of the silver when polished.)



A CLASSROOM IN ONE OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF MONTEVIDEO, URUGUAY.

## EDUCATION IN SOUTH AMERICA.

BY WILLIAM R. SHEPHERD.

[Professor Shepherd, who holds a chair in the department of history at Columbia University, has recently returned from an extended tour of South America.—THE EDITOR.]

**N**OT so long ago the belief was current in the United States that the eleven republics of the southern continent busied themselves chiefly in raising revolutionary disturbances and tropical products. Some elements of civilization they were presumed to have, but these must be too scanty in amount, and too crude in concept and operation, to warrant a hope that the American public would take any interest in them. Although this attitude is becoming more tolerant, popular inclination among us will not yet recognize the states of South America individually, and the utmost that it seems willing to concede is to view them as a continental mass. Any account of their educational conditions, therefore, must deal in generalities, trusting to an occasional opportunity to do justice to the countries in which progress is most noticeable.

### RESTRICTION OF EDUCATIONAL PRIVILEGES.

During the colonial period universities and schools existed under the management of the Roman Church, but their activities were directed to the instruction of the ruling classes, and not to that of the great bulk of the popu-

lation at large. Social and political traditions derived from Spain and Portugal were responsible in part for this circumstance, and the determination of the white race to maintain its supremacy over the inhabitants of Indian, negro, and mixed origin had much to do with it also. This concept of education to be upheld as a privilege of the ruling class was carried over into the period of independence, and is still powerful in the South American states.

### "LACK OF PRACTICALITY AND DIRECTNESS."

The sort of education hitherto established among them, however, has been characterized, not merely by its quality of privilege, but by its lack of practicality and directness. No one has stated the case more plainly than Señor Orrego Luco, a Chilean writer, whose remarks apply quite as readily to the other republics of the southern continent as they do to his own.

A capital fault in our method of instruction, is its academic and theoretical character of efflorescence and ostentation. We do not try to prepare the youthful mind for the daily struggle of existence, to teach our young people along lines that are really practical, that bear upon in-

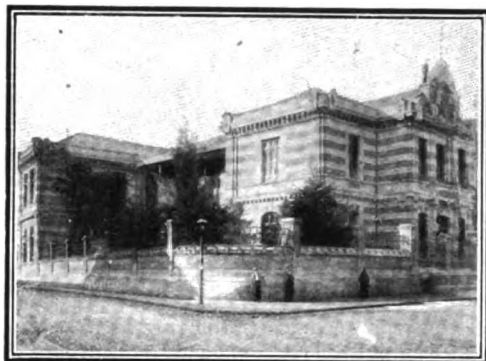
dustry, and upon making use of the active forces of the country. On the contrary, before everything else we turn out academic debaters, aggressive rhetoricians, and voluble talkers who often run politics into the ground. The utmost apparently that can come forth from our universities, even the best and most select of them, is a quantity of doctors, lawyers, and engineers, a number of young fellows equipped with diplomas, and who, without realizing it, rush into professional and titular encounters. We have a surfeit of lawyers and doctors. Just as in the United States, everybody is a colonel or a professor, so here in Chile we are all lawyers and doctors, or else government officials.

He might have said, also, that, since it is the custom of institutions of higher learning in most of the states of South America to confer the title of doctor upon lawyers as well as upon physicians, the number of doctors, legal and medical, in any one country is apt to be appalling.

#### PREDOMINANCE OF FRENCH CULTURE.

Unpractical though much of the educational system may still be, any one who imagines that there are but few really educated people in the South American republics is greatly mistaken. Indeed, the number of cultured, as well as highly educated, persons who may be found in any important city of the southern continent is quite large, and they may be compared to advantage with the

through the medium of French originals or translations that their knowledge of the intellectual world is ordinarily acquired. A glance at the display on the counters of any large bookstore will show instantly how



THE PEDAGOGICAL INSTITUTE AT SANTIAGO, CHILE.

great is the hold that the French language and literature have upon the minds of South American readers.

#### NEW TENDENCIES AT WORK.

The intellectual domination of the French on this phase of education in South America, of course, has had little, if anything, to do with the general defects of exclusiveness and unpracticality. Both of them are giving way before the spread of modern ideas and methods of instruction. Particularly during the last twenty-five years French, German, and American teachers have made their influence felt far and wide, both by example and by precept. Many of these educators are now actually giving instruction under governmental contract in public institutions, or, with the approval, and even at times with the financial aid, of the government, are conducting schools of their own. The published works of other experts in teaching have been made known by translations for use in the classroom and in the school library; and a body of native instructors is being trained in the views and practices of their foreign masters. A live interest, furthermore, in schools and institutions of higher learning, as well as in the men and women who are concerned in the task of instruction, is stirring up the public apathy that has tended in the past to fossilize education. School journals, educational reviews, and university publications are being put forth, and are gradually drawing to them a circle of readers outside of the teach-



THE POLYTECHNIC SCHOOL AT SÃO PAULO, BRAZIL.

(This institution does college and university work in pure and applied science.)

best of their class in Europe and the United States. They have traveled abroad, they commonly speak several languages, and are versed in all the accomplishments of mind and manners which a refined society would demand. The cast of their culture covering its substance of Spanish or Portuguese is preeminently French. That is the language which they use regularly in addition to their native tongues, and it is not so much through the direct use of Spanish or Portuguese as





THE SCHOOL OF ARTS AND TRADES AT LIMA, PERU.

ing element itself. National and district organizations of educators also there are which discuss the technical problems of teaching, and examine the pedagogic literature of foreign countries with a view to its bearing upon local conditions.

All of these modern ideas and methods of education are seen most effectively at work in the larger cities of such states as the Argentine Republic, Brazil, Chile, Peru, and Uruguay. As might be supposed, the showing is far better in the cities than in the country districts. Here the ignorance is dense, the teachers commonly are of little worth, the materials for use in instruction are scanty, and the housing of the school children is decidedly primitive. Yet, even in the remoter areas, and among the less favored races of colored extraction, the facilities of education are spreading very slowly, but surely. Enough progress at all events has been attained to encourage the belief that an increasing reduction in the number of illiterates is now within sight. At present the number ranges approximately from 35 per cent. to 85 per cent. of the population, the former being the ratio in Uruguay, and the latter that in Brazil.

#### EUROPEAN EDUCATIONAL INFLUENCES.

So far as it is possible to fix the places occupied by European factors of influence in the educational system of the South American republics it may be said in general that the French power is most apparent in the branches of instruction which, like astronomy, require the use of delicate instruments, or, like the fine arts, involve the exercise of esthetic appreciation. French medical and surgical methods, also, are much in vogue. The German wields sway in most of the natural sciences. For this, not only his bent of mind but the

admirable models that he produces for objective study, are responsible. He is supreme, also, as might be supposed, in matters relating to kindergarten education. The strength of German intellectuality is greatest perhaps in Chile, where the military system is exclusively German, where the German population is quite large, and where the national character of the Chilean permits its application more readily; but it can hardly be said to have directed the Chilean mind along many lines other than scientific. In Peru the German influence is visible also, but not to so pronounced a degree. Though the military organization of that country is French, the Germans engaged in agricultural, commercial, and industrial pursuits are so numerous as to affect the course of scientific education quite noticeably. Other examples of the sort might be mentioned, but unquestionably the spot where the German intellect is altogether dominant is the southern part of Brazil, and particularly in the states of Rio Grande do Sul, Santa Catharina, and Paraná. So powerful is the influence of the hundreds of thousands of Germans settled in these three states that German is spoken far more commonly than Portuguese, and the Brazilian Ministry of Public Instruction has been compelled to take steps to encourage the teaching of the national tongue in this thoroughly Germanized section of the country.

#### "THE UNITED STATES AS A FACTOR."

The United States as a factor in the educational development of the South American republics has shown itself more especially in what might be called the making of school teachers and in the elevation of teaching as a profession. The name of Horace Mann,



THE KINDERGARTEN AT SÃO PAULO, BRAZIL.

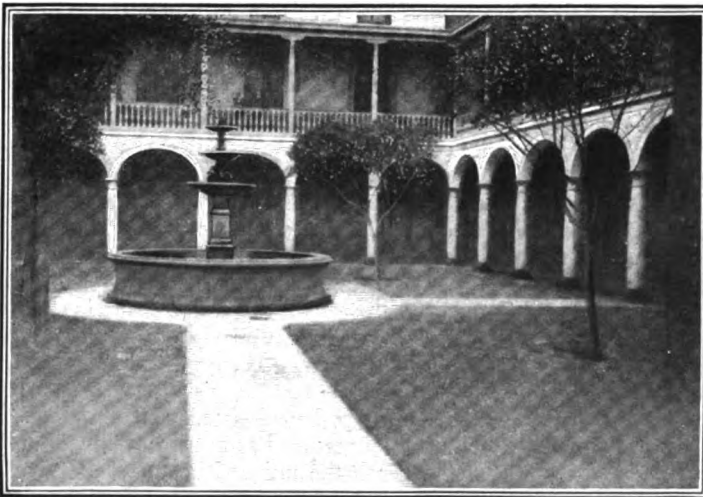


he it said, is almost a household word in many of the educational circles of the southern continent. Sarmiento, the great Argentine statesman, was a friend of the famous American educator, and introduced into the Argentine Republic a series of educational reforms for which the American was sponsor. A large number of South American school teachers have attended the normal colleges of the United States, and have brought back to their own countries, not only the knowledge and experience necessary to fit them for the performance of their duties, but a real enthusiasm for the work, an appreciation of the dignity and the responsibility of teaching, a power to awaken an active interest among the school children in their studies, and a faculty of developing relations of friendship between teachers and taught. It has become increasingly common, also, for the South American governments, through the medium of their diplomatic representatives in this country, to engage the services of American teachers under conditions advantageous to both of the parties concerned. No slight feature of these phases of the American influence on education in the southern continent is the value that is coming to be placed upon the woman teacher in the public schools, and she is fast superseding the man teacher, particularly in the primary grades. All of this has not been without its effect upon the public mind in many of the South American states, for it

has tended to raise very appreciably the social and financial status of teaching as a profession. The old Spanish saying, "Tengo más hambre que un maestro de escuela," "I am hungrier than a schoolmaster," is losing its point as an educational, if not as a gastronomic, symptom.

To these various forces, whether exercised in the public institutions or in the private schools conducted under American auspices, is due, in large measure, also, the series of improvements that have appeared in several of the republics in the administration of the school system, in the increase of building accommodations, material equipment, and sanitary devices, in the plan of studies, and in the development of a host of activities clustering around the school as a center. Some of the improvements in question will be noticed below, but a single item of interest might be mentioned here. This is the very general use in the classrooms of American school furniture, or, at any rate, of copies of it. In the schools where practical trades are taught, furthermore, the American influence is often visible, not only in the educational methods followed, but in the tools and mechanical appliances provided. For some of the improvements indicated, however, as they have appeared especially in the technical and private schools, credit should be given also to German and to English educators.

So far as the educational organization itself in the republics of South America is concerned, the supreme control belongs to the Minister of Public Instruction, who is a member of the President's cabinet. In the case of the few countries where the individual provinces resemble our own States in their right of local self-government the power of the minister extends only to such institutions, particularly those of higher learning, as are maintained at federal expense; but as a rule in the other countries his authority over all educational establishments of a public character is quite complete.



THE OLDEST UNIVERSITY IN THE NEW WORLD.

(The illustration shows the courtyard of the faculty of philosophy and letters of the University of St. Mark, at Lima, Peru, the oldest university on the Western Hemisphere.)



Dr. Claudio Willman, President of the Republic of Uruguay and Professor of Physics and Natural Science in the National Military Academy at Montevideo.



Dr. José María Ramón Mejía, recently elected President of the National Argentine Council of Education and author of many authoritative works on medicine.



Dr. Ramón Ribeyro, Dean of the Faculty of Political and Administrative Science, Titular Professor of International Public Law in the University of St. Mark, Lima, Peru.

#### THREE EMINENT SOUTH AMERICAN EDUCATORS.

The university faculties, almost without exception, and all of the school councils, boards, and the like, are subject to him. Politics plays some part in the selection of instructors and in the arrangement of the programs of study, but on the whole its influence does not seem to be very serious.

#### SOUTH AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES.

With two exceptions,—namely, Panama and Brazil,—every country in South America has at least one university or national college.\* Brazil, be it said, possesses a number of technical and professional schools that are of university standing. The universities are organized by faculties in a manner quite similar to those of Europe and the United States. For the most part they are equipped with a corps of able professors, many of whom have studied in Europe, and they are provided with scientific apparatus of European or American origin. The scheme of instruction is comprehensive enough, but it does not approximate the institution of higher learning itself to the great universities, properly so-called, of the United States. Rather do the best of the South American institutions of this sort resemble our better grade of colleges, with the superaddition of a number of professional schools. Examples of such educational establishments are the

University of St. Mark, at Lima, Peru; the University of Chile, at Santiago; the University of Montevideo, in Uruguay, and the Universities of Buenos Aires and La Plata, in the Argentine Republic. Stress, indeed, is laid, not so much on the studies that make for general culture, as on law, medicine, and engineering. Being state institutions for the most part, tuition in the universities is gratuitous. The students are admitted, upon graduation from the secondary schools, directly to the courses offered by the several faculties. Women students are rare. Co-education much beyond the kindergarten age has practically no foothold as yet in South America. The only conspicuous exception to the rule is found at Mackenzie College, an institution partly of secondary and partly of higher education, carried on under American auspices, at São Paulo, Brazil.

With the exception of their schools of medicine, most of the universities in South America are rather poorly quartered. The buildings that they occupy originally served as convents, hotels, or private houses. Indeed, it must be admitted that the tide of educational reform has not risen high enough yet to reach the universities in so effective a fashion as might be desired. But they are not venerable ruins perched on the distant isles of medievalism by any means. They are far removed from the quaint customs that prevailed in former days at the University

\* See the author's article on "Higher Education in South America," in the *Columbia University Quarterly* for December, 1907.

of St. Mark, for example. Founded in 1551, this is one of the few institutions of higher learning in South America which enjoys practical immunity from state control. Centuries ago a candidate for the doctorate had to spend about \$10,000 in presenting his colleagues with various sums of money, silken caps and birettas, as well as with a specified amount of food and a number of live hens, and in providing the public of Lima also with a bull-fight and a banquet. Now the doctorate costs only \$50. From the conditions of colonial times to the recently established University of La Plata in the Argentine Republic, with its great astronomical observatory and museum of natural history, and its elaborate plans for modern buildings to house its separate faculties, for extensive workshops and laboratories, for commodious residence halls, for a stadium, athletic fields, swimming baths, handball courts, shooting galleries and the like, is certainly a tremendous step.

Similar in many respects though the more advanced of the South American universities may be to the institutions of higher learning in the United States and Europe, they have not yet become imbued with the consciousness of civic duty which takes the form in this country of educational and charitable activities among the people at large. Work along the lines of university extension and university settlements, nevertheless, has made a beginning in several of the larger cities, of which Santiago is a conspicuous example. Here popular lectures are quite regularly given, and night schools are conducted under the auspices of university men who are becoming interested, also, in the establishment of clubs and centers of recreation for the laboring classes.

#### THE SCIENTIFIC CONGRESS IDEA.

Nor have the several movements and tendencies in behalf of higher education as suited to modern conditions stopped at this point. Three international scientific congresses, representative chiefly of the universities of Latin-America in general, have been held within recent years at as many South American cities,—namely, Buenos Aires, Montevideo, and Rio de Janeiro. So praiseworthy an action on the part of their instructors, furthermore, has been emulated by the students themselves. Last January delegates from the universities of a number of South American states met in an international student congress at Montevideo to discuss

problems of special interest to university men,—an achievement that might well be imitated in our own country. What promises, however, to be the most significant event, not merely in the annals of higher education in South America, or even in Latin-America as a whole, but in the intellectual history of both continents of the Western Hemisphere, is the Fourth International Scientific Congress that will open its sessions at Santiago on December 25, next. Here, for the first time, the great universities of the United States have been invited to enter into scientific fellowship with their sister institutions of Latin-America, and to signalize so momentous a fact the Congress is to bear the title of Pan-American.

#### PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION.

From this augury of close relationship among the universities of twenty-one, instead of twenty, republics in the New World we turn to the realm of primary and secondary education in South America alone. Everywhere on the continent primary education is now free, and the law in seven out of the eleven republics makes attendance at the primary schools compulsory. In no instance, however, is the law enforced as it should be in every section of the country, and often it is not enforced at all. Secondary education has not been so progressive as the primary branch. Much has yet to be done before the secondary schools of the South American republics in general can be raised to a level of efficiency approximating that of similar institutions in the United States. The several grades of instruction, ranging from the normal college and the trade school down to the kindergarten, are to be seen at their best, as already intimated, in the larger cities of such countries as the Argentine Republic, Brazil, Chile, Uruguay, and Peru.

Here, as a rule, the housing of the schools is fairly adequate and at times even sumptuous. The sanitary arrangements are good, an abundance of light and air is furnished, and every reasonable effort is made to insure the health and comfort of the pupils. Some of the buildings, it is true, are cramped in space and otherwise unfit for school purposes, but these are being replaced by edifices of the proper sort as rapidly as the funds for their construction are available.

The idea of providing the physical surroundings that will conduce to the mental development of the children is furthered by the plan of instruction itself. As a rule the

hours of study and of play are well adjusted, and the assignment of tasks is regulated according to the capacity of the individual pupil. The walls of the classrooms are often adorned with the portraits of eminent men, and also with mottoes, pictures, and similar devices for teaching by example and by precept. Both in the classroom and on the playground discipline is carefully preserved. The children, also, march with becoming orderliness to the several exercises of the day. In Chile this custom is carried so far that the boys march to and from their classrooms with the rigid leg movement of the "Paradeschritt," like so many little German soldiers.

In addition to the knowledge derived from books, the children are taught personal hygiene, physical exercises, manual training, singing, and the appreciation of nature. Care is taken to keep the pupils neat and clean in appearance. While no systematic effort is made to counteract the occasional evil that allows children to come hungry to school, a very commendable practice has been established in the city of Buenos Aires, where at a certain time of the day, the smaller boys and girls are nourished with a glass of milk. School gymnasiums are not common, but since the temperature rarely becomes very

cold, calisthenics and other kinds of physical exercise may be carried on in the open air practically the year round. Many of the schools are equipped with workshops, in which sloyd is the system of instruction usually followed. The educational value of music is well understood, and the singing of patriotic songs in particular forms part of the daily routine. So, too, a love of nature is inculcated by teaching the children about birds, animals, and plant life.

With the idea of emphasizing the relation of the school to the community, exhibitions and festivals are held from time to time. At the former the handiwork of the pupils is displayed in an attractive fashion, and prizes are awarded for objects of merit. The festivals consist of something more than conventional exercises of music, recitations, and the like in the school buildings. Often they take the shape of elaborate processions in the streets and of excursions to the parks. Here the youthful visitors listen to a few words of greeting and advice offered by prominent citizens, after which they are free to enjoy the music, games, and refreshments provided for them. The keen interest shown by the public on such occasions is not the least gratifying evidence of the progress of education in South America.



AN ARBOR-DAY GROUP OF BUENOS AIRES CHILDREN (1907).

# INTERNATIONAL SOCIALISM AS A POLITICAL FORCE.

BY GEORGE ALLAN ENGLAND.

[It is the aim of the following article to state the essential facts regarding a world-movement of which Americans generally have a very imperfect knowledge. It is not to be expected that all the statements made by this writer, whose attitude is sympathetic, will be accepted without question. Yet this seems the fairest method of presenting the claims of Socialism as they are advocated throughout the modern world. This article indicates very clearly the measure of success which the Socialists themselves believe they have already attained.—THE EDITOR.]

EVERYBODY knows to-day, in a more or less general way, that a great new force has dawned in modern politics and industry. Some of us are allied with that force, see it from the inside, as it were, and understand its workings because we are ourselves part of them. Many others still remain outside, some indifferent, some hostile. To these,—and more particularly to the hostile ones,—this short and necessarily incomplete review addresses itself; for in a great majority of cases, be the matter what it may, hostility arises from imperfect understanding.

Few tasks are more puzzling than to determine the precise extent of Socialist institutions, their content of progress, their tendencies to-day; for Socialism is in no sense a fixed, motionless entity, which may be ticketed and laid by for future reference. It is a flux, a flow,—a movement, not an institution. Statistics of a year or two past cease to be reliable. On revising them one usually finds that they have grown like Jonah's gourd. All of which proves disconcerting to tabulators of the "Dryasdust" variety. Perhaps the most that can be done is to get approximations, general ideas, of what the movement has attained and what it promises; and in describing even these the investigator knows that before his conclusions find the printed page Socialism itself will have advanced beyond the limits he has fixed for it.

About its origins, at least, one finds a fair degree of definition. Most students are agreed that modern scientific Socialism (as opposed to the very numerous earlier Utopian precursors, ungrounded in the laws of social evolution) was born at the time when chattel slavery had just disappeared from the United States and when serfdom had but newly been abolished in Russia,—in 1864, a memorable date in labor history,—for on September 28 of that year was formed in St. Martin's Hall, London, the International

Workingmen's Association, or, as it soon came to be popularly known, "The International."

Sixteen years had passed since the publication of Marx and Engels' "Communist Manifesto," yet in all that time little perceptible progress had been made toward any definite program for the emancipation of the proletariat. Only a handful of men were gathered at St. Martin's, and in the stress and turmoil of those days the formation of the little society with the big name caused hardly a ripple on the troubled surface of the world-waters. Yet there, at that very time and place, was born the movement which through such various changes has come to be many times over the largest political party in the world,—the International Socialist party.\*

The little association issued a declaration of principles which has formed the keel and ribs of practically every Socialist platform from that day to this. It was written by Karl Marx. Terse, vigorous, and clear-spoken, it is worthy of a reading by every seeker after knowledge of what Socialism really means. And here it is:

In consideration of the fact that the emancipation of the working-class must be accomplished by the working-class itself, that the struggle for this emancipation . . . does not signify a struggle for class privileges and monopolies, but for equal rights and duties and for the abolition of class rule;

That the economic dependence of the workingman upon the owner of the tools of production, the sources of life, forms the basis of every kind of servitude, of social misery, of spiritual degradation, and political dependence;

That, therefore, the economic emancipation of the working-class is the great end to which every political movement must be subordinated as a simple auxiliary;

That all exertions which up to this time have

\* Some regard Lassalle's Universal Workingmen's Association, founded at Leipzig May 23, 1863, as a more apparent origin, but this is a point still open to question.

been directed toward the attainment of this end have failed on account of the want of solidarity between the various branches of labor in every land and by reason of the absence of a brotherly bond of unity between the working-classes of different countries;

That the emancipation of labor is neither a local nor a national, but a social problem, which embraces all countries in which modern society exists, and whose solution depends upon the practical and theoretical co-operation of the most advanced countries.

The first International Labor Congress declares that the International Workmen's Association and all societies and individuals belonging to it recognize truth, right, and morality as the basis of their conduct toward one another and their fellow-men, without respect to color, creed, or nationality. This congress regards it as the duty of man to demand the rights of a man and citizen, not only for himself, but for every one who does his duty. No rights without duties; no duties without rights.

This summons met with an astonishing response. Within two years "The International" had become a veritable bogey to the monarchs of Europe. Its strength was tremendously exaggerated. It was denounced as a gigantic conspiratory band, and still figures as such in penny-dreadfuls, though as a matter of fact it never was terroristic in its methods.

Various meetings were held in Geneva, Lausanne, Brussels, Basel, and The Hague,—this last in 1872. Here Bakounin and the anarchists threatened to capture the organization, which had in self-defense to remove its headquarters and General Council to New York. The European branch languished, after two or three ineffectual struggles to maintain itself. A miscellaneous gathering at Ghent in 1877 terminated its career in the old country. Neither did the body flourish in America. Here its last nominal convention was held in Philadelphia in 1876,—a mere pitiful shadow. Only ten delegates were present, and nine of these were from the United States. Exit "The International." It has now been extinct for more than a generation.

Yet as one "International" was passing away the ground was being laid for a new and infinitely more powerful one. The first "International" was a ruling body proceeding from a common center and organizing and directing the national bodies. Its function was to carry the gospel of brotherhood across national lines, to sow the seed of revolution within the various nations.

It had done this work, and in Germany and a few other countries there had begun the formation of powerful national Socialist parties maintaining the principles of the "International." Soon these parties began to stretch

across national boundary lines, to form the new "International."\*

#### LATER GROWTH,—CONGRESSES.

This regenerated body was not arbitrarily constructed by a number of men coming together for that purpose. On the contrary, it evolved from the expansion of the various national Socialist parties which were now taking form. Instead of radiating, it converged; and of this same convergent character, only enlarged and perfected and growing in influence with a rapidity hitherto unheard of, is the present International Socialist party.

Since 1889, when the first congress of this party was held at Paris, similar bodies have convened every three or four years. The second congress took place at Brussels in 1891. Thereafter followed meetings at Zurich, 1893; London, 1896; Paris, 1900; Amsterdam, 1904; Stuttgart, 1907. At the Paris convention a permanent bureau was established to sit at Brussels, for the purpose of unifying and co-ordinating the activities of the various national parties.

This bureau furnishes the machinery for concerted, uninterrupted work. It has a secretary and other officers, beside the delegates, two of whom are appointed from each of the following countries: England, Germany, Argentina, Australia, Belgium, Austria, Denmark, Bohemia, Spain, United States, Holland, Finland, Norway, Bulgaria, France, Hungary, Italy, Japan, Poland, Servia, Switzerland, Russia, Sweden, and Portugal.

No governing or controlling power is vested in its structure. On the contrary, it is quite powerless over the national organizations. It is simply a body created by them to do the common work. As this work grows in magnitude and enters new fields the activities of the bureau likewise expand. Already Brussels has become the world-center of Socialist information, with a magnificent Socialist library, files of periodicals, and the like.

Through the mediumship of the bureau concerted and simultaneous action has become possible on any matter affecting the wellbeing of labor. In time of war, for instance, the bureau has already put a damper on hostilities by proclaiming the identity of interests between the working-classes of the countries involved. Once this work can be thoroughly completed, war will end, for without the proletariat to fight, war is a physical impossibility. This is anti-militarism,—the thing

\* Chicago Daily Socialist, July 22, 1907.

which ranks on a par with Social-Democracy itself in Kaiser Wilhelm's denunciation as an "international pest."

From the viewpoint of royalty the activities of the bureau are without doubt very troublesome. At the time of the Algeciras affair the Kaiser was summarily plucked back from what might have been a decidedly glorious and successful war with France by the stand taken at Brussels,—the threat of a general strike if hostilities began,—and the war talk had to be dropped like a hot potato. Norway and Sweden effected their recent separation without bloodshed through the intervention of Brussels, "*cette main de fer dans un gant de velours*." And when the Czar begged men and money from his cousins of Germany and Austria to crush revolution within his borders he ran fair into an effective, organized opposition from Brussels which effectually cooled the good offices of his allies. That argument of the *Massenstreik* simultaneously proclaimed all over Europe is singularly deterrent to the brass-button activities of the captains and the kings.

Again, it was through the international bureau that the "Bloody Sunday" celebrations were organized, which brought together millions of workers, speaking many tongues, in protest against Russian autocracy. The bureau has constituted the medium through which hundreds of thousands of dollars have been collected for the Russian revolution.

Thus, one finds no difficulty in perceiving something, at least, of the influence for international peace wielded by the Brussels Socialist bureau and by the tri-yearly congresses which it summons. While the action of neither the bureau nor the congresses can have any binding effect upon any national party, yet the moral influence exerted is so tremendous that it carries irresistible weight. The unification of certain hitherto warring factions in Russia, France, the United States, and elsewhere has already been brought to pass since the last congress simply through the resolutions passed there. It is highly doubtful whether any other force could have welded these diverse elements.

No single body of men on this earth exerts a wider influence than the delegates at Brussels, representing as they do the millions of Socialist workingmen and women all over the world; and at no time have they summoned a more powerful congress, with more far-reaching results, than last year at Stuttgart.

#### THE STUTTGART CONGRESS.

The Stuttgart congress of 1907 was by all odds the biggest object-lesson in the present strength of Socialism which ever has been given to an uneasy plutocracy. Something like a thousand delegates assembled, representing nearly every European state, Japan, South Africa, the Argentine, Australia, the United States, and many other countries,—close on to thirty in all.\*

Like our own famous Continental Congress, it was a revolutionary body. The constituencies which it represented were all revolutionary. Unlike other congresses, it was no junketing affair, no meeting for the interchange of ornate platitudes or for the affirmation of any "identity of interest" between capital and labor. The delegates wore no gold lace or decorations from royalty. Many of them, on the contrary, were decidedly *personæ non græ* with their respective governments. Their program was big with the plans of a social democracy so vast that it outshadows any other idea or movement whatsoever recorded in history. National revolutions have been without number, but never until the rise of international Socialism has revolution assumed a universal character. Never before has a whole social class, irrespective of race, creed or color, united in the determination to throw off industrial and political servitude. Thus, these congresses, which in a way sum up the forward movement of Socialism, embody "something new under the sun,"—the complete and permanent emancipation of labor.

#### PRACTICAL DETAILS.

Yet radical as these congresses are, they present small evidence of what (to some thinkers) is still connoted by the word "revolution." The program of the Stuttgart assembly, for instance, contained only such innocuous features as a great public open-air meeting in the Volksfestplatz, a Sunday concert, a meeting of reporters and editors of Socialist papers to discuss improvement of their service, and, in various plenary sessions, the consideration of such topics as militarism and international conflicts, the relation of the Socialist parties and the trade-

\* The number of votes allotted to the different countries were: Germany, Austria-Bohemia, France, Great Britain, Russia, 20 each; Italy, 15; United States, 14; Belgium, 12; Denmark, Poland, Switzerland, 10 each; Unified Australia, Finland, Holland, Sweden, 8 each; Spain, Hungary, Norway, 6 each; South Africa, Argentina, Non-unified Australia, Bulgaria, Japan, Roumania, Serbia, 4 each; Luxemburg, 2.



unions, the questions of colonization, woman's suffrage, the immigration and emigration of working-people.

The whole character of the discussion was constructive, for the betterment of the world's workers and, through them, of the world as a whole. It reaffirmed the fundamental Socialist determination to put an end to class rule, exploitation, poverty, crime, and war, and to establish in their place actual democracy, political and economic, collective ownership of the sources of the world's life, and lasting peace, through the abolition of capitalistic struggles for world-markets. It reaffirmed the community of interests between the workers of all lands; it reaffirmed the right of men to live and think and work without paying tribute to the possessing but non-producing classes. And in all its reaffirmations, it had at its back the "Aye!" of 30,000,000 human beings.

#### THE DRIVING POWER.

What, now, is the driving power back of these great congresses? What is the meaning of the movement, from a wide, non-partisan point of view? Where does the organized Socialist party stand to-day? Is it waxing or waning? What does it portend? Here are a few of the questions that occur to us in face of such a manifestation as the Stuttgart congress.

First of all, the fact should be made quite clear that the Socialist party is far-and-away the largest political unit not only of to-day

but of any time. To the uninformed who conceive of Socialists as a rather obscure and fantastic sect of Utopians,—of "dreamers,"—the discovery must come as something of a shock that the world's Socialist vote now stands between 8,000,000 and 9,000,000, representing about 30,000,000 adult Socialists. This latter number includes, of course, women and disfranchised persons, who in the Socialist concept of government, in the "state within a state" which Socialism is building up, enjoy equal rights with present voters. There is something peculiarly disconcerting to the present governments of, by, and for plutocracy in those 30,000,000 of "dreamers," all so active in propaganda, all so terribly in earnest,—in that ever-widening acceptance of the visionary axiom that "without rights there should be no duties; without duties, no rights."

In the second place, it should be definitely understood that the movement is already breaking into legislative bodies all over the civilized world, to an extent hardly realized by the casual critic. The United States is practically the only large country of modern type in which the party has no national representation,—a state of affairs, be it said in passing, which will soon be remedied. According to the latest obtainable figures as given in Dr. Josiah Strong's "Social Progress," and revised by Mr. W. J. Ghent, the case stands as follows regarding increase, present vote, legislative representation, and journalistic strength of Socialism:

Country.	First recorded year.	Vote.	Latest recorded Year.	Vote.	Socialists in national legislatures.	Socialist journals.
Argentina.....	.....	.....	1903	5,000*	1 in 120	2
Austria.....	1895	90,000	1907	1,005,000	87 " 878	115
Australia.....	.....	.....	1904	440,000	23 " 75	3
Belgium.....	1895	334,500	1904	500,000*	30 " 168	53
Bulgaria.....	.....	.....	1900	10,000*	0 " 189	9
Canada.....	.....	.....	1905	2,867	0 " 214	1
Denmark.....	1872	315	1906	76,612	24 " 114	24
Finland.....	.....	.....	1907	280,000	80 " 220	11
France.....	1885	30,000	1906	1,120,000	115 " 584	45
Germany.....	1867	30,000	1907	3,251,005	43 " 397	159
Great Britain.....	1895	55,000	1906	342,196†	55 " 870	4
Holland.....	.....	.....	1905	65,743	6 " 100	13
Italy.....	1893	20,000	1904	301,525	25 " 508	92
Luxemburg.....	.....	.....	1903	40,000	7 " 45	...
Norway.....	.....	.....	1903	24,774	17 " 114	17
Servia.....	.....	.....	1905	30,000*	1 " 130	...
Spain.....	1893	7,000	1907	9,000	0 " 431	12
Sweden.....	.....	.....	1905	26,083	15 " 230	33
Switzerland.....	1890	13,500	1905	64,384*	2 " 167	5
United States.....	1888	2,064	1904	442,402‡	0 " 386	40
Totals.....	.....	582,379	.....	8,006,591	531‡ " 5,748	648

\* Estimated.

† Estimate of the *Labor Leader*. In regard to should be noted that the figures here given include Socialism, all, however, imbued with the Socialist philosophy. In England it is impossible to determine precisely what part of the labor vote is purely Socialist.—4. e., cast for the "Social-Democratic Federation,"—since the Independent Labor party is not a Socialist body, though expressly Socialistic in principle, while the Labor Representative Committee is "Practically" Socialistic, and the Fabian or Economic Socialists are elected as "Radicals."

‡ Including Socialist-Labor party vote.

§ Referring to the second house in bicameral bodies.

the French and English representation the fact a number of different factions, of more or less radicalism, all, however, imbued with the Socialist philosophy. In England it is impossible to determine precisely what part of the labor vote is purely Socialist.—4. e., cast for the "Social-Democratic Federation,"—since the Independent Labor party is not a Socialist body, though expressly Socialistic in principle, while the Labor Representative Committee is "Practically" Socialistic, and the Fabian or Economic Socialists are elected as "Radicals."

It will be noticed that in this table Russia is omitted. Anything like an accurate statement of the Russian Socialist vote is hard to come at; but it must have been very large indeed to have seated 192 Socialists, Revolutionists, and Members of the Group of Toil in the second Duma, out of 495 members. Conditions change so fast in Russia that statistics relative to them may just as well be kept out of the tabulation. By counting the Russian vote we should in all probability get a total of 9,000,000 or over for the world.

With universal suffrage in those countries where now the suffrage is limited this vote would expand about one-third. In England, for example, the comparatively small vote is directly traceable to the restricted suffrage. Under a system like our own the vote would go to about 1,500,000. As an instance of the effect of granting the universal manhood suffrage we have the recent increase of the Socialist vote in Austria, where the figures in 1907 jumped from 780,000 to more than 1,000,000 out of a total of about 3,000,000 votes.

#### STEADY, PROGRESSIVE GROWTH.

Socialism presents few spectacular features in its development. There is nothing in it of the mushroom quality which distinguished our own Single-Tax and Populist movements with their sudden up-springing, their large vote immediately obtained, and their quick disintegration. The Socialist movement grows with comparative steadiness, and never on the whole loses any ground once gained. The mathematician would plot its curve as an ascending parabola; he would reckon it in the terms of a geometric progression. Thus, the next five years are almost sure to witness a growth equal, perhaps, to that of the last twenty-five. Some very pretty charts can be traced by the studious-minded exhibiting the past increase from *nil* to the present stage; and from them conclusions can be drawn respecting the probable duration of capitalism.

Persecution has never had any other effect on the movement than immensely to stimulate its growth. Contemporary events in Russia only reinforce the lessons that Bismarck had to learn in Germany and that France has witnessed since 1871. The wiping out of a whole generation of French Socialists resulted merely in mustering ten revolutionaries where one stood before. At

the last German election all the powers of government boycott and coercion, of frantic appeals to "God and fatherland," resulted in a gain of 8 per cent. in the Socialist vote, —a numerical increase of about 250,000 ballots.

In England, right in the teeth of the combined Liberal and Conservative opposition, the Socialists are gaining, gaining, gaining. Trade-unionism there, as in America, is rapidly swinging into line with out-and-out Socialistic demands. Victor Grayson's entry into the House of Commons as the first Socialist to be elected without the help of any other party augurs for the immediate future a large increase of Socialist members in the House. Jamaica now has a Socialist governor in the person of Sydney Olivier, who for over twenty-five years has been a Fabian. Bavaria was swept by Socialism at the last election,—twenty-one seats were gained in addition to the twelve already held. The Finnish Diet recently had to admit eighty Socialists, ten of whom were women. Space lacks here for the whole story. Even in its fragmentary form it is tremendously portentous of the new era which is already opening to our eyes.

Here in America the movement has expanded with phenomenal rapidity. The vote, beginning with hardly more than 2000 in 1888, had by 1900 risen to nearly 100,000. In 1902 it was 229,762. In 1904 over 400,000 votes were counted; probably twice as many were cast. Prophecy is dangerous, but 1908 should for many reasons hold in store a great surprise for the old-party politicians. From now on there is "a new Richmond in the field."

Those who regard with indifference, with scorn perhaps, the struggle of the workers all over the world to emancipate themselves from political and industrial servitude; those who think the members of that class incapable of managing industry and government in their own interest; those who still in some manner look down upon the proletariat as by nature a race of inferiors, must pause and reflect in face of such an organization as that of the Social-Democracy. For here in tangible form stands a body conceived, organized, brought into being not only through the workers' own unaided efforts, but also in despite of the most persistent, far-reaching, and unscrupulous opposition that the world's ruling classes have been able to devise.

# HEARST: A POLITICAL PROBLEM.

BY A DEMOCRATIC POLITICIAN.

BEING a gentleman of most excellent humor, Mr. William Randolph Hearst must be greatly entertained by the disquisitions so widely printed concerning his purposes politically in the pending national campaign. Two or three years ago newspapers and other periodicals were filled with articles the favorite headline for which was either "The Mysterious Mr. Hearst," or "Hearst, the Enigma." When Mr. Hearst had been beaten, and for once fairly beaten, for Governor of New York, the same publications printed articles to the effect that he was neither a mystery nor an enigma, but that he was only an unsuccessful politician of the cheaper sort.

Mr. Hearst is no cheap politician. He is a mystery to the men most closely associated with him, and one of the principal reasons why he is thus mysterious is that in all probability he does not himself know three months before the fact what he intends to do in politics.

I have been asked by the editor of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS to write my own conjectures as to what part Hearst and the Hearst following may play in the coming Presidential campaign. In accepting this commission I said that no one could do more than merely conjecture what Mr. Hearst might intend to do, because the Hearst mind did not lend itself to positive plans for future action. What he may plan to do to-day he may not carry out three months from to-day. What he has said in the past he cheerfully forgets in the present. But it is fair to say of him that upon national issues he has always been consistently and loyally a supporter of the Democratic ticket.

That does not mean that Mr. Hearst has been always thoroughly in accord with Democratic platforms. He himself has never disguised the fact that in 1896, when he made the finest fight ever made by any newspaper owner for a party ticket, he was not sympathetic with the declaration for free silver.

One of his employees, now dead, told me a somewhat humorous story concerning this fact: Mr. Hearst owns a German paper in New York. If he may be able to read that

paper the fact is not generally known. And so when he finally made up his mind to support the free-silver proposition in '96 and called a meeting of the editors of his English and German papers, giving them instructions to give adhesion at last to the whole party platform, the German editor said cheerfully: "Why, Mr. Hearst, I have been doing that for four weeks already." The *New York Journal* (the English edition) up to that time had never dared to say a word about free silver.

That was the time when Mr. Hearst paid but little attention to the politics of his papers. Now he pays much attention to politics, and perhaps not so much to the papers. He has been a candidate for Mayor of New York, and all the way from Coney Island to the Golden Gate the belief extends that he was elected. He was a candidate for the Presidential nomination in the Democratic convention at St. Louis in 1904, at which the most unfortunate nomination made by the Democratic party since the days of Horace Greeley was made. Mr. Hearst has been a candidate for Governor of New York, securing that nomination through a not altogether admirable combination with the worst element in the Democratic party of New York. He was defeated by 57,697 votes, while every other nominee on his fusion ticket was elected.

Starting as an independent and declaring that his Independence League stood only for independence, Mr. Hearst, who controls that league, has made it fuse once with Tammany, and then with the Republican machine in New York City, when he forced upon the ticket the former city editor of his paper and others among his employees.

When the question arises, as it has, what the Hearst influence is going to be in the coming Presidential campaign, it is necessary to bear in mind what it has been in the past. Mr. Hearst has won votes for himself, but unless he headed the ticket he has been unable to win votes for other nominees,—and the other nominees usually have been his own personal employees. The influence of the Hearst newspapers has been great for Hearst,

but they have effected little for any one else. Perhaps the best record they made was in Massachusetts, when because of the split in the Whitney and the Williams factions in the Democratic party they were able to push an Independence League candidate into second place.

One of Mr. Hearst's editorial employees told to me a story which is somewhat indicative of the Hearst method of campaign: This man was asked to write certain articles for some Hearst newspapers denouncing boss rule in a Western city and demanding independence in politics. He had been absent from the city for many years, and, desiring to find out who was interested in the campaign to be urged, asked Mr. Hearst, "Who are the prominent men who have joined in this work? I would like to talk to a few of them before I attempt to write on the subject."

"We have no prominent men associated with us," said the leader of the anti-boss party. "I don't want any prominent men. If I have prominent men connected with me I will have to consult them, and I do not propose to consult anybody."

This is a mere matter of newspaper gossip which may or may not be true, but to those who know Mr. William Randolph Hearst it sounds thoroughly characteristic.

So given a man with nine newspapers, one in Boston, three in New York, two in Chicago, one in Los Angeles, one in San Francisco, with a telegraph news service which ranks now next to the Associated Press, and with an influence over certain newspapers which can only be conjectured but not be determined, we have a journalistic and a political power that must be reckoned with.

How is that power going to be used? Mr. Hearst's employees say that it is going to be employed in the creation of a new party. Mr. Hearst's principal paper, the *New York American*, has said that the Independence League would not support Mr. Roosevelt, Mr. Bryan, or Governor Johnson. Those who have studied Mr. Hearst and his methods will regard this declaration as somewhat cryptic. The Independence League may not support any of these three gentlemen, but the Independence League is politically a negligible quantity. The Hearst papers are important, and it was not asserted that the Hearst papers would not support any of the three gentlemen mentioned.

It is fair to state that the support of these

papers is a matter of prime importance to a Democratic nominee. The support of the Independence League is something to which the Democracy might well be indifferent. A former staff correspondent of the Hearst newspapers, a man very much in Mr. Hearst's confidence, says that two years ago in personal conversation Mr. Hearst had said to him that whoever the Democratic nominee might be the Hearst papers would support him. The same man agreed with me in my own opinion that the probable Hearst program would be to put Independence League tickets for State officers into the field in certain States,—for example, Massachusetts, New York, Indiana, Illinois, and California,—with the view of finding out how great a following might be found for independence in politics. If the State tickets should show elements of strength, four years from now a national ticket might be put into the field.

To build up a national party is an ambition that might animate any man, and Mr. Hearst may well be applauded for cherishing it. But the weakness of his method is that he is trying to build it from the top down. He is managing it through his own salaried employees. At his recent conference at Chicago every man who appeared prominently as a speaker, official, or even mover of resolutions, was a Hearst newspaper employee.

However, the past accomplishments of Mr. Hearst in politics are not of so much present interest as his future purposes. Probably nobody save Hearst himself knows what his future plans may be. Possibly he himself does not know. For it is one of his most striking characteristics that he is able to change his expressed opinions, even though they have been published, within forty-eight hours, with a most cynical indifference to what he said before. Just exactly as he was willing to denounce in his newspapers the sins of Tammany and specify as the personification of those sins Murphy and Grady, and thereafter accept a nomination for the governorship urged by Grady and granted by Murphy, so he may be willing in the course of the coming campaign to adopt any position that may advance his own aims.

It appears now that Mr. Hearst's party will call a national convention in Chicago in the latter part of July. The exact date has not been set. But it has been authoritatively stated that the action of this convention will depend largely upon the nominations made by the Democratic and the Republican par-

ties. It is asserted that organizations have been established for the Hearst party in twenty-four States. If any of these organizations are managed by anybody not drawing a salary from Mr. William Randolph Hearst, they will be an exception to the general rule.

One of his old-time managers, one indeed who is still closely associated with the management of his papers, said to me the other day that the people who thought of Hearst as a politician were foolish. Those who thought of him merely as a great journalist had some reason for their belief. But those who knew him best understood that he really was a shrewd, keen business man who used his papers for business purposes and who managed them with the intent of getting out of them all that possibly could be made. It is not my good fortune to know anything about the business affairs of the Hearst papers, but I do know that their standing in this country among the class of people who buy them has been very largely based upon the fact that at times when other metropolitan newspapers were antagonistic to the regular Democratic ticket in the nation the Hearst papers have been unfalteringly loyal.

They have broken away, it is true, on local issues. In New York they very naturally supported Mr. Hearst for Mayor and afterward for Governor, although in the latter instance their action was at least nominally regular. In Massachusetts they supported Moran for Governor and gave him great strength. In California the *Examiner* has pursued so devious a course that no man without an encyclopedic memory can tell how often it has supported or how often bolted the Democratic ticket. Of course it was the strongest force which put the now discredited Schmitz into the Mayor's office, and, being a Hearst paper, was the quickest to turn upon him and attempt to conceal its own part in his election by the noise of its denunciations of him in his downfall.

But to hark back to the question of Mr. Hearst as a business man and the effect his business instincts may have upon the attitude of his papers in the coming Presidential campaign. Recognizing as he does the fact that his papers owe their national prominence to their invariable regularity in Presidential campaigns, it is, in my judgment, wholly unlikely that he will fail to support the Democratic ticket whoever may be nominated. In at least two cities Mr. Hearst has profited greatly by the opportunity offered to him in a

Presidential year when there was no active Democratic paper in the field. It is not at all likely that in the coming campaign he will open to other enterprising publishers the same opportunity in Boston or in Chicago by taking his papers out of the Democratic ranks.

As I said at the opening of this article, this is mere speculation, based upon some knowledge of the mental processes of the man. Yet it is altogether probable that it may prove a fair forecast of his action.

If it is to be accepted, as seems reasonable, that Mr. Bryan is to be the nominee of the Democratic party, it may be asserted without much qualification that the nomination will not be personally acceptable to Mr. Hearst. Nobody supported Mr. Bryan more warmly in 1896 than Hearst did, and with characteristic instinct to trim his sails to meet an unfavorable gale nobody ever printed a more hostile, denunciatory editorial against Mr. Bryan than did Mr. Hearst the morning after the defeat of that year. No one among the newspaper owners of the country supported Bryan more warmly in 1900 than he; yet before the Bryan renomination of 1900 the Hearst papers in some instances thrust in a knife and turned it around when the name of Bryan was mentioned. But when election time came on Hearst played fair.

The reason for citing these matters of past history is to lend new emphasis to the assertion, which I made in an early paragraph of this article, that Mr. Hearst's political actions cannot be judged either by the past or by the present. Mr. Hearst has not said that his papers will force an Independence League candidate, and as a matter of fact there is no candidate save Mr. Hearst himself who on that ticket would create a ripple on the political sea of the nation. To those who know him best it seems improbable that Mr. Hearst would be a candidate, and impossible that he would wreck the growing prosperity of his newspapers and his telegraphic news service by throwing the strength of both to an utterly hopeless Presidential candidacy designed only to break down the Democratic party, which has served his papers as well as they have served it, and with the futile idea of building up a new party in years to come.

Hearst the business man will not bolt. Hearst the journalist will consider the position of his papers. What Hearst the politician, advised by men in his employ who have their own axes to grind, may do is another question. But those who know best think that the business man will predominate.

# CHECKING THE WASTE OF OUR NATIONAL RESOURCES.

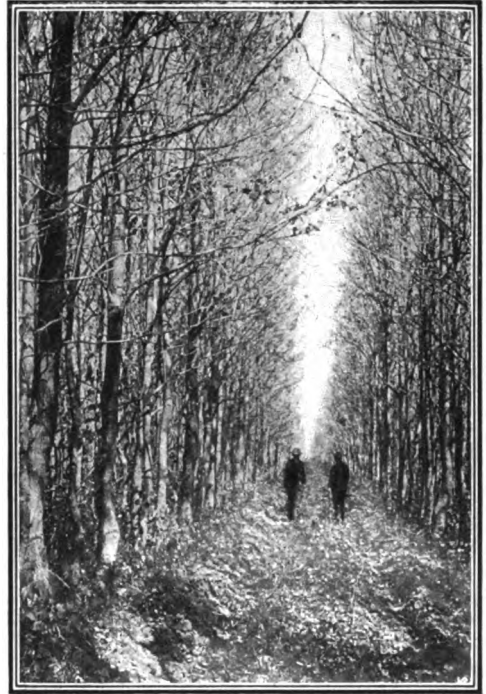
BY GUY ELLIOTT MITCHELL.

(United States Geological Survey.)

**F**ORTUNATE it is for the United States that there is not another American continent, with area, climate; and resources similar to our own, to be discovered, settled, and exploited; for if there were we would quickly fall to second place among nations. Our supremacy is based upon our unrivaled natural resources; but, as the President has remarked, we are skimming the cream. In all the world's history there is no parallel, nor anything approaching a parallel, for the rapidity of action which has been witnessed in the material development of the United States,—its discovery, section by section; its settlement, its exploitation, and already in many cases the utter exhaustion of its natural resources.

This spectacular progress, especially during the last few decades, has been the wonder of the world, for it is within the past half-century only that our really great development has occurred. In that time the face of the country has been transformed; we have cut away nearly a million square miles of forest; we have wasted billions of tons of coal,—nearly as much as we have used,—and we have allowed water-power worth hundreds of millions of dollars annually to run to waste. So that now we face a timber famine, we see the warning signs of coal and iron exhaustion, we have 500,000,000 acres of grazing land reduced one-third in value through over-grazing and lack of control, and we see our navigable rivers, year by year in increasing measure, being filled with silt and débris due to soil erosion from forest denudation and becoming more and more difficult of control. Yet we press heedlessly on, with all the assurance of sublime ignorance, firm in the popular belief that our magnificent resources are inexhaustible.

So that it is fortunate for us that we can have no really active competitor, while, if we wake in time to a full realization of the rapid and needless exhaustion of many of our resources, and then order our expenditures so that, as far as possible, we shall be using interest and not principal, we may be



PROFITABLE TREE-PLANTING.

(Catalpa plantation of 421 acres near Hutchinson, Kan. The period of twelve years from planting to marketing showed an average annual profit of \$21.55 per acre.)

able to maintain our position of primacy indefinitely. Even with the vast waste which has gone on our natural resources are yet richer, more varied, and more easily available than those of any other equal area in the world; but it is time, full time, to call a halt on their wasteful exploitation and take an account of stock. The situation is alarming, but it is not desperate, and already strong corrective forces are at work to bring about a better condition. Here, again, the country is fortunate in that it has at its head at this time a man who fully grasps the situation, whose entire administration has been an effort to prevent the waste of this natural wealth of the nation, and who now is foster-

ing a broad movement to arouse the American people to a realization of the threatened danger and evolve a solution of the problem. The President has called a meeting of the governors of all the States and of representative officials and citizens at the White House for May 13, 14, and 15, and in his letter of invitation he remarks:

GREATEST OF NATIONAL PROBLEMS.

There is no other question now before the nation of equal gravity with the question of the conservation of our natural resources, and it is the plain duty of us who, for the moment, are responsible, to take inventory of the natural resources which have been handed down to us, to forecast the needs of the future, and so handle the great sources of our prosperity as not to destroy in advance all hope of the prosperity of our descendants.

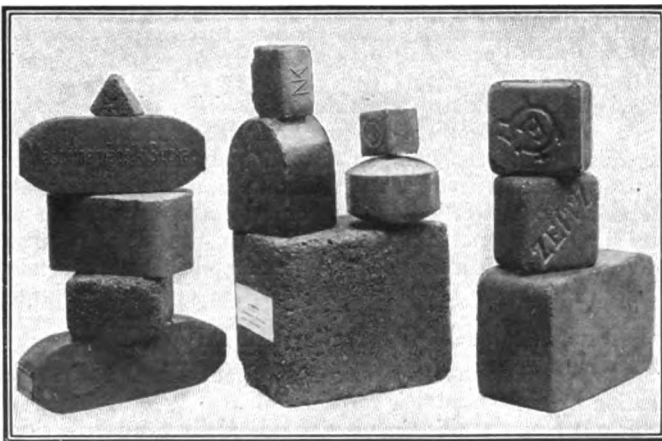
It is evident that the abundant natural resources on which the welfare of the nation rests are becoming depleted, and in not a few cases are already exhausted. This is true of all portions of the United States; it is especially true of the longer-settled communities of the East. Facts which I cannot gainsay force me to believe that the conservation of our natural resources is the most weighty question now before the people of the United States. If this is so, the proposed conference, which is the first of its kind, will be among the most important gatherings in our history in its effect upon the welfare of all the people.

An important preliminary to this meeting of the governors was the President's appointment, in March of last year, of the Inland Waterways Commission, to make a study of and report a comprehensive plan for the improvement and control of the river systems of the United States.

The Inland Waterways Commission has been active during the past year, and its findings and conclusions thus far will form the basis of much of the discussion at the May meeting of governors. But there are also other sources of Government information in connection with the volume, the waste, the use, and the conservation of natural resources. The entire work of the Forest Service is devoted to the right use and therefore the conservation of the forests of the United States, the Reclamation Service is creating homes out of desert land, the Department of Agriculture is a department of creation and improvement of agricultural resources, and the Geological Survey is a bureau of investigation and experimentation, and its results, attained from research over a wide field, afford some of the most striking instances wherein the application of science to industry points out possible revolution in methods of astounding importance in the consideration of the problems of waste prevention and the conservation of resources.

THE WASTE IN OUR COAL-FIELDS.

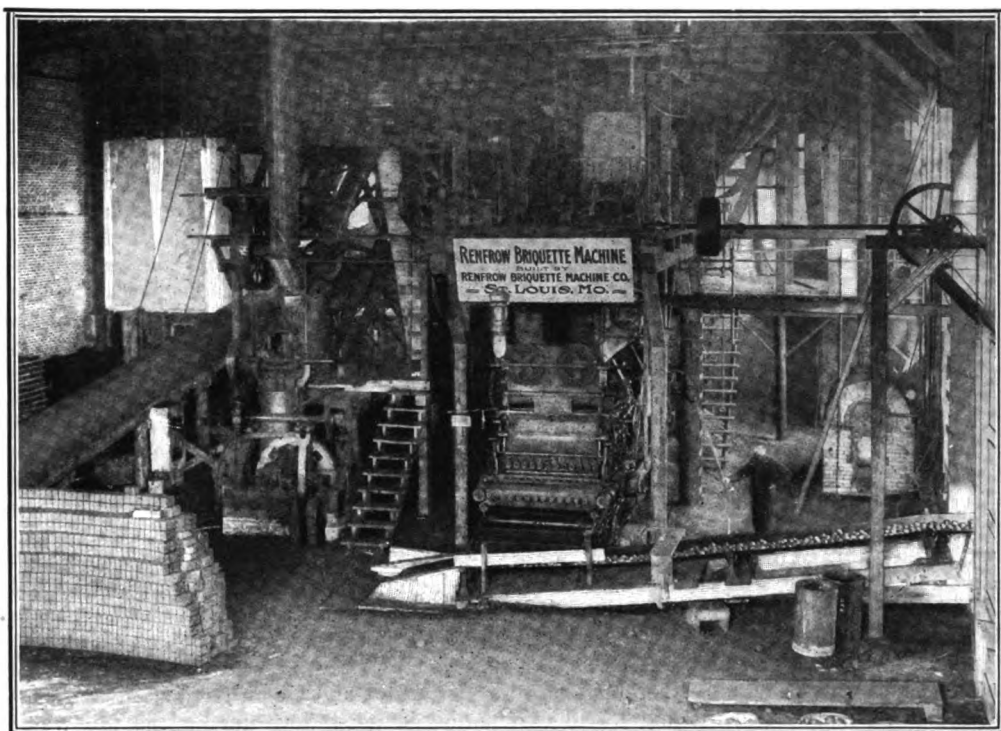
There is no more striking and in large measure useless, if not criminal, waste of a resource which is the very life of the country than in the coal-mining industry. The Government coal experts say that between 300,000,000 and 400,000,000 tons of coal was lost in the mining and marketing of the country's coal product in the single year 1906, and a rough estimate places the loss since the beginning of the industry at 50,000,000,000 tons. Seams of coal are mined so as to leave two or three feet on the roof and floor, and where two or more seams occur, the lowest and best one may be mined, after which the others, seams four or five feet thick, cave in and are irretrievably lost. Millions of tons of low-grade coal actually mined are annually cast upon the culm or slack piles because they are less profitable to handle than the selected coal. But there is a future for this refuse in the manufacture of briquets, thus forming a superior fuel, free from dirt and dust, and largely non-smoking.



COAL BRIQUETS AS THEY ARE NOW MANUFACTURED.

(For the making of these briquets there are available in the United States tens of millions of tons annually of waste coal and dust.)





A BRIQUET MACHINE OF LATEST TYPE.

(Used by the Government in its fuel-testing plant at Norfolk, Va. Capacity, ten tons an hour.)

There is hope for the briquet, just as there is hope for many other practices and processes which will tend to conserve America's natural resources, because it will be profitable to invoke them. Legislation can help to a certain extent; investigations and experiments will tend to promote the adoption of good practice, and public agitation and education urging us to leave something of the heritage which we received to our children will have an influence; but the one thing which will control in these matters is the question of profit. Men and corporations are not likely to be patriotic at the expense of their pockets, but if they can be shown how present waste can be conserved at a profit the situation can be viewed with optimism and confidence, for it will work itself out. The cost of briquet coal is at present slightly greater than that of lump coal, but briquets produce a much hotter fire and less smoke than lump coal. As an instance, in tests recently made on the Atlantic Coast Line Railroad 172,700 pounds of coal was consumed in making 10,912 car-miles, as against 161,980 pounds of briquets in making 12,896 car-miles, while the engine burn-

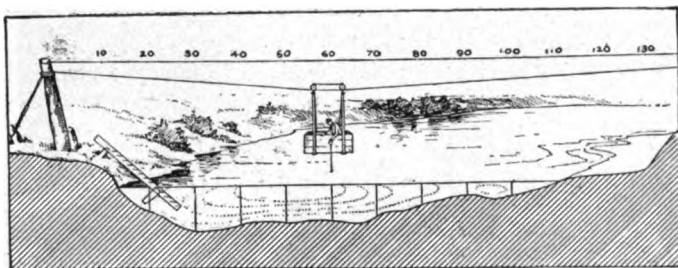
ing the briquets also made sixty-one minutes better time.

The greatest development of fuel-power out of waste material, however, is to come through the substitution of the gas engine for the steam engine. In the coal tests of the Geological Survey fuel-testing plant two to three times as much energy has been extracted from coal used with a gas engine as under a steam boiler, and, furthermore, the heretofore almost worthless low-grade soft coals and lignites have been found highly efficient as gas producers. This discovery at one stroke in effect enlarges our coal-fields by several hundred million acres.

Eventually, then, we shall see coal waste and low-grade coal made into briquets, and gas-producer plants erected at the mines, their energy converted into electricity and transmitted 100 and even 200 miles.

#### SAVING THE WESTERN COALS.

President Roosevelt has given evidence of his practical methods of dealing with the nation's resources in his treatment of the Western coal question. There are estimated to be 77,000,000 acres of Western coal-lands, a



A DIAGRAM SHOWING STREAM-GAUGING METHODS.  
(Measurements made every ten feet.)

large proportion being on the public domain. In June, 1906, the President withdrew 67,000,000 acres of public coal-lands pending a classification and valuation by the Geological Survey. This action roused vigorous protest from the West, but also developed the fact that Western capitalists, not content with being able to acquire \$100 coal-lands at the nominal price heretofore asked of \$10 or \$20 an acre, had obtained vast tracts under absolute fraud, securing the property under the homestead, desert-land, and other laws at a cost of \$1.25 an acre. In a single field examined by the coal geologists it was found that where 13,128 acres had been legally purchased at the \$10-\$20 rate, 15,860 acres had been taken up as agricultural land. Nearly 40,000,000 acres of the reserved coal-lands has been classified and valued by the Survey geologists at from \$10 to \$75 per acre and restored to public entry, so that legitimate operations have been hindered but slightly.

#### OUR GREATEST MINERAL RESOURCE.

Water is a mineral, and of all the natural resources of the country this element has the greatest value, and if properly controlled it will repeat its labors in man's behalf over and over as long as rain descends and rivers flow. But uncontrolled it is an agent of destruction, and the constantly increasing floods, with the constantly increasing appropriations by Congress to attempt their control, indicate that the servant is getting the upper hand of its master. The consideration of the fuel resources of the country directly involves the question of the substitution of of water-power for coal in the production of electrical energy. No one knows just how many millions of tons of coal are consumed annually in producing the 14,400,000 horse-power derived from that source, but every unit of this development should be extracted

from water, thus conserving the coal for other purposes. And here enter as prime factors practical forestry and reservoir-building, while the question of inland navigation is so closely interlocked as to become part of the whole.

In the Southern Appalachian region alone the streams afford a minimum power, largely going to waste, of 2,830,000 horse-

power. This is as the streams are to-day. But Mr. Pinchot, the chief forester, proposes the establishment of an Appalachian national forest for the double purpose of conserving the timber supply and protecting the headwaters of the Appalachian streams, and Mr. Leighton, the chief hydrographer of the Geological Survey, proposes the reservoiring of all the river tributaries of the Ohio (and in fact all the Appalachian streams) for the double purpose of flood prevention by storing the excess water and aid to navigation by maintaining a good flow during the low-water period through the gradual letting down of the stored water from these reservoirs. Incidentally, an augmented water-power development would result which might increase the above figures to 10,000,000 horse-power. Think of it, and electrical horse-power is worth to-day from \$20 to \$80 per year per horse-power! The records of river-flows and river surveys made by the Geological Survey show that there is sufficient unused power in the Appalachian system to turn every wheel of industry which would otherwise use coal in the entire region from Maine to Alabama and from the Atlantic to the Mississippi when our population and industrial capacity shall have double the present figures.

Mr. Leighton's plan for the reservoiring of the tributaries of the Ohio is the most gigantic and comprehensive scheme for internal improvement and conservation of present wasted resources which has ever been definitely formulated in the history of the country. By the utilization of about 100 natural storage basins near the head-waters of these streams, where the greatest precipitation occurs, the flow of the Ohio would be controlled almost as perfectly as is any city water supply.

In presenting the plan to the Inland Waterways Commission Mr. Leighton offers detailed figures of stream-flow and reservoir

capacity which show conclusively that the floods of these rivers can be prevented, navigable stages maintained, and power developed worth as much in one year as the total cost of the reservoiring. The work would be one of magnitude, of course, with a probable cost of upward of \$100,000,000 for complete installation; but the floods of last year alone caused a damage, compiled from local reports, along the Ohio Valley of more than this amount.

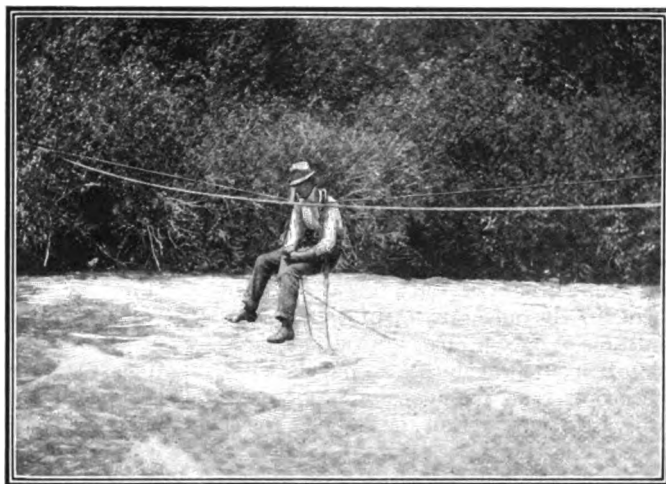
In the West, where the prime object of river control is the utilization of water for irrigation, the entire precipitation of river basins is absolutely conserved in mountain reservoirs, and as the water is let down for irrigation every available horse-power unit is extracted. The control of the Appalachian river system would be similar, only on a vaster scale, while the water would serve its final purpose for navigation instead of crop production.

A brief statement of the proposed treatment of a tributary of the Ohio, the Tennessee River, will serve to illustrate the whole plan: The Tennessee River has a drainage

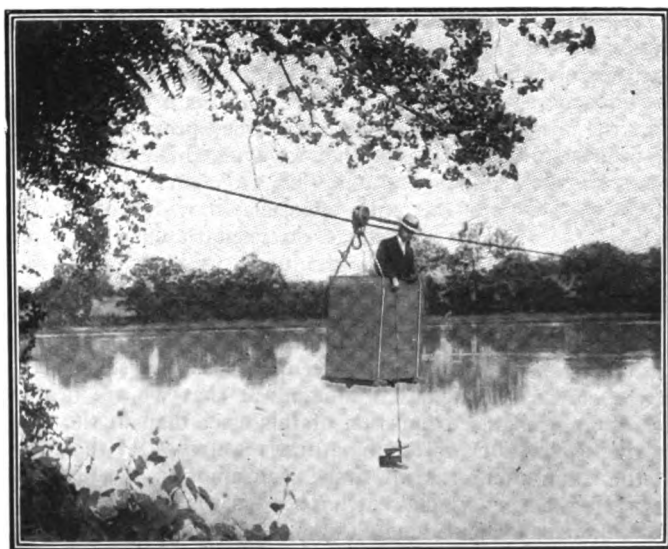
area of 39,000 square miles and flows through a rich agricultural country, where the floods cause great damage. It has a navigable reach of 1300 miles, but during the low-water period a child can wade across it, and the Government engineers figure on only six feet in the lower river and at a large cost for initial dredging and other work and annual maintenance. The minimum indicated power developed by the low-water flow of the Tennessee is nearly 1,000,000 horse-power, while if the

system of available storage reservoirs were constructed the power would be increased to several times this huge figure. These reservoirs would conserve the entire annual flow from 12,250 square miles, or 32 per cent. of the drainage area. With this 32 per cent. of its drainage area practically cut off, the river would, during its greatest floods, be well below its own danger line at the point where it debouches into the Ohio, and with the other tributaries of the Ohio similarly reservoired the main river itself would be below the danger line.

Why not utilize the reservoirs provided by nature and conserve some of this



A GOVERNMENT HYDROGRAPHER GAUGING A WILD STREAM IN MONTANA.



A TYPICAL STREAM-MEASURING SCENE.  
(Measuring the flow of the Shenandoah River, Virginia.)

flood-flow and then later use it to correct the water shrinkage? During the great flood of January, 1907, the use of the reservoir system would have reduced the river's flow by 200,000 cubic feet of water per second, and have kept the river below danger line. And this same stored water would have provided the Tennessee River in its lower reaches with a navigable depth of ten feet during the low-water season. Why then, indeed, should we not build the necessary dams, twenty of them, in the upper basin of the Tennessee, and thus at once protect the valley from danger of flood, provide better navigation than the people can ever hope for otherwise, and also vast power? And the story of the Tennessee tells the story of all the other tributaries of the Ohio and of the Ohio itself.

If the Tennessee were the only river in the country providentially provided with natural storage facilities making it possible to solve both its flood and navigation problems we should probably grasp the opportunity to apply this plan and bemoan the fact that other rivers were not similarly blessed, but the facts are that most of our rivers, throughout the entire country, east and west, are so provided, and their proper treatment by reservoiring would solve the entire question of navigation and floods, even extending to the Mississippi itself.

At least this is what Mr. Leighton believes, and he has the figures and data to prove it, based upon the topographic and hydrographic surveys of the Geological Survey, and it is what the Inland Waterways Commission very generally believes, and it is what at least some of the army engineers believe, though it is in a measure in opposition to the general plan adopted by the army for the regulation of rivers in the interests of navigation.

#### CONCRETE REPLACING WOOD AND IRON.

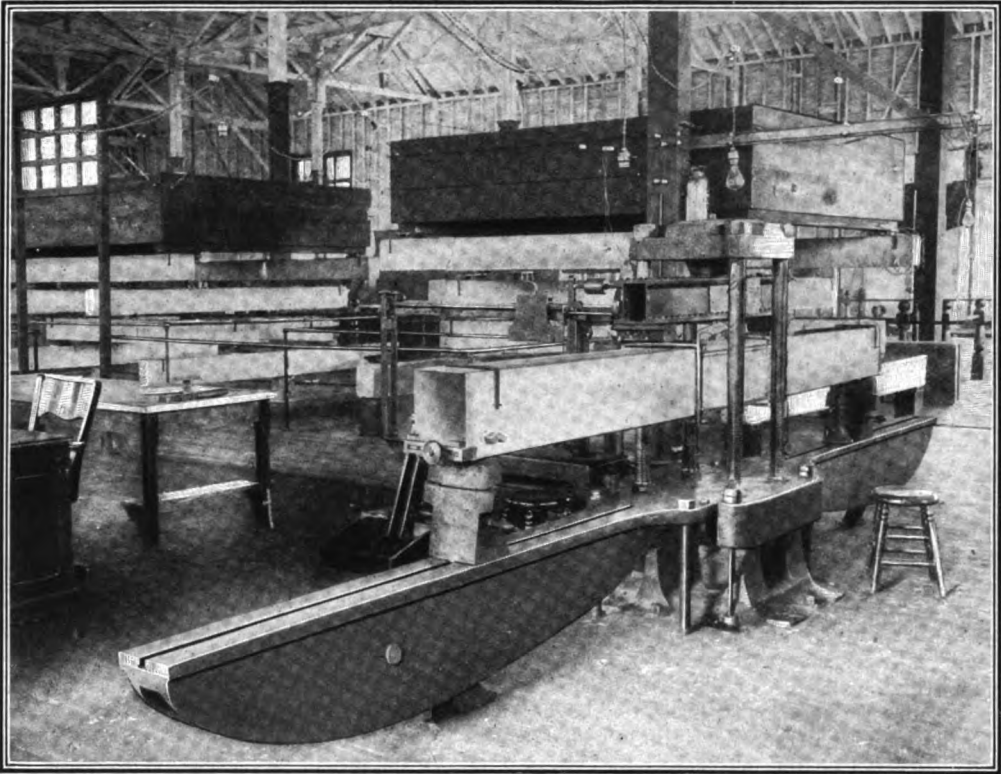
The total iron ore available in the world is twenty-five thousand million tons, of which fifteen thousand million is in the United States, according to the best geological estimates. This is a vast amount, yet by no means inexhaustible; for should the rate of consumption continue to increase in the United States in the same ratio that it has during the past twenty years the supply would be exhausted in 200 years. In these discussions of the exhaustion of materials,—lumber, coal, iron, etc.,—the mere statement of the probable length of time that they will last does not tell all of the story. It is per-

haps not an unjust commentary on human nature to say that if the present availability and cheapness of iron, for instance, should be known to endure for 200 years, the great majority of people could not be interested in providing measures to help conditions at the end of that time. What such statements mean is that long before the time limit set the pinch will be felt. The limit stated is the point of exhaustion; prices will soar and suffering prevail long before that point is reached; so that unless a resource is actually or practically inexhaustible the present is the time to conserve it, not solely upon the ground that we should provide for posterity, but for the more compelling reason that if we do not our own generation itself will suffer.

But if some material can be generally substituted for structural steel, the fear of an iron shortage need no longer be entertained, for it is in this field that the greatest drain on iron deposits is made. In reinforced concrete that material is already being utilized and is becoming more and more extensively employed, while exhaustive experiments indicate its almost boundless possibilities. Its constituent materials are practically unlimited and widely distributed, and its substitution for building not only leaves iron and wood for more necessary purposes but greatly reduces liability to destruction by fire. Concrete and reinforced concrete, according to the chief engineer of the technologic branch of the Geological Survey, are more economical than any other fireproof construction. They can be built with as great spans and to support as great loads as any other material. They are fully as fire-resisting as any other material. They provide the most rigid construction known. They are as durable as any materials of construction. They are the only materials known which continue to increase in strength with age, and the supply is absolutely without limit.

#### THE NATION'S WORST-ABUSED RESOURCE.

Of all the country's natural resources the forests have been the most shamefully treated, with the result that we are nearer the exhaustion of this asset than in the case of any other natural resource. At the present rate of timber consumption the price of every class of lumber ten years hence will be about double the present figure. The present chief of the service is a forester after the President's own heart, a man who does things, and the President is just the kind of



TESTING A CONCRETE BEAM TO THE BREAKING POINT.

(The 200,000-pound testing machine of the United States Geological Survey.)

a man on forestry questions that Mr. Pinchot likes to work under. Together they constitute a great forest team. The forester plans and executes and the President backs him up.

The Forest Service is now administering the 150,000,000 acres of national forests in the West, and friends of forestry are straining every nerve for the establishment of a national forest in the Appalachians. The service is also very active in carrying on co-operative work with private forests with the common-sense end in view, while considerable work is in hand in the way of forest-planting by the Government and encouraging private enterprise in the same field. The work, however, could well be increased ten-fold.

The chief forester is carrying on a great educational campaign, appealing not so much to sentiment as to reason. It is profitable, in lumbering, to provide for a succeeding crop; it is profitable to plant trees; it is well to know that a dozen species of quick-growing trees, a few years ago considered practically

worthless, can now be creosoted and thus made to outlast, as posts, poles and timbers, some of the best lumber species untreated. The Service is enlisting the newspapers in its fight, and the people are beginning to learn about and appreciate the value of the forests.

#### THE RESOURCES OF AGRICULTURE.

Fertile, unoccupied land is the greatest fundamental latent resource of a nation. We have vast areas of it, unoccupied or only partially occupied. America's desert and swamp lands susceptible of reclamation through irrigation and drainage constitute an area of at least 175,000,000 acres. The cost of making this habitable and productive will range, for the most of it, from \$3 or \$4 to \$50 per acre, but its reclaimed value will far exceed the cost. We have also, in round numbers, nearly half a billion acres of Western public range. By restricting the grazing on this land and reseeding portions the Secretary of Agriculture estimates that its meat-producing capacity will be nearly doubled. We have also another great land resource

not generally considered by economists,—namely, the possibility of the full instead of only the partial use of land. An example of what this means is in the recent introduction by the Department of Agriculture of durum or macaroni wheat, the success of which as a dry-land crop immediately brought into availability as farming-land a territory averaging at least 300 miles wide and stretching from the Canadian border to the Gulf, which ten years ago was considered useless for anything but stock grazing.

There are two legislative possibilities which are pregnant with large promise for the future conservation of natural resources, radical, revolutionary, but sensible. One is indicated by an opinion handed down by the Supreme Court of Maine, last March, holding that a State has the right to enact regulations to prevent wasteful cutting or mismanagement of private forest-lands. The display of such authority by a State will be hailed by many private interests as amounting to confiscation. What, shall a State arrogate to itself the right to prevent a man from utilizing his timber, even if the action does denude the land of its protective cover? Has the individual then no rights which are to be respected by the law? But the Maine Supreme Court stands squarely on this ground and says that where forest cover is necessary to maintain water supply the general welfare of the community is to be considered ahead of the profit of the individual.

Yet this decision is not so radical as might at first glance appear, and it has a parallel. In the early days the mining interests of the Pacific Coast were paramount, and entire mountains were demolished by hydraulic washing. The result was that the valleys lower down were submerged with silt and debris. Then as the agricultural interests became prominent the rights of the miners were restricted, and hydraulic washing was prohibited. This course is exactly parallel with the Maine opinion. Where the denudation of timbered watersheds threatens the stream-flow furnishing power and navigation the law will step in and prevent the owner from applying natural hydraulics which would fill up these streams with silt and debris now anchored to the slopes by the forest cover.

Another possibility is a subject for nation-

al legislation,—namely, the leasing of all mineral rights, instead of granting absolute title to mineral land; as under the present law. A geologist of the Geological Survey has just returned to America from a study of the conditions in the Australian states, where the government retains title to all mineral lands, leasing them to miners and operators under such provisions as require their development and prevent undue waste. He states that whereas both policies have been thoroughly tried, the present consensus of opinion strongly favors leasing as being perfectly fair and satisfactory to the miner, while it results in the maximum mineral development. In western Australia, a great democratic mining commonwealth, the government-leasing system has proved itself in every way satisfactory. Whether such a measure would find favor with Congress is a question. It is significant that to-day absolute title to mineral railroad lands in the West is not obtainable.

There are dozens of natural resources which might be discussed, some of them being developed economically, others wastefully; but the tendency of the times is now toward conservation and waste prevention, and, as stated, the most hopeful sign lies in the fact that it can be shown, generally, that the economical way provides the greatest profit. While it is a fact that America's natural resources, not equaled by those of any other country, have been in large measure ruthlessly wasted, yet the situation is far from hopeless. The slogan of conservation has been sounded from high quarters and in good time. Prompt action, where advisable through legislation, national or State; increased scientific investigation, and wide public education will save the day. Special interests will of course fight reform where it interferes with their immediate profits, but in the end there must be a triumph for the right way, and natural laws will greatly assist. Yet the entire great question is worthy the most serious thought and endeavor of every citizen of the Republic who has at heart his country's welfare and continuance of national supremacy. Great strength, then, and increasing power to the arm of the movement of which the coming meeting of governors and delegates at the White House is the first national recognition.

# A NATIONAL INVENTORY.

BY RICHARD H. EDMONDS.

(Editor of the *Manufacturers' Record*, Baltimore.)

LET us, as a people, take an account of stock. Have we reached the zenith of our material greatness? Have we built enough railroads, and only need, as some have thought, to round out and perfect our present system? Have we used up our best resources in creating our present development, or have we only done a little pioneering work? Have we really seriously begun the development of our country? Is not all the work so far done merely the clearing of the land, the pulling up of the stumps, the digging of the ground, and the laying of a foundation for our business structure? Have we not simply been the students in some great institution learning how to do things, and getting acquainted with our country and its resources? Or, changing the form of expression, is it not true that until now we have been day laborers, and apprentices, and mechanics only, but that, having passed this stage, we have advanced until we are ready to take charge of the shop and really do business? It behooves us, therefore, to study our tools, to see wherein the shop is deficient and wherein it is well equipped. Then we must know about our raw materials and the facilities of the shop to meet the world's competition. Let us look first over the old patterns and see what the shop has done in comparison with what other shops have produced.

## OUR INDUSTRIES AGAINST THE WORLD'S INDUSTRIES.

Considering the United States as a great workshop,—possibly the future workshop of the world,—a summary of its size and its tools,—its tools being its people and its resources,—and of what it has already accomplished in comparison with the world's totals may be presented in the following table:

	World.	United States.	Per cent. United States.
Area in square miles	50,656,000	3,026,000	5.9
Population	1,650,000,000	86,000,000	5.2
Corn, bushels	3,285,000,000	2,592,320,000	78.8
Wheat, bushels	3,002,000,000	634,087,000	20.7
Tobacco, pounds	2,210,000,000	608,000,000	31.1
Cotton, bales	18,578,000	13,346,000	71.3

	World.	United States.	Per cent. United States.
Pig iron, tons	61,000,000	25,780,000	42.2
Petroleum, barrels	260,000,000	162,600,000	62.5
Copper, pounds	1,597,000,000	918,000,000	57.5
Gold, value	\$404,000,000	\$89,620,000	22.1
Silver, value	\$106,835,000	\$37,914,000	35.5
Sulphur, tons	832,644	298,859	35.8
Coal, tons	1,220,000,000	455,000,000	37.3
Phosphate rock, tons	3,632,000	1,978,000	54.4
Cotton spindles	122,880,000	26,000,000	21
Railroad mileage	570,000	225,000	39.5

In round figures we have 3,000,000 square miles out of the total 50,000,000 square miles of the world's area. We have a population of 86,000,000, or a fraction over 5 per cent. of the world's. With an area of 5.9 per cent. of the world's, and a population of 5.2 per cent., we are raising annually 43 per cent. of the world's total production of wheat, corn, and oats. Of corn alone,—one of the most important cereals known to mankind,—we are producing 78.8 per cent.; of tobacco we are raising 31.1 per cent., and of cotton 71.3 per cent. Thus, in agriculture,—the starting point of material progress, since man must first be fed and clothed,—is found an illustration of our position.

This agricultural supremacy is fully matched in minerals and manufactures. Taking the most recent available figures, which include a few estimates for 1907, and the striking comparison is produced that we made last year over 42 per cent. of the world's iron production, or 25,780,000 tons out of a total of 61,000,000 tons. We mined 455,000,000 tons of coal out of a total of 1,220,000,000 tons, or 37.3 per cent. of the industrial energy stored in coal, the motive power of material progress. Of petroleum, which lights so large a portion of the earth, illuminating the adobe house in the wilds of the mountain regions of Mexico, the home of the dweller in the Andes, the hut of the mountaineer in the distant regions of the Himalayas, and likewise furnishes what is regarded as the best of lights in the dwellings of wealth and even of royalty, we produced last year 162,600,000 barrels, or 62.5 per cent. of the world's total of 260,000,000 barrels.



The development of electricity,—the marvel of these latter ages,—is dependent upon copper for transmission. Without it electric power, the electric car line, and electric light, would be almost impossible. In copper, as in petroleum, the United States holds a dominating position. It produced 57.5 per cent. of the world's output, or 918,000,000 pounds, out of a total of 1,597,000,000.

The foundation of the vast fertilizer industry in this country and Europe, which makes possible the restoration of fertility to wasted soils, bringing to all mankind the blessings of an increase in agricultural yield, is phosphate rock. Of this the United States mined 1,978,000 tons last year, or 54.4 per cent. of the world's total of 3,632,000 tons. Until a few years ago sulphur, so essential in the arts and sciences, and so large a factor in many lines of industrial work, was controlled by Sicily. Backed by the Italian Government, Sicilian sulphur dominated the sulphur trade of America as well as of Europe. Within the last few years this country has begun the development of its sulphur interests. Though the industry is yet in its infancy, it is producing 298,859 tons, or 35.8 per cent. of the total of 832,644 tons of the world.

We mined 35.5 per cent. of the world's silver, 22.1 per cent. of its gold, and have 21 per cent. of its cotton-spindles. The railroad, which probably better than anything else expresses the measure of a nation's material advancement, is represented in this country by 225,000 miles out of a total of 570,000 miles for all the world, giving us 39.5 per cent. With 5 per cent. of the world's population, and less than 6 per cent. of its area, we have nearly 40 per cent. of the world's railroads. Moreover, our railroads are capitalized at far less per mile than the railroads of any other country. Their freight rates are from one-third to one-half as much as the freight rates of Europe. They are more energetically managed and do more for the material upbuilding of the country, pay better wages, and give better facilities than any other roads in the world.

#### OUR STEADY GAIN IN PRODUCTIVE POWER.

We are steadily gaining in our proportion of the world's productive interests, as illustrated in the fact that at the beginning of this century we were producing 34 per cent. of the world's iron, as against 42.2 per cent. now; 42.9 per cent. of petroleum, as against 62.5 per cent. at present; 55.5 per cent. of

the world's copper, as compared with 57.5 per cent. to-day; 31.9 per cent. of the world's coal, as against 37.3 per cent.; and while we are now producing 35.8 per cent. of the sulphur, our total output seven years ago was less than one-half of 1 per cent. of the world's output. These figures indicate something of what we have done. They give us an insight into the character and extent of the product of this the world's busiest workshop. They furnish an unanswerable refutation of many of the arguments of the last few years against our business methods and against the solidity of our material progress. With 5 per cent. of the world's population, we have for some years been steadily gaining on the world in agriculture, in railroads, and in manufacture.

#### AMERICA'S COAL SUPPLY.

To the facts which tell of what has been done must be added a few others which throw light upon our resources in raw materials before we can fully measure the potentialities of the future. Have we resources sufficient to continue this tremendous rate of production? Or is it possible that we have only begun to work and that our resources are sufficient to go forward to a point where the statistics of to-day will seem as small as the statistics of fifty years ago would now be in comparison with what we are to-day doing?

Power is the fulcrum that moves the world. Coal is the basis of power. The utilization of rivers for the development of electrical energy is of comparatively recent origin; its possibilities are wonderfully great; but the chief source of the dynamic force back of the industrial movement of the world is coal. How stands the United States in its supply of coal as compared with other lands? We have 340,000 square miles of coal area. A very large portion of it has wider veins and a better quality of coal than any in Europe, except in a limited area. Against this vast domain Europe has 42,000 square miles. Great Britain, France, and Germany have only 14,400 square miles. Of the total of 42,000 square miles, Russia has 25,000. All Europe has only one-eighth as much coal area as we possess. This foundation, eight times as great in area and probably twenty times as great in extent of resources, gives to the United States a primacy in the production of power which must make us the envied nation, not of Europe alone, but of the world. It is known that there are

large areas of coal in China, some in Japan, and some in other lands, but geologists do not to-day know of as much coal in the rest of the world as is definitely known in the United States.

As illuminating the subject, take this one fact: If the coal in the State of West Virginia could be capitalized at 10 cents a ton,—a triflingly small figure to represent the value of a ton of coal,—the capitalized wealth of the coal of that State would be \$10,000,000,000. This would be about eleven times the combined capital of all the national banks in the United States. In fact, if West Virginia could capitalize its coal at 10 cents a ton, and find a market for the securities, it would be able to pay off the national debts of the United States, Great Britain, and France; or, at present depressed prices, it could buy all the railroads in the United States, stocks and bonds included. West Virginia is marvelously rich in coal, but Kentucky is probably equally as rich. The coal and iron of Alabama combined ought in the future to be worth even more than the coal of West Virginia. There are other States in the possession of mineral resources that very nearly match these richly endowed commonwealths. With this simple illustration of what the capitalized wealth of coal in one State would be, some conception can be gained of how impossible it is to state in figures the wealth potentialities of this country. Our resources in water-powers available for utilization are estimated by experts to be as much greater than Europe's as is our supply of coal.

#### OUR PRIMACY IN IRON AND STEEL.

In its influence upon a nation's advancement iron ranks next to coal. Every line of human activity is dependent upon iron in some form or in some way. The expansion of railroads, the development of steamship service on rivers, lakes, and oceans; manufacturing of every kind, the erection of great office-buildings; in fact, everything which pertains to modern material progress in peace or in war rests upon iron.

Two years ago Mr. J. Stephen Jeans, secretary of the British Iron Trade Association, called attention to the fact that from the beginning of recorded history "up to the end of 1904 the world's consumption of iron ores had aggregated 1,100,000,000 tons," whereas at the present rate of consumption the world would consume this amount of ore in less than ten years. In view of this ex-

pansion of the iron trade, Mr. Jeans said: "We would seem to be within a little more than half a century of an absolute iron famine. . . . This fact raises problems of serious consequence to the world's iron industry and to the outlook for civilization itself. . . . The question how far the ascertained iron resources of the world are likely to prove adequate to the maintenance of the world's increasing demands for iron and steel is one of the most important and interesting that can engage attention from the point of view of general trade and commerce. Iron being the daily bread of industry, this becomes a matter of urgent and constant concern, not to one industry or to one nation only, but to all industries and all nations almost alike. The time may come when iron ores will be recognized as a possession of such infinite and unapproached value that none can be purchased from foreign countries." And referring to the capitalization of \$1 per ton placed upon its ores by the Steel Corporation at the time it was organized, Mr. Jeans said: "Probably this was not overstated. On the contrary, I should be surprised if the directors of the Steel Corporation, in view of the fuller knowledge that they now possess as to the limited volume of iron ores at command in relation to the increased and increasing output of iron, would not place the value of their unworked ores at more than they did in 1901."

Measured by this standard of the enormous values of iron ores in affecting the world's trade,—and Mr. Jeans ranks as one of the highest and most conservative authorities on metallurgical questions,—how fares the United States in its supply of iron ore as a basis for the continued expansion of its iron and steel industry? A report made a few years ago to the Swedish Government estimated the total iron ore supplies of all Europe at about 8,900,000,000 tons. Much of this is of very low-grade ores, running in some cases from 20 to 25 per cent. only in metallic iron. The correctness of these figures has been accepted by the leading experts of Europe, and, therefore, we may take it that, as far as human knowledge now goes, all Europe has only that amount of ore. In this country we have, according to the report of the United States Geological Survey, of known ores, 12,000,000,000 tons, or largely more than all Europe. Granted that other sources of supply may be found in other lands, it is quite probable that such discoveries will be fully matched by discoveries yet

to be made in this country. When we have doubled, which we must inevitably do within the next ten or twelve years, the 25,000,000 tons of iron produced to-day, and are then making 50,000,000 tons, we shall still find our resources in iron ore equal to the demands of the times.

Thus in coal and iron,—the two essential factors in the advancement of civilization and in the development of material interests,—the position of the United States in comparison, not with Europe only, but with all the world, stands out so pre-eminently strong as to guarantee to this country an overmastering domination in metallurgical interests.

#### THE DOMINANCE OF AMERICAN COTTON.

Second only in the value of annual product is the cotton manufacturing of the world. No other industry except iron and steel exceeds in value the annual output of cotton goods. Though Europe has 86,000,000 spindles in its cotton-mills, which with cognate interests represent an investment of \$1,500,000,000 or more, its leading cotton-consuming countries do not raise a pound of cotton. For three-quarters of a century its governments have sought to develop cotton-growing in other lands in order to lessen their dependence upon our Southern States. Their work has been in vain. Stronger to-day than ever before is our monopoly of the world's cotton trade. Every year adds to the influence and power of the South's position in this industry. We are raising an average of about 12,000,000 to 12,500,000 bales a year. This could be doubled by better cultivation and the better selection of seed without the necessity of adding a new acre to the land under cultivation. Whenever it may be needed, however, the number of cultivated acres can easily be doubled. If the world should eventually need, as probably it will, 40,000,000 or 50,000,000 bales, this section will find a way to supply it.

#### AMERICA'S POSITION CONTRASTED WITH EUROPE'S.

Turn from the comparison between the United States and the world, and contrast the position of our country with that of all Europe. Then it will be understood why American resources and American progress have at times stirred the envy, and possibly the cupidity, of European governments. Europe has 3,748,000 square miles in its area, but much of this is almost uninhabitable by

reason of rigorous winters. On the other hand, the United States has 3,100,000 square miles, nearly all of which is susceptible of development and utilization for the support of population. Europe has 400,000,000 inhabitants, the United States 86,000,000. Europe mined last year between 650,000,000 and 700,000,000 tons of coal; the United States 455,000,000 tons. In Europe the production of coal per capita was 1.75 tons, and in the United States 5.29 tons. Europe is making one ton of pig iron to every 15 inhabitants; the United States one ton to every 3.4. Europe, with its 400,000,000 people, has 195,000 miles of railroad; the United States, with 86,000,000, has 225,000 miles. Its production of wheat and corn is about 2,200,000,000 bushels a year; ours is 3,500,000,000 bushels. As stated, its cotton industry, which, including all its ramifications, gives support to probably 40,000,000 or more of its people and employs a capital of \$1,500,000,000 or more, is mainly dependent on cotton produced by us. Europe pays us \$500,000,000 a year for our raw cotton; and against the absence of any cotton production there this crop is annually worth to our farmers \$800,000,000.

#### SMALL LIKELIHOOD OF OVERCROWDING.

Judging the future by the past, it is entirely safe to say that we shall add to our population during the next ten years about 20,000,000 people, and that by 1925 we shall have a total of between 125,000,000 and 130,000,000 inhabitants. By the middle of the century, or in 1950, we can count upon a population of 200,000,000. Without undertaking to compare the density of population in the United States with that of the more thickly settled countries of Europe, it may be stated that if the population of this country equaled per square mile the average in Pennsylvania at the time of the last census, we should have a total of 420,000,000 people. On the basis of Ohio's average the United States would have over 300,000,000, and on the average of population per square mile in New England the total would be 270,000,000. There is, therefore, no danger of overcrowding for many years to come.

#### LANDS TO BE RECLAIMED.

The area is here, and likewise the agricultural resources for the maintenance of a vast population. Moreover, here are the raw materials for making of this the world's workshop. Rapid progress is being made in

learning how to improve our soil in order to increase its yield. The work of irrigating millions of acres of land, the cultivation of which will furnish profitable employment to millions of people, is under way. Of even greater importance is the beginning made in the reclamation of our 75,000,000 acres of swamp, or overflowed lands, which when reclaimed will become the most valuable of all the farming lands of the country. When ready for the market these lands will be worth from \$50 to \$100 an acre or more, a total of between \$3,750,000,000 and \$7,500,000,000. When cultivated in the crops for which they are so well suited, these lands will produce more than \$100 worth a year per acre. The total value of the farm crops of the United States last year was \$7,400,000,000. It is quite safe to say that the reclaimable swamp-lands and the lands which are now being saved from the desert by irrigation will within the next generation or so produce a greater annual value than the total present value of all the farm products of the United States.

#### UNIQUE ADVANTAGES FOR INTERNATIONAL TRADE.

These facts, picked here and there merely to indicate the strategic position of the United States in the world's material development, do not by any means tell the full story. As our natural resources give us unequaled advantages, so our geographical location gives us a strategic position to command the world's trade. Midway between Europe, the Old World's center of civilization and activity, and the Orient, the coming center of world activity, stretching from ocean to ocean, the United States holds a unique position in the world's geography. This land of ours is Nature's storehouse of wealth. Here is a region unmatched on earth,—a country so fertile of soil, so burdened with coal and iron and copper and other minerals, that we do not have to concern ourselves for generations to come about their exhaustion. Con-

sider the whole earth; study the geographical location of all lands, their resources in climate, in soil, in minerals, in population, and the things which make for the highest development of mankind. The more you study, the more you comprehend the foundations of all human advancement, mental and ethical, the more you will be dazed at the vastness of our opportunities.

#### WILL EUROPE RESIST OUR ADVANCE?

Looking out from our mountain peak and forgetting the clouds beneath us, which must disappear, there is but one speck upon the horizon. It may vanish before the rising sun of the ever-expanding power of Christianity, but the speck is there to-day. It is the danger that Europe, realizing our tremendous advantages, seeing the limitless wealth of the future if we are left to continue our development, and knowing that such wealth and power would make us the arbiters of the fate of the world's trade and commerce, might combine to try to crush and control us before we reach that position. Many a nation has been literally forced by economic conditions to fight for its existence, and all Europe is so dependent upon us that it is not surprising that our very progress creates enmity. Without our cotton England and much of the continent would be bankrupt; without our foodstuffs prices would so advance that millions throughout Europe would starve; without our phosphate rock Europe's soil would lack its accustomed fertilization; without our oil a large part of the world would be in darkness; without our copper the electric advancement of Europe would be seriously restricted; without our turpentine and rosin there would be a famine in naval stores abroad. The weakness in Europe's position through its dependence upon this country for these things is the strength of our position. To have and to hold is one of our great problems. We have these limitless resources. Will the world be content always to let us keep them without fighting for them?



# THE NEW AMERICAN FARMER.

BY HERBERT N. CASSON.

**I**F the American farmer went out of business this year he could clean up thirty thousand million dollars. And he would have to sell his farm on credit; for there is not enough money in the whole world to pay him half his price.

Talk of the money-mad trusts! They might have reason to be mad if they owned the farms, instead of their watered stock. When we remember that the American farmer earns enough in seventeen days to buy out Standard Oil, and enough in fifty days to wipe Carnegie and the Steel Trust off the industrial map, the story of the trusts seems like "the short and simple annals of the poor."

One American harvest would buy the Kingdom of Belgium, King and all; two would buy Italy; three would buy Austria-Hungary, and five, at a spot-cash price, would take Russia from the Czar.

Talk of swollen fortunes! With the setting of every sun the money-box of the American farmer bulges with the weight of twenty-four new millions. Only the most athletic imagination can conceive of such a torrent of wealth.

Place your finger on the pulse of your wrist, and count the heartbeats,—one,—two,—three,—four. With every four of those quick throbs, day and night, a thousand dollars clatters into the gold-bin of the American farmer.

How incomprehensible it would seem to Pericles, who saw Greece in her Golden Age, if he could know that the yearly revenue of his country is now no more than one day's pay for the men who till the soil of this infant Republic!

Or, how it would amaze a resurrected Christopher Columbus if he were told that the revenues of Spain and Portugal are not nearly as much as the earnings of the American farmer's hen!

Merely the crumbs that drop from the farmer's table (otherwise known as agricultural exports) have brought him in enough of foreign money since 1892 to enable him, if he wished, to settle the railway problem

once for all, by buying every foot of railroad in the United States.

Such is our New Farmer,—a man for whom there is no name in any language. He is as far above the farmer of the story-books as a 1908 touring-car is above a jinrikisha. Instead of being an ignorant hoe-man in a barnyard world, he gets the news by daily mail and telephone; and incidentally publishes 700 trade journals of his own. Instead of being a moneyless peasant, he pays the interest on the mortgage with the earnings of a week. Even this is less of an expense than it seems, for he borrows the money from himself, out of his own banks, and spends the bulk of the tax-money around his own properties.

Farming for a business, not for a living,—this is the *motif* of the new farmer. He is a commercialist,—a man of the twentieth century. He works as hard as the old farmer did, but in a higher way. He uses the four Ms,—mind, money, machinery, and muscle; but as little of the latter as possible.

Neither is he a Robinson Crusoe of the soil, as the old farmer was. His hermit days are over; he is a man among men. The railway, the trolley, the automobile, and the top buggy have transformed him into a suburbanite. In fact, his business has become so complex and many-sided that he touches civilization at more points and lives a larger life than if he were one of the atoms of a crowded city.

All American farmers, of course, are not of the new variety. The country, like the city, has its slums. But after having made allowance for exceptions, it is still true that the United States is the native land of the new farmer. He is the most typical human product that this country has produced, and the most important, for, in spite of its egoistical cities, the United States is still a farm-based nation.

OUR FARMS THE BASIS OF PROSPERITY.

There could be no cloth-mills without the wool and cotton of the farm; no sugar factories without beets; no flour-mills without

wheat; no beef-packing industry without cattle. The real business that is now swinging the whole nation ahead is not the ping-pong traffic of the stock exchanges, but the steady output of \$20,000,000 a day from the fields and barnyards. If this farm output were to be cut off, the towering skyscrapers would fall, and the gay palace-hotels would be as desolate as the Temple of Thebes.

The brain-working farmer is the man behind prosperity. That is the big fact of recent American history. It is he who pays the bills and holds up the national structure in the whirlwind hour of panic. Last year, for instance, while banks were tumbling, the non-hysterical farmer was quietly gathering in a crop that was worth three times all the bank capital in the United States; and since 1902 he and his soil have produced as much wealth as would support Uncle Sam, at his present rate of living, for fifty years.

What was called "McKinley prosperity" was really created by the agricultural boom of 1897. There had been a general crop failure in Europe, and the price of wheat had soared above \$1 a bushel. Other nations paid us \$1,200,000,000 for farm products, and this unparalleled in-pouring of foreign money made us the richest and busiest nation in the world.

The supreme fact about the American farmer is that he has always been just as intelligent and important as any one else in the Republic. He put fourteen of his sons in the White House; and he did his full share of the working and fighting and thinking and inventing all the way down from George Washington to James Wilson.

He climbed up by self-help. He got no rebates, nor franchises, nor subsidies. The free land that was given him was worthless until he took it; and he has all along been more hindered than helped by the meddling of public officials.

#### THE FARMER-INVENTOR.

His best friend has been the maker of farm-machinery. But this is a family matter. Four-fifths of the "harvester kings" were farmers' sons, and the biggest harvester factory is only a development of the small workshop that always stood beside the barn. There are no two men who are more closely linked together by the ties of blood and business than the farmer and the man who makes his labor-saving machines. Neither one can hurt the other without doing injury to himself.

The inventor of the modern plow, Jethro Wood, was a wealthy Quaker farmer of New York,—a man of such masterful intelligence as to count Clay and Webster among his friends. The late James Oliver, the "plow king" of Indiana, and David Bradley, one of his greatest competitors, were born and bred near the furrowed soil.

McCormick built his first reaper in a barnyard; so did John F. Sieberling, William N. Whiteley, Lewis Miller, and C. W. Marsh. And the man who owned the first of the reaper factories, Dayton S. Morgan, grew up amid the stumps of a New York farm.

The American farmer has always grown ideas as well as corn and potatoes. That is the secret of his prosperity. It was out in the wheat-fields where the idea of a self-binder flashed upon the brain of John F. Appleby, where Jacob Miller learned to improve the thresher, and George Easterly to build the header, and Joseph F. Glidden to invent barbed-wire.

Before 1850 there was some progress among farmers, but it was as slow as molasses in Alaska. They were free and independent, and little else. They had poor homes, poor farms, poor implements.

Then came the gold-rush to California. What this event did for farmers and the world can scarcely be exaggerated. It opened up the prairies, fed the hungry banks with money, lured the farm laborers westward, and compelled the farmers to use machinery.

Three years later the Crimean War sent the price of wheat soaring, and the farmers had a jubilee of prosperity. Away went the log-cabin, the ox-cart, the grain-cradle, and the flail. In came the frame house, the spring buggy, the reaper and the thresher. The farmers began to buy labor-saving devices. Better still, they began to invent them.

#### FARMING BY MACHINERY.

To measure American farmers by the census is now an outgrown method, for the reason that each farmer works with the power of five men. The farm has become a factory. Four-fifths of its work is done by machinery, which explains how we can produce one-fifth of the wheat of the world, half of the cotton, and three-fourths of the corn, although we are only 6 per cent. of the human race.

The genie who built Aladdin's palace in a night was the champion hustler of the fairy-tale countries. But he was not so tremen-

dously superior to the farm laborer, who takes a can of gasoline and cuts fifty cords of wood in a day, or to the man who milks a herd of sixty cows in two hours, by machinery.

To-day farming is not a drudgery. Rather it is a race,—an exciting rivalry between the different States. For years Illinois and Iowa have run neck and neck in the raising of corn and oats. Minnesota carries the blue ribbon for wheat, with Kansas breathless in second place; California has shot to the front in the barley race; Texas and Louisiana are tied in the production of rice; Kentucky is the tobacco champion, and New York holds the record for hay and potatoes.

#### IOWA,—A STATE OF NEW FARMERS.

To see the new farmer at his best, I went to Iowa. No other State has invested so much money,—\$60,000,000,—in labor-saving machinery; so that it may fairly claim to be the zenith of the farming world.

Here are 20,000 women and 300,000 men who have made farming a profession. They are producing wealth at the rate of \$500,000,000 a year, nearly \$1600 apiece. How? By throwing the burden of drudgery upon machines.

Iowa is not so old; she will be sixty-two this year. She is not so large; little England is larger. Yet, with her hog-money she could pay the salaries of all the monarchs of Europe, and with one year's corn crop she could buy out the Harvester Trust, or build three New York subways.

When the Indians sold Iowa to Uncle Sam they got about 8 cents an acre. To give the price exactly, to a cent, it was \$2,877,574.87. When this money was paid there were statesmen who protested that it was too much. Yet this amount was less than one-quarter of the value of the eggs in last year's nests. Every three months the Iowa hen pays for Iowa.

Through the courtesy of Mr. Harlan, of the Des Moines Historical Society, I obtained the addresses of nine old settlers, who went into Iowa with ox-carts, before 1850, and who are still living. I found that every one of them had remained on the land and was prosperous. The poorest owned \$7000, and the richest \$96,000, and their average wealth was \$36,000.

I found one young county, born since the Civil War, in which 5000 farmers now own property worth \$75,000,000. They have 14,000 horses, 17,000 sheep, 60,000 cattle,

and 90,000 hogs. In the furnishing of the homes in this county, so its Auditor informs me, more than \$25,000 has been spent on the one item of pianos.

#### A FARMERS' COLLEGE.

In a small, out-of-the-way town called Ames I came upon a farmers' college,—a veritable Harvard of the soil. Here, on a thousand acres which fed the wild deer and buffalo in the days of Andrew Jackson, is a college that equals Princeton and Vassar combined in the number of its pupils. Its farm-machinery building is the largest of its kind, and it is a curious fact, showing how new the new farmer is, that the professors in charge of this department are obliged to teach without a text-book.

The Iowans pay \$500,000 a year to sustain this college. They pay it cheerfully. They pay it with a hurrah. Why? Because it is the biggest money-maker in the State. One little professor, named Holden,—the smallest of the whole 140,—is revered by the Iowans as a King Midas of the cornfield. He has shown them how to grow ten bushels more per acre, by using a better quality of seed.

#### A RICH AND PROSPEROUS STATE.

First in corn, first in farm machinery, and first in the number of her banks! That is Iowa. There are a few of her villages that have no banks, but they are conscious of their disgrace. They feel naked and ashamed. In all, there are as many banks as post-offices, very nearly; and they are crammed with enough wealth to build three Panama Canals.

The pride of Iowa is Des Moines, a city of farm-bred people. It is so young that some of its old men remember when wolf-hunting was good where its one skyscraper stands to-day. It has no history and no souvenirs. A little while ago a lot of industrious people came here poor, and now they are prosperous and still busy,—that is the story of Des Moines in a sentence.

In the main hall of the five-domed capitol at Des Moines is a life-sized painting of a prairie wagon, hauled by oxen. In such a rude conveyance as this most of the early settlers rolled into Iowa, at a gait of two miles an hour. But there are no prairie wagons now, nor oxen. Ten thousand miles of railway crisscross the State, and make more profit in three months than all the railways of ancient India made last year.



Instead of being tax-ridden serfs, these Iowans pay the total self-governing cost of their commonwealth by handing over the price of the summer's hay. Instead of being the prey of money-lenders, they have made Des Moines the Hartford of the West, in which forty-two insurance companies carry a risk of half a billion. And so, in each one of its details, the story of these "corn kings" is staggering to a mere city-dweller, especially to any one who has cold-storage ideas about farmers.

Big men, too, as well as big corn, are grown in Iowa. Here is a sample group,—half educators and half Statesmen: John B. Grinnell, Henry Smith Williams, Albert Shaw, Newell Dwight Hillis, Carl Snyder, Emerson Hough, Hamlin Garland, Senators Allison and Dolliver, Leslie M. Shaw, John A. Kasson, Horace Boies, Gov. Albert B. Cummins, and our official farmer,—James Wilson.

And Iowa is not an exceptional State. A traveler hears the same story,—from ox-cart to automobile,—in almost every region of the prairie West. The various States are only patches of one vast grassy plain, where

"painted harvesters, fleet after fleet,  
Like yachts, career through seas of waving  
wheat."

#### SELLING FARM MACHINERY IN TEXAS.

"My first experience with the 'new farmer,' as you call him, was in Texas," said a Kansas City business man. "I had taken an agency for harvesters in a section of Texas that was bigger than several dozen Vermonts, and made my headquarters in a town called Amarillo. The first morning I went into the bank to get acquainted. While I was there in came a big, roughly dressed man.

"Come here, Bill," said the banker. "Maybe you want some farm machinery."

"Maybe I do," said the big fellow; so I gave him a catalog and went on talking with the banker.

"Ten minutes later the big fellow looked up from the catalog and asked: 'How much do you want for ten of these binders?' I nearly had a spell of heart failure, but I gasped the price. He said: 'All right! Send 'em along.'

"Don't you worry about Bill's credit," said the banker, seeing I looked dazed. "He has more than \$100,000 in this bank right now."

"This was my cue to get busy with the big farmer, and before he left the bank he

had bought a thresher, four traction engines, and half a dozen plows."

#### MACHINES MORE ECONOMICAL THAN SLAVES.

Harvesting by machinery has actually become cheaper than the ancient method of harvesting by slaves. This surprising fact was first brought to the notice of Europeans during the Chicago World's Fair, when forty-seven foreign commissioners were taken to the immense Dalrymple farm in North Dakota. Here they saw a wheat-field very nearly 100 square miles in extent, with 300 self-binders clicking out the music of the harvest. There were no serfs,—no drudges,—no barefooted women. And yet they were told that the labor-cost of reaping the wheat was less than a cent a bushel.

It has now become impossible to reap the world's wheat by hand. As well might we try to carry coal from mines to factories in baskets. Merely to have gathered in our own cereal and hay of last year's growing would have been a ten-days' job for every man and woman in the United States between the ages of twenty and twenty-six. But even if it had been possible to return to hand labor in the production of the world's wheat, the extra cost would have swollen, last year, to a total of \$330,000,000,—so I am told by a Wisconsin professor who has made a careful study of the costs of harvesting. This amount is more than equal to the entire revenue of the Harvester Trust in the five years of its existence.

Roughly speaking, the time needed to handle an acre of wheat has been reduced from sixty-one hours to three, by the use of machinery. Hay now requires four hours, instead of twenty-one; oats seven hours, instead of sixty-six, and potatoes thirty-eight hours, instead of 109.

It is machinery that has so vastly increased the size of the average American farm. In India, where a farmer's whole outfit can be bought for \$10, the average farm is half an acre or less. In France and Germany it is five acres. In England it is nine. But in the United States,—the home and birthplace of farm machinery,—it is 150 acres.

#### DIVERSIFIED FARMING.

Very little has been written about this stupendous prosperity of American farmers. Why? Because it is so recent. The era of big profits began barely ten years ago. There was a time when the blue-ribbon new farmer was the man who grew wheat in the Red

River Valley. He was the aristocrat of the West. His year's work was no more than a few weeks of plowing and sowing, and a few days of harvesting. Even this was done easily, sitting on the seat of a machine and driving a team of splendid horses. After harvest, he cashed in, carried a big check to the bank, and settled down for a long "loaf" or a trip to the old homestead in the East.

But it was the bad year of 1893 that first put American farmers on the road to affluence. Up to that time it was their usual policy to depend on a single crop. One farmer planted nothing but wheat; another planted nothing but corn; a third nothing but cotton, and so on. But in 1893 the prices of wheat, corn, and cotton fell so low that the farmers' profits were wiped out. This disaster set the farmers thinking, and in four years they had changed over to the new policy of diversified farming.

Instead of putting all their work upon one crop, they planted from three to a dozen crops each year. They manufactured their corn into cattle; they gave the soil a square deal in the matter of fertilization; they learned to plant better seed and to pay attention to the Weather Bureau; they studied the market reports, and, best of all, they swung over from muscle to machinery, until to-day the value of the machinery on American farms is fully a thousand millions.

#### THE ADOPTION OF SCIENTIFIC METHODS.

All this amazing progress that I have been describing is by no means the best that the new farmer will do. It is merely what he has done by the aid of machinery. What he will do by the aid of science remains to be seen.

Scientific agriculture is young. It has had to wait until machinery prepared the way, by giving the farmers time to think and money to spend. The first scientist who took notice of farming was the Frenchman Lavoisier. He found out the composition of water, in 1783, and was in the midst of many discoveries, when a Paris mob hustled him to the guillotine. The famous Leibig next appeared and founded the first agricultural experiment station. Then came Berthelot, the father of synthetic chemistry, with his sensational announcement, "The soil is alive."

To-day the new farmer finds himself touched by science on all sides. He knows that there are more living things in one pinch

of rich soil than there are people on the whole globe. He knows that he can take a half-dozen handfuls of earth from different parts of his farm, mix them together, send one thimbleful to a chemist, and find out exactly the kind of crop that will give him the best harvest. And more, now that science has given him a peep into nature's factory, he can even feel a sense of kinship between himself and his acres, because he knows that the same elements that redden his blood are painting the green hues on his fields and forests.

There are now 15,000 new farmers who have graduated from agricultural colleges; and since the late Prof. W. O. Atwater opened the first American experiment station, in 1875, fifty others have sprung into vigorous life. There is also at Washington an Agricultural Department, which has become the greatest aggregation of farm-scientists in the world. To maintain this department Uncle Sam pays grudgingly \$11,000,000 a year. He pays much more than this to give food and blankets to a horde of lazy Indians, or for the building of two or three warships. But it is at least more than is being spent on the new farmer in any other country.

Step by step farming is becoming a sure and scientific profession. The risks and uncertainties that formerly tossed the farmer back and forth between hope and despair are being mastered. The Weather Bureau, which sent half a million warnings last year to the farmers, has already become so skilful that six-sevenths of its predictions come true. In Kansas wheat-growing has become so sure that there has been no failure for thirteen years. And in the vast Southwest the trick of irrigation is changing the man-killing desert into a farmers' paradise, where there is nothing so punctual as the crops.

Already gasoline engines are in use among the new farmers. The International Harvester Company made 25,000 of them last year at Milwaukee, without supplying the demand. These engines, in the near future, will be operated with alcohol, which the farmers can distill from potatoes, at a cost of 10 cents a gallon. This is no dream, as there are now 6000 alcohol engines in use on the farms of Germany alone.

When this Age of Alcohol arrives the making of the new farmer will be very nearly complete. He will then grow his own power, and know how to harness the omnipotence of the soil.

## LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

### THE SPIRIT AND LETTER OF EXCLUSION.

ALTHOUGH the question of immigration has changed materially in many respects with the growth and development of the country, it has steadily increased in importance. Formerly migrations were *en masse*; but in all considerations of the immigration issue as it pertains to this country a clear line of distinction must be drawn between that form of migration and the individualistic, which is the character of that known to the United States.

Before the Civil War our laws encouraged immigration. Subsequently legislation has been directed to the elimination of undesirable aliens, so that a general policy of selection now prevails. During the fiscal year 1907 the total of new arrivals in the United States was 1,285,349, which was 184,614 in excess of the returns for the fiscal year 1906, and 258,850 more than the total number for the fiscal year 1905. The profound importance of the immigration question can be understood accordingly.

With our expanding jurisdiction the problem becomes more complex. With a jurisdiction extending to Alaska, Panama, Porto Rico, Hawaii, Guam, and the Philippines, and a diversified industrial system, a uniform policy is practically impossible. What is suited to the mainland cannot be adapted to our insular communities, and the need of differentiation in immigration regulation has induced the Hon. Oscar S. Straus, Secretary of Commerce and Labor, to contribute to the *North American Review* for April an article emphasizing the necessity for special attention to this question as related to our insular possessions.

Reverting to the term "Undesirable Classes," he shows that it has a different significance in the East from that given it in the West. In the former the main objection is congestion in our large Atlantic seaport cities. In the West it applies exclusively to the Chinese. Writing on the latter condition, he says:

"The present policy of the United States toward Chinese immigration has existed for nearly a generation. A governmental policy

so long pursued is not to be lightly changed, nor is it the present purpose to suggest any change, so far as the spirit of the policy is concerned. What I would urge is not only based on a full recognition of the fixed character of the present policy, but is entirely in furtherance of it. It is only suggested that the letter of the law, as expressed and enforced to-day, may not be so effectively and harmoniously in accord with the spirit of the policy as it might be. It is not the policy of the Government with reference to Chinese immigration, but the manner in which it is, of necessity, carried out, by reason of the way in which the laws are framed, that causes constant friction and dissatisfaction.

"It has been the policy of this Government, as would appear from its laws and treaties, to exclude persons of the Chinese race merely because they are Chinese, regardless of the class to which they belong, and without reference to their age, sex, culture, or occupation, or the object of their coming to this country, or the length of their stay in it. The real purpose of the Government's policy is to exclude a particular and well-defined class, leaving other classes of Chinese,—except, as they, in common with all other foreigners, may be included within the prohibitions of the general immigration laws,—as free to come and go as the citizens or subjects of any other nation.

"As the laws are framed, however, it would appear as if the purpose were rigidly to exclude persons of the Chinese race in general, and to admit only such persons of the race as fall within certain expressly stated exemptions. I regard this feature of the present laws as unnecessary and fraught with irritating consequences. In the administration of the laws as framed, no matter what care is taken to treat with courtesy and consideration persons of the Chinese race who are lawfully entitled to admission, it is impossible that those who have to endure the formalities required of them should fail to take offence and to resent as a humiliation the manner in which by law they are distinguished from natives of other countries.

Laws so framed can only be regarded as involving a discrimination on account of race, though discriminations on account of race, color, previous condition, or religion are alike opposed to the principles of the Republic and to the spirit of its institutions."

Accordingly, he says the Chinese Government and people are aggrieved at our treatment of them and in various ways manifest their displeasure. In 1904, after the treaty of 1894 had been in force ten years, China availed herself of her reserved right and formally denounced the convention as one offensive to her national pride. China contended that the object was to exclude laborers, not that the enumeration of certain exempt classes should operate as a general exclusion of all others. Our contention was that only those expressly included should be admitted. The boycott of 1905 showed us what China

could do in retaliation. Our exports to China in that year were \$57,000,000. In 1906 they fell to \$44,000,000, and in 1907 to \$26,000,000,—a decline of more than 50 per cent. in two years.

On higher grounds than those of mere commercial advantage, however, should the frame of the laws be changed. The relations between China and the United States have always been friendly, and in pursuing our exclusion policy it is not necessary to offend the *amour propre* of a friendly nation, or unnecessarily to humiliate a whole people when only a particular class is to be reached. With only 70,000 Chinese in this country, a full and fair consideration of the subject and a recasting of the laws should not occasion apprehension. The present is an opportune moment to adjust the letter to the spirit of our national policy of exclusion.

## THE HINDU IN AMERICA.

ENGLAND'S policy in Hindustan has reduced that country to helplessness and abject dependence. Her sons are emigrating to Japan, China, Australia, South America, Canada, and our Western States. Some of the latter have been students. The year 1901-1902 brought the first pioneer Hindu students to the schools of the Pacific Coast. Since then six students came to American colleges in one year. In 1904 there were a number in the University of California. This year there are seventeen.

Emigration of Hindus to the United States followed the siege of Peking. The Sikhs and the Paythans from the Punjab, mostly former British soldiers, were the first to come to America. In Canada (British Columbia) they are relatively numerous. Hostility has been evinced toward them both in Canada and the United States, resulting in riot and disorder. They work in factories, on railroads, and as peddlers. Many work in the silver mines in Nevada. They are born agriculturists and might be profitable to the State if given an opportunity to cultivate land. They are honest and law-abiding.

Another class of Hindus has been here since 1893,—Vedantic philosophers. Swami Vivekananda and Swami Abhedananda are two well-known representatives. A monthly organ is published, styled *Vedanta*, and a permanent home has been acquired in New

York. In San Francisco is a branch called the "Hindu Temple."

Commerce with India is still in its infancy on the Pacific Coast. Jute bags are the principal export from India. Printing ink and published thought reach Calcutta from Berkeley. A great 70,000 horse-power waterfall at Canvery is under the control of an American corporation; a Mysore goldfield is worked by this plant; a San Francisco company has been running a great electric plant in northern India, and "Mr. Andrew Carnegie is virtually monopolizing all of the manganese ore throughout India," according to Mr. Girindra Mukerji, M. S., in the *Overland Monthly* for April. India looks to America, says he, for a certain kind of help,—and it will not be denied. It is an appeal from the oldest civilization to the newest.

In the same number Miss Agnes Foster Buchanan says the Hindu invasion is the latest racial problem with which the West must deal, although it is not recognized as such at this moment. The difficulties will be enhanced through the obligations and exactions of the various Hindu castes and the superstitions of the people,—influences which have been potential and sacred for ages.

They have come to this country eager to do any and all kinds of work. They are to be found in iron factories, on railroads, and as fruit pickers. They live together in colonies, and their living expenses do not exceed

\$3 monthly per capita. They make good, steady workmen, although they lack physical endurance, and in appearance they are striking, well-built fellows.

"So California and the West," says this writer, "give to the powers that be in Washington another question for legislation, for it must needs be by legislation that the present crisis is to be bridged. The small cloud on the horizon, now no larger than a man's hand, is threatening because misunder-

stood, but grows larger and larger as each wind that blows from the East brings it nearer.

"The sacred writings of the Vedas say: 'I gave the earth to Arya.' This is a propitious moment for the State Department to adopt an amendment to the Vedas and to tell our brothers of the East that while the earth is large enough for us all, there is no one part of it that will comfortably accommodate both branches of the Aryan family."

## THE WAR ON OPIUM.

**P**ROBABLY not one person in a hundred knows what opium really is; certainly not one in a thousand is aware that it is smoked elsewhere than in the filthy dens of a Chinatown or in the "joints" of more fashionable quarters, and that among opium-smokers are to be found, throughout China and in other countries of the Far East, not only the emaciated, cadaverous-looking, decrepit, and prematurely old, but men full of years and honors, robust in body and of the keenest intellects. To the majority of readers the remarks of M. Albert de Pouvoirville in *La Revue* will come as a veritable surprise. Without going so far as to describe him as an apologist for opium, it can be truthfully said that the facts he sets forth with regard to the subject generally are both pertinent and interesting, and that they exemplify in a striking manner the soundness of the old maxim, "One side of a case holds good until the other is told."

M. de Pouvoirville, who writes with the authority of a practical chemist, points out that the alkaloids which give to opium its specific properties,—at least the properties sought by smokers,—are especially morphine and thebain.

The action of morphine on the human system is well known. Thebain quickens the senses, but exacerbates the nerves. It is the singular combination of these two contrary actions that the opium-smoker loves. . . . Thebain is about twenty-five times more active than morphine, dose for dose. Here is a brief but sufficient explanation of the peculiar intoxication of opium, an intoxication (due to the thebaic action) essentially lucid; and one may say that, far from beclouding the faculties of the smoker, opium excites them to excess. In the intoxication of alcohol the animal oppresses and kills the intellectual; in that of opium it is the steel that wears out the scabbard. .

there is opium and opium. Thebain having an action about twenty-five times as powerful as that of morphine, it follows that an opium in which these two alkaloids were present in the proportion of 1 to 25 would be innocuous. Now, the opium of India, that of Benares, for instance, contains 7 per cent. of morphine and no thebain whatever; Chinese opium contains from 5 to 6 per cent. of morphine and 0.06 per cent. of thebain. It will thus be seen that while the opium of China is only slightly harmful, that of India is a veritable poison. This, in the opinion of M. de Pouvoirville, is the real explanation of the apparently contradictory action of the Celestial Empire in cultivating its own opium and in refusing the English drug, being apparently desirous of ruining the foreign traffic, but in reality striving simply to protect the health of its subjects. Commenting on the superiority of the Chinese drug, M. de Pouvoirville says:

. . . . One is no longer surprised that many physicians and chemists have declared the absolute innocuousness of Chinese opium smoked under certain conditions, and that the immense majority of smokers habitually accustomed to the practice show by their physical aspect and their intellectual and moral worth that the enjoyment of opium is perfectly harmless. . . . In the Far East, as admitted by members of the medical profession, the moderate use of opium is a preventive of cholera, cholerae, dysentery, as well as of lung affections of all kinds . . . it cures nervous diseases; it renders the memory more accurate and the intellect more active; it calms the senses. . . . It is extraordinary that it should have excited the indignation of western nations exclusively, who are freely addicted to the use of poisons of the most dangerous kinds, and who, even in the common aperitive, drink alcohol, ether, strychnine, and absinthe.

Regarding the attitude of France, England, and China, respectively, on the opium

question, M. de Pouvoirville has this to say:

In France the sale of the drug is not textually prohibited, but, as opium is listed as a pharmaceutical product solely, and druggists may sell it only on a medical prescription, traffic in it is practically interdicted. When France conquered Tongking and Annam she found there free trade in opium, which was made a monopoly, and subsequently converted into a tax, which assures to the local budget of Indo-China an annual sum of varying proportions, but always respectable.

In England a society for the suppression of the traffic in opium was founded in 1874. Not until 1891 did it succeed in obtaining a vote of the House of Commons condemning the traffic. A commission of inquiry was instituted in 1893, and, its results not having been published in 1906, 322 members of the English Parliament demanded the suppression of the opium trade. A glance at the budget of British India reveals a sufficient reason for the tardy action of the English Colonial Office in this matter.

Of the total net receipts,—about £46,000,000,—the land revenue formerly brought in about £20,000,000, but this has fallen off to the extent of £7,000,000, owing to the ruin of the trade in indigo, resulting from the discovery of the chemical composition of colors. The taxes on opium exceed £8,000,000. The poppy is cultivated and opium is manufactured on the crown lands under a strict government monopoly. In Bengal, Oudh, and the Northwest the plant is cultivated on the understanding that all the opium shall be sold to the government. At the present time the income from opium forms a tenth of the total receipts shown in the vice-regal budget. It was hardly to be expected that, following the serious diminution of the land revenue, the British Government would willingly forego the further loss of so sure an income as that derived from the traffic in opium.

Two British commissions of inquiry have placed on record conclusions eminently unsatisfactory to the opponents of opium. That of 1895 heard 723 Hindu and Chinese witnesses and 257 European. The inquiry revealed the fact that the use of opium in British India was much more general than had been supposed, and that the drug appeared to exercise on the human system an influence similar to that of cinchona.

The recent Minto commission, having satisfied itself as to the perfect harmlessness of opium taken in certain doses, asserts that, consequently, traffic in it can not be either immoral or inhumane. "Besides," adds the commission's report, "the Hindus do not smoke opium like the miserable Chinese; no, indeed, they never smoke it. They only eat it: they eat it as a refriguge in the form of quinine"; and the report very properly says that "if opium is bad for the bronchi, it is excellent for the stomach." The Viceroy of India, in a postscript, adds: "It is equally excellent for the budget."

The attitude of China toward the opium question seems, according to M. de Pouvoirville, to savor of "both good faith and bluff."

On September 20, 1906, an imperial edict decreed that within ten years the use of and trade in opium must be abolished. The Chinese Government has actually closed in the provinces of Shanghai, Foochow, and Canton the public smoking-places to the number of 3000. It has officially interdicted the use of opium to the civil and military officials, and has already punished those who have failed to comply with the regulations. It has acquainted the European powers of its willingness to suppress the habit, and has requested the British Government to restrain gradually, and within ten years to suppress, the importation of Indian opium.

## CASTRO, THE UNGRATEFUL.

CORPORATIONS have no souls is an axiom of the common law. Sovereignities, as exemplified in Cipriano Castro, President of Venezuela, have no gratitude. He has perpetrated acts of oppression and injustice against our citizens so gross as to surpass belief. To the protests of our Government he is insolently indifferent. The case of the United States & Venezuela Company against Venezuela is a clear case of spoliation by Venezuela without justification or excuse.

Summarized briefly, the facts are: In 1900 some American gentlemen interested in paving matters sought in Venezuela an asphalt

deposit. At a place called "Inciarte" their representative found a splendid asphalt lake. He contracted to purchase the mine from the owners and applied to Castro for a concession to build a railroad *free from taxes*. On April 20, 1901, on payment of 50,000 bolivars and the promise to build a railroad, etc., which at the end of fifty years would revert to Venezuela, a concession was granted as prayed for, which was to be exempt from all national taxes and contributions, including import and export duties.

The company thereupon became active. The road was built through forests, swamps,

and almost impenetrable jungles, and with almost insuperable difficulty, until finally a connection was made between mine and navigable water. "It is a story of American grit, indomitable pluck, and triumphant success," says Mr. R. Floyd Clarke in the *North American Review* for April.

Manufacturing operations were begun in August, 1902, and continued up to January 20, 1905. Over \$600,000 was spent in the purchase of the mine and the development of the property. The enterprise is worth not less than \$1,500,000. During 1904 the company earned a net profit of \$84,119.57, or over 5½ per cent. on its total capitalization.

On July 22, 1904, Castro, through his receiver, seized the plant and property of the New York & Bermudez Company. Since that date Venezuela has been selling asphalt to the United States, and from the revenue so derived \$5 a ton goes to the receiver, and the balance to an unnamed beneficiary. Previous to this transaction the company was a competitor of the United States & Venezuela Company. With Castro operating the Bermudez Company, this competition was undesirable. Hence, by executive decree on June 21, 1904, a duty of 4 bolivars (80 cents) was levied on every ton of asphalt exported, and a 3 per cent. tax on the gross product of the mine. These were enforced against the

United States & Venezuela Company, and for the 3 per cent. tax purposes the asphalt was valued at \$20 a ton. In addition duties were levied against the company's imports and Castro held the latter at the custom house.

The company protested and, finding this unavailing, offered to pay under protest, but this was refused, and the answer given that any grievance must be determined by the Venezuelan courts. So, in January, 1905, the company closed its works and applied to the State Department at Washington for redress. Castro's action is repudiation of his written concessions. The company is abundantly fortified with documentary evidence of right and title.

"Under such circumstances," says this writer, "is the American Government to stand by and allow its citizens to be thus despoiled without action?" Venezuela masquerades under a constitution, but is in truth a military dictatorship molded and wielded by one man of passionate character and sordid aims. Congress, therefore, should insist that the Executive enforce upon Venezuela the arbitration of the claims herein, even though to secure such arbitration the use of a "mailed fist" should be required. Every principle of right and justice and every consideration of self-respect demand the arbitration,—compulsory, if necessary,—of these claims.

## SHOULD TRIAL BY JURY BE ABOLISHED?

CONVINCED by thirty-five years' experience at the bar that juries are slowly losing respect for State courts, as well as for the law, and are becoming more and more aggressive in placing their own interpretation on the law, and attending less and less to the rulings of the court and his charge defining the law of the case, Mr. Hal W. Greer, in the *American Law Review* for March-April, sums up his objections to the jury system in criminal cases, thus:

First. They do not apply the exact definitions of crimes given in the court's charge, because they do not understand them, nor, in truth, do they care to understand them. They believe their own ideas are supreme and that they have the right to be governed by same.

Second. They read into the law their own emotions, sympathies, and feelings, giving it their own interpretation, "putting themselves

in the place of the defendant," a position never contemplated by the law or good morals.

Third. Sometimes juries are corrupted through fear, or worse motives, into returning verdicts in defiance of law.

Fourth. Prejudice figures largely in verdicts. A tramp or pauper is denied the "benefit of the doubt," but a well-to-do citizen has it stretched to most unreasonable lengths in his favor.

Fifth. The method of selecting juries is childish and puerile, enabling one who has been "influenced" to answer all questions satisfactorily, and operating against the conscientious tradesman who admits he has formed an opinion. The latter, the writer says, should no more be objectionable therefor than the trial judge himself.

Sixth. The whole effort of defendant's counsel is to keep conscientious men out of



the box, whose feelings, emotions, or sentiments cannot be appealed to.

Seventh. The law recognizes the fact that a jury can be improperly influenced, in that it locks up juries in felony cases.

Eighth. Counsel for defendant make statements and arguments (?) appealing to the passions and prejudices of the jurors, to violate directly their oaths and acquit the defendant, which they would not dare to make to the trial judge.

Ninth. As the law is an exact science intended to prevent crime by fairly, justly, and reasonably punishing those guilty of its infraction, there can be no reason for a jury on the theory that it will be more merciful than judges learned in the law, and capable of deliberate and judicious analysis and application of facts.

Tenth. The strongest reason against the system is that instead of every offence being accurately defined and punished, juries are continually adding to the definitions and de-

stroying the certainty of punishment. If it were known to be a fact that every crime would be punished according to its definition, there can be no doubt of the salutary effect. It is the uncertainty of a jury verdict that breeds criminal desire and anarchy.

In civil cases, says he, juries are taken to avoid the law. "Personal-injury" suits afford the most striking illustration. Juries pay no attention to the law, the assumption of risk, or the contributory negligence of the plaintiff, but decide the case plainly on a mistaken sympathy against the defendant. The fact that the plaintiff is poor and the defendant rich is sufficient, and the jurors relieve their consciences by assuring one another that a higher court will correct their mistake,—if any. Appellate courts complacently hold themselves "bound by the facts thus found by the jury," and the law goes on changing from system to doubt, and from doubt to hopeless confusion and conscienceless anarchy.

## REACHING THE MILLIONS.

**F**ORTY years ago magazine advertising was unknown. To-day a space equal to 700,000 agate lines is taken monthly by magazine advertisers in this country. The Bible has 120,000 agate lines, and Shakespeare 136,000. In a year the magazines of America devote over thirty times more space to advertising than is covered by Holy Writ and the dramas of Shakespeare combined.

Advertising is the creative force of modern business, yet every business man has not grasped this fact. The secret of success therein is in continually invoking printer's ink. "The human mind," says Mr. J. Walter Thompson, in *Appleton's* for May, "is like a fertile field. Sow the seed and let it take root and grow, and in due time the harvest comes. But the man who expects the harvest the day or month after the sowing of the seed would be looked upon as deficient in common sense." Ninety per cent. of the failures in advertising are due to the fact that the advertiser did not carry his campaign to a finish.

The year 1908 is the fortieth anniversary of magazine advertising. A page or two was a good advertising showing for a magazine around the late '60's. The publishers were utterly indifferent and published advertising almost under protest. In 1868 one enter-

prising young man awoke to the possibilities of extending trade through advertising, and, wisely concluding that it was the women who spent the money, turned to the magazines of the period for publicity. His success was soon demonstrated, and American business discovered the vast and fruitful benefits of the advertising field.

This young solicitor soon raised the number of magazines for which he solicited advertisements to thirty, and then the publishers became interested. When *Peterson's Magazine* in a Christmas issue had twenty-five pages of advertising the publisher complained of the encroachment upon his literary space. This led to an increase in the magazine's pages,—eight being added! The subsequent progress of magazine advertising is shown in the revenues of to-day's leading magazines.

To the 10-cent magazine much credit is due for the popularizing of magazine advertising. Before its advent the magazines were confined to the social and the elect. In addition to their price the fact that they did not strive to become popular gave them a place in the estimation of the public somewhere between the catechism and a government report. The 10-cent magazine gave the masses a publication that entertained, and soon circulation jumped from 6000 to

10,000, and later to 50,000. Some of the popular magazines have even reached 500,000 circulation.

The magazine advertiser helped to this end. His patronage enabled the magazines to expand, and their expansion benefited him. To succeed he must patronize the magazine's pages, and to that medium some of the best-known business firms in this country owe their success, their fame, and their fortune. Magazine advertising is conducted on "sound psychological lines." It is a commercial science to-day. The business of advertising in magazines employs authors and artists rivaling in taste and efficiency the editors and illustrators of the magazines themselves.

Magazine advertising has had much to do with the development of art in American industry. The most efficient artists and many of the best writers are co-operating with the keenest commercial minds for the magazines. And perforce the commodities thus cleverly announced are perfected in keeping with the character of this modern business literature.

Competition has increased the pressure to secure success. Hence, modern American

advertising is intensely interesting. Just as the Government employs a Saint Gaudens to beautify its coins, so the world of business makes its appeal to the wit, imagination, and artistic sense of the people. In addition to attractiveness, advertising in magazines supplies a world of business news. It is a monthly story of progress in industrial art. It is news. New inventions, fabrics, articles of food and wear, and fads and fancies of fashion are communicated through advertisements. Fields of thought and scenes of travel, likewise. The comforts, conventions and conveniences of life are thus made known. This leads to purchase and possession by readers and largely influences trade and enterprise.

More than \$600,000,000 is expended in all kinds of advertising in this country, and magazine readers are conceded by advertisers to be the most liberal and persistent purchasers in America. The American magazine is a national institution, progressive, alert, beautiful, enterprising, instructive, and entertaining. Without the advertising section to support it this triumph of thought and skill would be impossible.

## HOW CHILE RECEIVED OUR FLEET.

VERY interesting and significant, as indicative of cordiality toward this country on the part of a South American nation generally inclined to regard us with suspicion and jealousy, is an elaborately illustrated article in a recent issue of *Zig-Zag*, the weekly of Santiago de Chile.

The article begins by saying that at the arrival of the formidable squadron in the waters of the western Pacific all the countries on that side of the continent joined in one outcry of jubilation, like that of "a person who, in danger of a blow from a strong enemy, sees himself unexpectedly helped by a friendly athlete of Herculean proportions." To Chile fell the honor (so the Chilean writer expresses it) of being the first of the western nations of South America to welcome the fleet after its successful trip around Cape Horn. The first step was to send one of Chile's warships to meet the fleet and to escort it throughout its stay in Chilean waters. In the meantime those seaports which were to be visited by the squadron were throbbing with excited preparations. Punta Arenas, a scrap of a town in the

extreme end of Chile, was fairly beside itself with agitation at this tremendous break in the long monotony of its existence. The town was decorated with flags and wreaths, and, as the hour for the appearance of the fleet approached, every dweller in the town and adjoining country was scrambling into the best place to see what the *Zig-Zag* calls "the most grandiose panorama ever presented before the seaports of South America."

Apparently Punta Arenas did nothing at all, during the stay of the "Yankees," but celebrate.

The sailors who swarmed all over town were much liked and not an unpleasant episode occurred. The *Chacabuco* (the warship which was the official escort of the American squadron) gave an elaborate banquet for the American officers, at which the latter, reunited for the first time since the passage around Cape Horn, seemed to have enjoyed themselves hugely, and made many friends. A day or so later a public reception was given on board the *Chacabuco*. On the fifth day the American Minister gave a banquet for the American officers, and, taking advantage of their absence, the sailors of the *Chacabuco* gave a dinner on the same date to the American sailors, at which more than 600 guests sat down.



WINTER IN PUNTA ARENAS (SANDY POINT), CHILE'S OUTPOST ON THE STRAIT OF MAGELLAN.

(One steamer a day, on the average, calls at this port, which has a population of 10,000.)

While all this was going on Santiago and Valparaiso were waiting impatiently for their share of the fun, and when the squadron finally began its northward progress an extraordinary activity began in those two cities.

From the capital to the seaport there rolled a continual procession of express trains and excursion trains, bringing the great crowds of persons who were eager not to miss the great spectacle. There was a rush for the best look-out places, and on the day the fleet was expected the upper part of the city looked like a great ant-hill and the roofs of the houses were black with spectators. Everybody had hurried through an extra early lunch in order not to miss the first appearance of the ships. The President of the republic, with his welcoming committee, had gone on board the *General Baquedano* to review the American fleet.

The Yankees performed their part of this great show with admirable punctuality. By half-past twelve the first signs of the ships appeared on the horizon and were pointed out with great excitement by the expectant throngs. By a quarter past one the different ships could be distinguished, a little later their smokestacks could be picked out, and then with sweeping rapidity they advanced in their gayest attire, the *Chacabuco* leading the way, until the smallest details could be seen without the aid of opera-glasses. By two o'clock the squadron was almost in the harbor, and at ten minutes before three, as the first ships passed Fort Valdivio, all the guns, as if moved by one impulse, roared forth the opening of the great salute of twenty-one volleys.

As the flagship of the American fleet passed

the different forts lining the harbor, Chilean military bands placed in the forts broke out into the American national song, and continued with other Yankee marches. The crowd on shore was absolutely drunk with noise and enthusiasm, and when President Montt, with his committee, came back to the wharf on his way home he was cheered to the echo by the dense throngs.

Then the crowd began to disperse, casting a last look back at the ships, which lay at rest in the harbor, "the thick smoke from their smokestacks rising into the still air and taking the exact form of interrogation points." Here *Zig-Zag* pauses to say that this was regarded as highly symbolical by all who observed it. There the imposing ships lay, a riddle only to be answered by the future. Are they destined to watch over the young nations of America which face the Pacific while they grow strong through the regenerating force of peaceful labor? Or are these ships to be their perpetual ruin?

There is no denying that the Americans made a most favorable impression on their Chilean hosts. *Zig-Zag* reports that officers, men and the civilian committee on board the *Chacabuco* were all charmed and stimulated by the good spirits, alert intelligence, and harmonious feeling reigning in the American fleet. It is noted with some national pride that the Chilean officers and men bore perfectly well the comparison with the Americans.

## WILL CENTRAL AMERICA FIND HERSELF?

THE conference held in Washington at the close of last year seems to give promise of an era of peace and prosperity for Central America. We have referred to the conference in several preceding numbers of the REVIEW, and here give some additional particulars, culled from an admirably succinct account of the proceedings contributed by Dr. James Brown Scott to the *American Journal of International Law*.

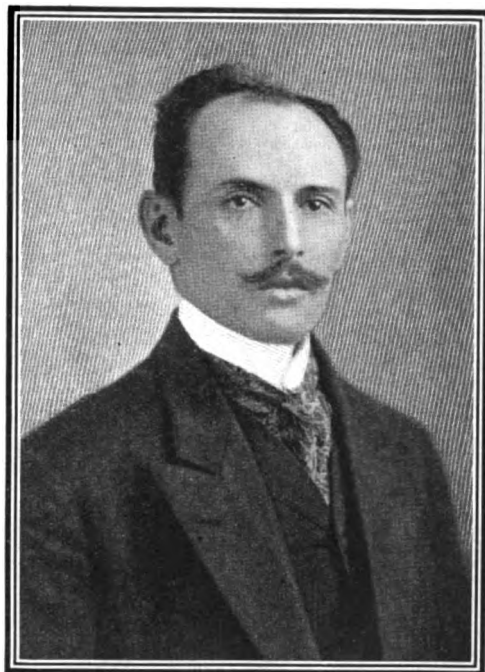
The conference assembled in the building of the International Bureau of the American Republics, and between November 14 and December 20 it held fourteen sessions. Probably no similar conference can show such evidences of industry. Eight conventions or treaties were agreed to and signed, as follows:

(1) General treaty of peace and amity; (2) additional convention to the foregoing treaty; (3) establishing a Central American court of justice; (4) extradition; (5) on future conferences; (6) on communications; (7) establishing an international Central American bureau; (8) establishing a pedagogical institute.

As Dr. Scott remarks, a careful analysis of these conventions shows that the union of the Central American states into a federated republic was the goal constantly before the conference. It appeared, however, desirable to make haste slowly, to follow rather than to create public sentiment, so that the republics might rather drift into union than be forced into it by a single act.

Undoubtedly the most far-reaching of all the conventions is that establishing a Central American court of justice. While recognizing that peace was the great need of the republics, the conference wisely decided that this peace must be based upon the administration of justice and not upon force. In the same number of the *American Journal of International Law* Señor Don Luis Anderson, Minister for Foreign Affairs of Costa Rica, who was chosen president of the conference, says, with reference to the new court, that it is not to be a mere arbitral commission, but a genuine judicial tribunal, to pronounce judgment on all questions that may be brought before it, acting in accordance with the principles of international law. Says Señor Anderson:

It is understood that the Central American court of justice shall be fully independent; that the sittings shall be held in the town of Cartago, situated in the central tableland of Costa Rica; that its members shall be appointed by the legislative bodies of the Central American repub-



SEÑOR DON LUIS ANDERSON, OF COSTA RICA.  
(President of the Central American Peace Conference.)

lics; that they shall be selected from among the best jurists of the respective republics, moral character and professional ability being made the principal qualifications; that they shall have no special connection with their respective governments; that they shall be charged with no mandate or other commission that might interfere with the purity of their motives, the uprightness of their acts, and the equity of their decisions, . . . in short, it is understood that the Central American court of justice shall represent the national conscience of Central America, as is aptly expressed in the thirteenth article of the compact. . . . This court of justice, the first tribunal of its class in the history of civilization, shall be, it is hoped, a strong and durable defense for international peace and fraternity in Central America.

As regards the constitution of the court, to consist of a judge from each of the contracting nations, Dr. Scott points out that it is broad enough to permit it to assume jurisdiction whether the controversy arises between the contracting states or whether it be a controversy arising from the violation of treaties or other cases of an international character. Further, the court may become an international one in the broadest sense under the jurisdiction conferred upon it by Article IV., which reads:

The court may likewise take cognizance of the



international questions which by special agreement any one of the Central American governments and a foreign government may have determined to submit to it.

All judgments of the court must be concurred in by at least three of the justices, and they are to be communicated to the five governments.

The general treaty of peace and amity is to remain in force for ten years, and thereafter for one year from the time that any one of the republics notifies its wish to terminate the agreement.

Honduras, having been the special object of aggression on the part of her neighbors, Article III. of the general treaty provides that:

Honduras declares from now on its absolute neutrality in the event of any conflict between the other republics, and the latter, in their turn,

provided such neutrality be observed, bind themselves to respect it and in no case to violate the Honduran territory.

A continual source of trouble is removed by Article II. of the additional convention, which provides that in case of civil war in a republic no other republic shall intervene.

The preamble to the convention relating to future conferences states that the five republics, *as one of the most efficacious means to prepare for the fusion of the Central American peoples into one single nationality*, have agreed to the convention for the naming of commissions and for the meeting of conferences, which shall agree upon the most efficacious means to bring uniformity into their economic and fiscal interests; and, acting upon the principle that people are unfriendly because they do not know each other, the conference adopted the convention



CENTRAL AMERICAN PEACE CONFERENCE AT WASHINGTON, DECEMBER, 1907.

1. Hon. Elihu Root, Secretary of State of United States; 2. Don Enrique C. Creel, Ambassador of Mexico; 3. Don Joaquín B. Calvo, Minister of Costa Rica; 4. Dr. José Madriz, of Nicaragua; 5. Dr. Luis F. Corea, Minister of Nicaragua; 6. Dr. Angel Ugarte, Minister of Honduras; 7. Don Policarpo Bonilla, of Honduras; 8. Don E. Constantino Fiallos, of Honduras; 9. Dr. Luis Toledo Herrarte, of Guatemala; 10. Don Victor Sanchez-Ocaña, of Guatemala; 11. Don Federico Mejía, Minister of Salvador; 12. Dr. Salvador Rodríguez, of Salvador; 13. Dr. Salvador Gallegos, of Salvador; 14. Dr. Antonio Batres-Jauregui, of Guatemala; 15. Don Luis Anderson, of Costa Rica, President of the Conference; 16. Hon. William I. Buchanan, representative of the United States; 17. Don José F. Godoy, Acting Secretary of Mexican Embassy; 18. Hon. Robert Bacon, Assistant Secretary of State of United States; 19. Mr. William T. S. Doyle, representative of United States Department of State.

on communications, under which the republics may co-operate in the construction of the Pan-American Railway and in the establishment of steamships, telegraphs, telephones, "and everything that may tend to bind closer their mutual relations."

A very important convention is that establishing a Central American bureau at Guatemala. The wideness of its scope may be gathered from its opening paragraph:

(1) To combine every effort toward the peaceful reorganization of their mother country, Central America; (2) to impress upon public education an essentially Central American character; (3) the development of Central American commerce; (4) the advancement of agriculture and industries that can be developed to advantage in its different sections; (5) the uniformity of . . . legislation, recognizing as a fundamental principle the inviolability of life, respect

for property, and the most absolute sacredness of the personal rights of man . . . general sanitation, and especially that of the Central American ports . . . uniformity in the system of weights and measures. . . .

Finally, recognizing the paramount importance of equality of treatment of citizens of one republic in the other republics in the matter of education as well as in political rights and privileges, a convention was adopted providing for the establishing in Costa Rica of a pedagogical institute or normal school for the training of teachers, with separate sections for men and women. The conference recommended, in addition, the creation of an agricultural school in Salvador, a school of mines and mechanics in Honduras, and one of arts and trades in Nicaragua.

## "PAUCITY OF AMERICAN SCIENTIFIC ACHIEVEMENT."

**PROF. HUGO MÜNSTERBERG**, the

Harvard psychologist, writing in the *Deutsche Revue*, gives a very discriminating estimate of the present status of American science, his article being occasioned by Owen Wister's address at a recent Harvard celebration,—an address which gave rise to some agitation and to much still continuing comment, adverse and otherwise, in the American academic world.

Instead of the customary enthusiastic oration to the students, Mr. Wister, tempted by his rare opportunity, chose as his theme the paucity of American scientific achievement, addressing himself rather to the assembled professors.

He spoke at the outset of the powerful economic development in America, with its vast preponderance of exports over imports, comparing it with the scientific pursuit, where the imports still far outnumber the exports. In spite of the extraordinary outlay for universities, American investigation to-day falls behind that of Germany. He adduced statistical proof of his assertion: in each branch of science he mentioned the most eminent living scholar and showed how great the majority of the Germans, how small the minority of the Americans.

The papers throughout the country reported the speech and attacks of all kinds were aimed at Mr. Wister. The first cry of indignation was: How tactless! A novelist to sit in judgment upon scholars, and that in presence of the student-body! Another, deeper-reaching and certainly more serious, argument against Wister was brought up

again and again in the discussions. His whole arraignment, it was said, stands and falls with his assumption that the German type of scientific study is the only legitimate one.

German science, it was argued, consists in the careful digging for and collecting of dry facts; fully as one may recognize the thorough-



OWEN WISTER, THE NOVELIST.

(Who recently called attention to America's deficiencies in science.)

ness and utility of this method, it must be emphasized that it is not the only, nor even the highest, form of science. Far too long had it been sought to force this arid system, so contrary to the American spirit, which is ever intent upon keeping in touch with pulsing life, upon their universities. It was certainly no reproach to the American if he fell behind the Germans in such dray-work. The fine lucidity of the French and the comprehensive breadth of the English attract the genuine American



PROFESSOR HUGO MÜNSTERBERG.

more than the lumbering, endlessly painstaking, narrow wisdom of the Germans.

It is remarkable, says Professor Münsterberg, how widely, especially in non-academic circles, this conception is disseminated. That German science exhibits a brilliant style and perfect form as well; above all, that precisely in grasp, on great lines, it has so often led the world,—this the outsider will not credit.

The doctorate dissertation controls the impression, and the work of Mommsen and Ranke, of Virchow and Helmholtz remain in the background. But in narrower circles, too, there has been an unmistakable reaction against German influence, which, indeed, has no relation to German science. What many earnest Americans really deplore is that in the last decades, under German influence, the college curriculum inherited from England, with its ideal of general culture, has given way more and more to the training of the specialist. Whether, indeed, much has not thereby been lost is a debatable question; nay, it may be justly asked whether the German universities themselves would not be culturally more effective were they to incorporate certain elements of the English idea. But it is confusing things to transfer a dislike of German university methods to German science. And the initiated know this well. They know that science may, nay should, have a national coloring, but that, ultimately, there

is but one common science, requiring one common standard. That on the great whole Germany contributes more to the general progress than any other country is not disputed in the best academic circles; they would only add that America follows next, preceding France and England.

Wister's award of superiority to the Germans, therefore, was justified in the eyes of connoisseurs. But as to his method, it is another matter. His calculation of the American deficit rests entirely upon his enumeration of the leading investigators. In every specialty he sought out the one most eminent, and compared in the total the contributions of the various nations. But are not his classifications mostly arbitrary?

He terms Richards of Harvard, for example, first in his branch, but, assuredly, he is not the foremost chemist; in order to call him first, his field must be circumscribed. And, in principle, there would be no end to such demarcations. But Wister's list was even more arbitrary in the choice of leaders than in classification, particularly among Americans,—naming Lea as the foremost historian in his field, and omitting such men as the astronomers Newcomb and Pickering, the biologist Agassiz, the pathologists Theobald Smith and Welch, the geologist Chamberlin, the philologists Jackson, Lanman, Gildersleeve, the jurists Beale, Moore, Ames, and many others.

It all shows that his whole method is a mistaken one. Where a universal genius arises who towers above all competitors, there is sound reason in reckoning such a commanding personality of a particular nation as a surpassing cultural achievement. But where there is a hardly noticeable difference between the first and the second, or the second and the third, it is of no significance whether the first be accidentally a German and the second an American, or *vice versa*.

A philosopher like Kant stamped Germany a land of philosophy; if the leader is only a Cohen, it is but a question of accident, for international comparison; a second or a third counts for the same. But the science of to-day is evidently not the scene of action for such pre-eminent geniuses; even in natural science, which seems to stand in the foreground, such men as Helmholtz and Pasteur and Darwin have no successors. It may be that this leveling is needed in our present economic pursuits, which require, above all, the organized co-operation of the many; or perhaps it is only the lull before the revival of spiritual science which seems at hand. He who wishes to gauge the present scientific achievement of a country must by all means turn to the general accomplishment, not to the placing of heroes in relief. But whoever proceeds on that plan, observing without prejudice, on the spot, what has been achieved, cannot doubt that American science and the productive work of the American universities are entirely worthy of this mighty em-



pire, standing, indeed, not far behind Germany. And this recognition turns to wonder when we consider the rapidity of progress. The scientific work of to-day compared with that of thirty, nay twenty, years ago, shows an advance before which criticism is struck mute. And precisely this sudden change (due in such great part to German spiritual influence), evidences how misleading it is to look only to world-leaders, for such leaders are men whose life-work is finished; but American science is essentially the work of the last decades,—most of its pillars have not yet reached the age of leadership.

Professor Münsterberg concludes with the reflection that scientific achievement in Amer-

ica is, nevertheless, not on a level with industrial accomplishment, a prime reason for this being that the strongest personalities are drawn to fields offering greater social distinction than the academic and scientific careers,—such as law, politics, commerce, etc. Yet, just as in Germany the best young life is turning to the formerly condemned industrial pursuits, a tendency toward science is slowly making itself felt here. This tendency is the chief cause that American science has passed beyond its apprenticeship and entered with full value into the "world-politics of the mind."

### FREDERIC VAN EEDEN: AUTHOR, MYSTIC, SOCIALIST.

REPORTS in the daily press of the lectures delivered in New York and other of our larger cities by Dr. Frederic van Eeden, the Dutch author and Socialist, during his recent tour of this country, have emphasized the Socialistic beliefs of the eminent Dutchman rather to the neglect of his literary and artistic views. Dr. van Eeden's courageously expressed convictions and his excellent command of the spoken word in English have elicited a good deal of approving comment, although it must be admitted that his views on Socialism have not met with complete acceptance. Recent numbers of several of the Dutch reviews have contained biographical and critical articles on Dr. van Eeden. From these we gather the following data about his life:

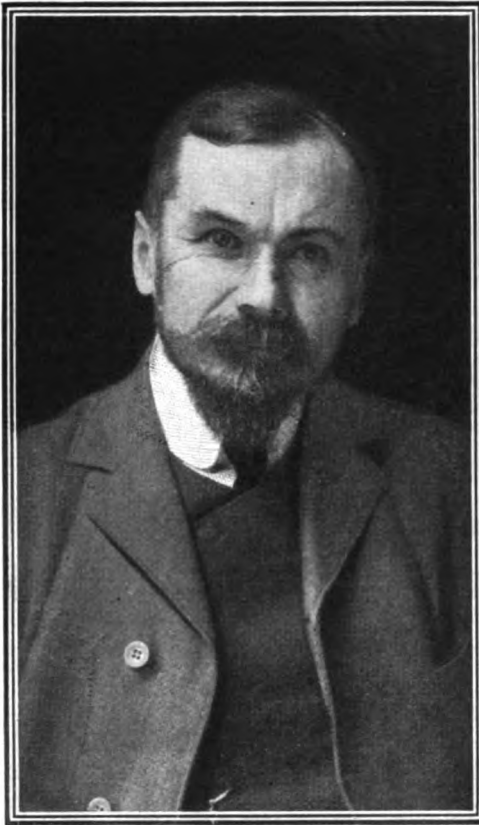
It is generally agreed that he is a man of unusual activity and energy,—in fact, an excellent exponent of the strenuous life.

Few of the things that our day has had to offer in the way of psychological or sociological thought have escaped his attention. As a physician he has practically tested the later theories of hypnotism and medical suggestion. As a Socialist he has demonstrated his sincerity in the establishment and maintenance by himself of two enterprises for the amelioration of the condition of his fellow-men. These have cost him no less a sum than 200,000 florins. And though these have not resulted in the desired practical success, they at least give Dr. van Eeden a rightful and not insignificant place among the philanthropists of our day. For these furnish strong proof of the far-reaching benevolence of the man and are among the leading factors in awakening the admiration for him among his countrymen. As an author his work has also been abundant, though his "Quest" is the only product of his pen well known to American readers. Of his recent activity as a writer

one authority says: "He works with a nervous energy and rapidity, and both of these are most agreeably seconded by the ease with which he wields the pen. In the course of a few months he furnished piles of copy for the press."

Two of his later works, "Ysbrand" and "Ministral," have evoked a good deal of comment and some adverse criticism. In them, particularly in the former, the author appears to evince a somewhat contemptuous opinion of the reading public for its inability to understand his mystical conceptions. In "Ministral" he has put his ideas into a more concrete form. This drama is probably intended to illustrate and give effect to Dr. van Eeden's dramatic theories, which are almost in direct opposition to those generally held by the rest of the profession. The Dutch author in this respect boldly proclaims himself a reformer. Here are some of his theories as set forth in the introduction. He says:

"When the right composer shall have been found for this work it may serve as an example of a true musical drama, a species that, in the author's opinion, has more justification for its existence than the usual opera or the Wagnerian musical drama, which is little else than a more serious opera." Further on he indicates what rôle instrumental music will have to fill in this. "Before the raising of the curtain," he says, "the orchestra prepares the audience for the production of the piece, and, when it has been lifted, enhances the impression made by the beauty and significance of the scenery. But as soon as the actors begin to speak the orchestra either becomes silent or accompanies the words very softly so that they may still be distinctly understood." In this Dr. van Eeden means to plead for the good right of the spoken word, which he regards as an indispensable requisite for dramatic action, and which he thinks should be



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DR. FREDERIC VAN EEDEN.

guaranteed against injury or deterioration by instrumental music. "A dramatic poem," he says, "is not a song, and can never be made such without destroying it as a dramatic production and turning it into something entirely different." In the lyrical and choral parts he would admit instrumental music, of course, since these reach their highest beauty effects only when sung.

There is a good deal of fine verse in "Ministral." It opens with the introduction of Dante, who complains that his life lies before him like a written book, of which (says the critic of the play in the *Hollandsche Revue*) he turns the leaves without finding one which does not leave him dissatisfied, "no act that must not be done over again, no utterance without its dissonance of ignorance." The poet is utterly dissatisfied with all he has left behind him on earth. When Beatrice appears he unbosoms himself to her of this dissatisfaction. Then an angel is sent, who comfortingly addresses him in these words:

Look up, thou good and very faithful servant!  
I bring thee comfort,—more, a benediction.  
It comfort thee to know that all thy labor

In God's esteem was good, though 't seemed presumptive.

And well thou hast obeyed and served, none better.

And though some earthly dross into thy work  
May cleave, as on the work of every man,  
The fine, bright flame illumines and burns for aye.

For benediction this: since clings thy prayer  
So close to the Great Father's sovereign will,  
Be 't granted thee to make thy will be felt  
In all the bustling scenes of earthy life.

The power is given thee from here and now  
Thy influence in human movement to exert.  
From here thou may'st direct at will the hand  
Which regulates the currents of the flood.  
To thee is pointed out a youth whom thou  
Shalt call and strengthen with the heav'nly word,

And guide him in the just and holy war.

And "Ministral" his name, according to thy prayer.

Ministral then goes forth into the world searching for a king. He finds him,—not as a prince of the royal blood, but in one Walter Roland, a money-king, a monarch of the exchange. This is symbolic, perhaps, of the fact that the world of to-day is not ruled by princes in royal palaces but by the power that is given to him who holds money. Roland says:

I wealth have gained, for thereto had I power  
And faith that 't was not given me for naught.  
In power I trusted more than in all lies  
Of love of man and virtue round me preached;  
And know that in those antiquated gods,  
Confessed so piously by men with lip and pen  
Here no one more in every deed believes.  
This hypocritic race believes in might  
And self-aggrandizement, as I, but lacks  
The courage to confess their inner faith,  
And outward offers to its unreal god  
But secretly obeys the real and true.

And Ministral, instead of turning away from this money-king and acknowledging as the true king one who derives his superior power from moral sources, becomes the guide of this Walter Roland, and thus addresses him:

"Sir, sure there must be, nay, there is a way:  
Where hands so many are, there must be bread,  
If there be but a head to guide the hands.  
By money did not you secure your power,  
And that o'er thousands e'en against their will?  
What power will you not then be sure to reach  
When your strong will shall have subdued their own?"

Thereupon Ministral counsels Walter Roland to act freely according to his heart's desire. And when Roland follows this advice he finds happiness in it, for he cries:

"My Ministral! what need have men of more  
For comfort or 't attain to happiness  
Than heart heroic and self-confident?  
Whoe'er unto himself makes that word true,  
What grief can overcome his blithesome will?"

What now does van Eeden mean by all this? Does this indicate a revulsion in the views of the man who elsewhere has shown how slightly he valued mere material possessions? Is "Ministral" a confession that, after a bitter and costly experience, his

Socialistic views have become greatly modified? Whatever may be the answer to these questions, the drama itself is possessed of all the charm common to most of the author's literary work, and is well worthy of being more widely known.

## JEWISH FARMERS.

**F**OLLOWING the Russo-Jewish immigration of 1881 and 1882 the first agricultural and industrial Jewish colonies in the United States were established. The movement was begun in the hope of solving the Jewish immigration question by diverting to country settlements the Jew and training him to farming pursuits. The Jew is not a pioneer; he is a born trader. Hence, he remains in the city and herds with his fellows in comparatively small areas. This tendency makes for congestion, and so we find in New York City nearly 800,000,—the largest aggregation of Jewish people ever found in one city in the world's history.

The oldest and most important of the settlements referred to are at Alliance, Norma, Brotmanville, Carmel, Rosenhayn, and Woodbine in southern New Jersey. These colonies are described by Mr. Kellogg Durland in the *Chautauquan* for April. Their early efforts were marked with hardship, for the Jew is not a toiler. The Roumanian, Austrian, and Russian Jews do not take kindly to land cultivation. The Polish Jews and those from certain parts of Russia show greater capacity for agriculture.

Alliance was the first settlement. Land was bought and divided into sixty-seven farms of fifteen acres each, worth \$15 an acre. Owing to the success of the undertaking uncultivated land in that vicinity is to-day worth \$100 an acre, and cultivated land from \$300 to \$1200 an acre. During the first year of its existence the colonists were paid weekly sums by the Immigrant Aid Society, which sent them. Furniture, cooking utensils, farm implements, and seed were also given them. In 1889 the population of Alliance had grown to 529, owning 1400 acres, 889 of which were under cultivation. There were ninety-two houses and a synagogue. In 1900 there were ninety-six families, thirty-three of these devoting themselves to agriculture exclusively, fifteen to tailoring, twelve to these joint pursuits, and the remaining to carpentering and other

building lines of activity. Their knowledge of farming was derived through an apprenticeship with the native ruralists.

The colony of Carmel followed, consisting of seventeen Russo-Jewish farmers. In 1889 there were 286 people there, living in thirty houses. There were 864 acres of farm-land, but only 123 under cultivation. Baron de Hirsch in this year gave the colony \$5000, which led to the purchase of 1500 acres of land and the erection of thirty-six new houses. In 1900 there were eighty-nine families of nearly 500 people, of whom nineteen families depended on agriculture, thirty-three upon tailoring, and fourteen combined both pursuits. Carmel is to-day more largely an industrial than an agricultural colony. In 1900 the value of the land was \$84,574, subject to an indebtedness of \$26,273.

Rosenhayn is between Carmel and Alliance. Six families started it in 1883, and



FAMILY OF RUSSIAN JEWS A YEAR AFTER ARRIVAL AT ONE OF THE NEW JERSEY SETTLEMENTS.

from the beginning its existence has been precarious. In 1887 other recruits arrived, and in 1889 thirty families joined this colony. Then it had sixty-seven families housed in twenty-three dwellings, and 1912 acres, with only 261 acres under cultivation. Intensive cultivation appeals more to these settlers than the larger forms of farming, and when there is a large crop of wheat or corn to look after it is pretty sure to go to waste in weeds, says Mr. Durland. Brotmanville is the least lovely of the settlements. Its soil is least lovely of the settlements. Its soil is especially sandy, and it looks like a squalid industrial town. Improvements, however, are projected.

Attached to these settlements are recreation halls, where dances and entertainments are held, in order to counteract the "call of the city." A salaried physician and a rabbi are maintained in Alliance. In addition to the industries enumerated the taking of summer boarders must be mentioned. This is a profitable source of revenue to the colonists. Woodbine is the newest of the settlements, and was established seventeen years ago. To-day it is the most important in south Jersey. It has an agricultural school and several factories. It has a pumping station, an electric power house, four schoolhouses, two synagogues, and a Talmud Torah. It has a mayor, six councilmen, and an assessor,

—all elected. There is also a department of health and a board of education. Its population is about 2000. About 700 children attend its schools, and it first introduced the kindergarten in this county. It comprises 5000 acres, one-half of which is under cultivation. It has no jail.

Introducing industries into the Jewish farm communities is still a matter of dispute. Some who have watched these colonies from their earliest beginnings feel that it would be better to concentrate all the energy of the community upon the land. Others feel that an agricultural community without markets for its products is at so great a disadvantage that it must not depend upon agricultural effort alone, but introduce the mills, factories, and the usual enterprises of the town in order that part of the community may find employment without leaving the town for a distant city. Unquestionably this would lend stability to these colonies, but having done this the communities cease to be "agricultural." At best they are small towns with agricultural interests. When Italians are directed to the soil they promptly redeem it, enrich it, and establish themselves successfully upon it. The Jewish immigrants, however, have needed much assistance in every respect,—as to farming methods, debts, and the marketing of their products.

Mr. Durland concludes, from an investigation of these colonies, that if the supply of hard workers can still be found among Jewish immigrants it is entirely possible that the Jewish people will furnish America with a certain proportion of successful farmers.

## TRAINING A FUTURE QUEEN.

THE gifted Queen of Roumania, Carmen Sylva, so widely known through her literary and philanthropic efforts, contributes the leading article to a recent issue of the *Berlin Woche*, dealing with her conception of what education should mean, and giving interesting glimpses of her own rigorous training. She says, to begin with:

Our great poet Alexandri gave the only good definition I have ever heard of the word education: "Education is the art of circumscribing one's freedom in order not to prejudice that of others!" Education consists of two things, which it must impart,—but people will regard me as frightfully old-fashioned,—self-conquest and dutifulness, and, in order that man should not be soured by these two, a world of imagination as recreation!

The only way to instil the first idea of self-conquest in children, continues the Roumanian Queen, is through the stomach, for they are greedy, like little animals, and

want what they see. "They must, therefore, learn to be able to forego whatever they see and to eat what is distasteful to them."

I thank my mother daily for my Spartan education; it has proved a discipline to me throughout my life. My parents thought they were humoring us too much, their own training having been so infinitely more severe. We were given milk, bread of the day before without butter, meat, vegetables, and stewed fruit,—nothing else; never any sweet dishes. Bon-bons were of course not admitted into the house, if only out of regard for our teeth, which were brushed, to the bleeding point, three times daily, and now at sixty-four I have not a false tooth in my head. Our last meal was at six: milk and bread, sometimes an apple; and our lessons began at six in the morning, breakfast, however, not being served until half-past eight. I often writhed with the pangs of hunger, but my mother would have regarded it an egregious and unpardonable lack of consideration for us to be unable to wait for our sick father were we ever so hungry. If a slight complaint did

once escape, she answered short and sharp: "One must overcome that!"

The writer gives further details of the severe regimen of her youth: morning and night ice-cold baths, a hard mattress upon a narrow camp-bed; in case of indisposition, to bed at once to perspire.

At twenty I had never consulted a doctor or tasted medicine. Once I had been lying motionless and perspiring for six hours, when my mother stroked my cheeks! I feel it still. It was a tremendous reward. . . . We not only dared not eat what we saw, but were obliged to eat what was set before us, whether we liked it or not. . . .

At twelve years her mother decided to treat the children as "grown-ups," and had all the dishes presented to us. "You know, of course, which you are to thank for."

This was a double discipline, to let the dishes pass that we craved. Up to my seventeenth year I had never tasted a sweet dish, butter, salads, or anything spiced. Spiced food is, indeed, specially harmful for children, and they get enough saccharine matter in milk, fruit, beets, peas, etc.

"With this regimen," says Carmen Sylva, "I could indeed boast of abounding strength, and was able to bear all the spells of illness of my later life with serenity, since my mother accustomed me in such events, too, to iron discipline and uncomplaining endurance. I have therefore no proper conception of what people call nervousness, what it actually is." So much for self-conquest!

As for dutifulness, it was inculcated in us by small tasks and sacrifices, but these of daily occurrence, which were prefaced by "you may," not "you must." Upon the basis of such training one cannot, naturally, suppose that aught can result but self-conquest and dutifulness.

Her first novel, "Ivanhoe," the Queen proceeds, she read at nineteen. Stories are as necessary for children as their daily bread; they, in truth, comprehend nothing else. "That is why they understand the Bible; it speaks in pictures and stories."

One who is unwilling to sacrifice herself for her children, says the Queen, should simply remain single.

We see that we have progressed from the wildest primitive state to civilization. . . . We do not know, therefore, what our children and grandchildren may attain. They build, naturally, upon the education which they receive from us. And the better we equip them the better can they furnish their children with possibilities. . . .

It was not the fashion in her time for women to be "informed of everything."



QUEEN ELIZABETH OF ROUMANIA. ("CARMEN SYLVA.")

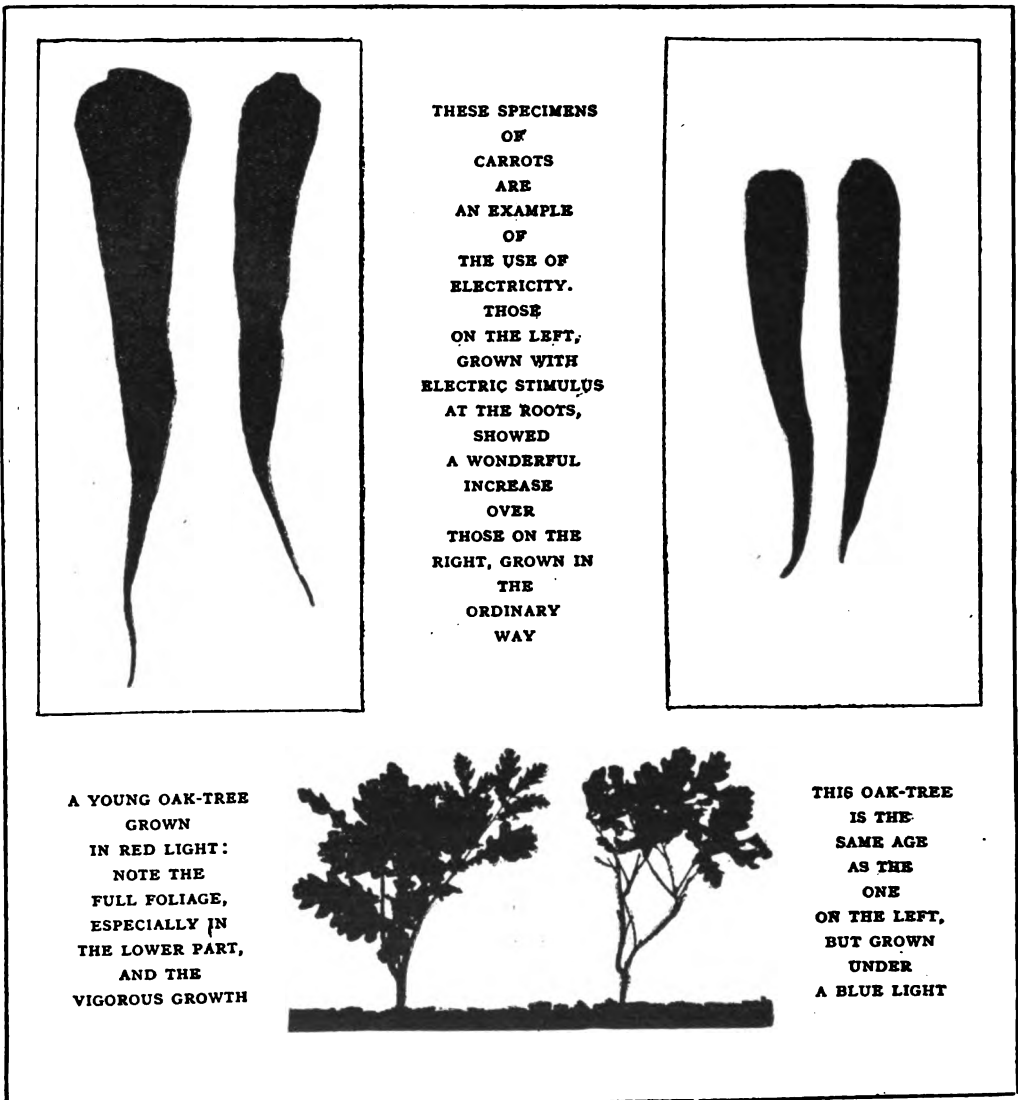
And I entered the world early, entirely alone, visited all the various courts and saw a great deal. But I was so securely panoplied in innocence that I was never curious, and returned home as pure and ignorant as when I left my parents. My mother used to say that great innocence was even a surer safeguard than knowledge and ability to defend one's self. That this self-defence should be quite unnecessary,—because all that is impure rebounds at the inaccessibility of perfect innocence,—that to me seems the most desirable. . . . As a young woman I was naturally enlightened in a new country about much that I had before passed by; the result was that I wanted to die. I said that if the world was so abominable I would rather be dead. I find that it is intolerable for a youthful soul to be familiarized with the ugly things of life. Have we exhausted all topics of conversation to such an extent that we must hear only the unspeakable? I feel that the world is so full of amazing wonders that we ought to be lost in devotion. . . . One should learn to keep one's body as well as soul under control. That is education.

## A SUBSTITUTE FOR SUNLIGHT.

“**E**LECTRICALLY ripened strawberries”; “Try our arc-lamp lettuces”; “Insist on having electrically grown violets: do not be imposed upon by the sun-raised flower,”—such may be some of the announcements which may meet the eye if the system of plant-growing under electric light described by Messrs. S. L. Bastin and G. Clarke Nuttall, B.Sc., in the *World's Work* (London) for April, develops the commercial possibilities of which it gives promise.

As long ago as 1880 the eminent English scientist Sir William Siemens exhibited to a

meeting of the Royal Society some strawberries which had been brought to perfection by the rays of an arc-lamp; and later Professor Lemstrom demonstrated that not only the flowers but the roots also of plants could be powerfully stimulated by the electric current. Hitherto, however, investigations in this field have been mainly confined to the laboratory, and neither the market-gardener nor the wealthy amateur plant-grower has taken up the matter seriously. The method described in the *World's Work* is that of Mr. B. W. Thwaite, a civil engineer of many



THE EFFECT OF THE COLOR RAYS ON VEGETABLE GROWTH.

years' experience, and it is heralded in the following glowing terms:

It has been proved beyond a shadow of a doubt that the beams from an electric arc-lamp form a reasonable substitute for sunlight, and a very good one at that. . . . Under this new system the productiveness of the plant is enormously increased, especially during the winter months. . . . The production of a plant in November and December is increased four and eight and one-half times respectively. The significance of this cannot be gainsaid, for under this system the grower is placed practically on the same footing as his envied competitor in California. Should these rosy expectations be realized in actual practice, the prospect opened is surely a most alluring one. The huge importations of foreign material would be almost unwanted in a country which had an unlimited store of artificial sunshine at its command. The British grower would be placed in such a strong position that he could vie with the utmost composure the efforts of his rivals to get the best of him on the markets,—in fact, something like a millennium in the horticultural world would have been reached.

The chief characteristic of Mr. Thwaite's project is its extreme simplicity, while at the same time it is far and away the most practical that has yet been advanced. It appears that the feeding, heating, and lighting of the plants are all accomplished by means of a gas-engine. A water-jacket on the engine provides the heat, and the perfect illumination of each part of every plant is secured by the aid of an arc-lamp, which is slowly moved all round the glass-house and which can be placed in any position. It is claimed that the cost of heating by this plan is much less than by the ordinary furnace and boiler.

In speaking of the numerous experiments that have been made, the writers in the *World's Work* refer to the notable series conducted at the Cornell University Agricultural Station.

Here a variety of market-garden plants, such as lettuce, endive, radishes, beets, spinach, cauliflower, were selected for operation and placed in a cool glass-house. This house was divided into two compartments in such a way that a large electric lamp suspended outside and lighted by the ordinary street system could illuminate one compartment and not the other. During the day the whole house was exposed to daylight, but when night came one compartment was flooded with electric light and the other remained in a state of darkness. . . . After eleven o'clock at night both compartments were dark till daybreak. . . .

The best results were obtained with lettuce, and spinach was in a month 10 to 15 per cent. better than that grown in the ordinary way. Violets, daisies, and other flowers bloomed more profusely and considerably

earlier when stimulated for some hours nightly by the electric light.

In Paris some experiments were conducted under very different conditions. A selection of plants, such as the water-lily, geranium, sycamore, pea, strawberry, maize, etc., was kept in the covered Market Hall under suitable conditions as regards ventilation and moisture. The arc-lamps were then turned on and kept alight unceasingly for six months. The results proved that continuous light tended not to stimulate but to stunt the plants. One very curious condition was, however, induced: all the plants were intensely green. This question of color is dealt with by Mr. Clarke Nuttall in a separate paper in the same number of the *World's Work*.

All kinds of plants, such as oaks, maize, geraniums, flax, and strawberries, were grown under red, green, and blue glass and in the ordinary transparent glass-house.

The net results of all experiments was that in the red light the plants flourished exceedingly and far outstripped their contemporaries in the normal class, while they were poles apart from the plants that had been assigned to the blue light, which had made no appreciable growth. . . . In the green glass-house plants took up an intermediate position; sometimes they were larger, sometimes smaller, than the normal; mostly they were inferior either in stockiness or health.

It was also found possible to change the color, shape, and size of leaves by varying the rays of the spectrum that illuminated them. It has also been found that the production of scent by a plant can be considerably increased by colored rays of light.

In red light strawberry fruits have a most powerful strawberry odor, far surpassing that of the normal fruits, while the little crassula, which has naturally little or no scent to boast of, has a delicious fragrance almost like that of a banana. . . . The scent remains when the plants are gathered and placed in a room.

Radio-culture, as this system of plant-growing under colored glass is called, is still in the experimental stage; but it already suggests the building of red-colored glass-houses for forcing. The light itself will supply the stimulus without additional heating and manuring. And, more important still, as blue light is found to preserve the plants in a stationary condition,

instead of attempting to force plants into maturity out of due season, might it not be possible to take them when naturally blooming and keep them for longer or shorter times unchanged by its means? Why not retarding, rather than forcing, houses?



## WHAT WILL THE GREATER RUSSIA BE?

PETER STRUVE, one of the publishers of the *Russkaya Mysl* (*Russian Thought*), displays a deep insight and marked originality in his recent article, "Greater Russia." Much of his comment is based on Premier Stolypin's statement that "the opponents of the government would rather choose the path of radicalism, the path that would part us from our historical past and from the traditions of our national civilization. They would have great upheavals; we merely wish for a great Russia."

Struve thinks that Stolypin does not really understand the meaning of the phrase "A Great Russia." He says:

For us this phrase is not a call toward the old order of things, but rather a watchword toward a new Russian statesmanship, toward a statesmanship based on history and tradition, but which is at the same time creative. Like everything that is creative, it must necessarily be revolutionary, though in the best sense of this term.

After an enumeration of the grave errors committed by the Russian Government since the Japanese war, when men like Alekseyev, Alaza, and Bezobrazov in their attempts to compete in the Far East not alone with the Japanese, but also with the Germans, English, and the Americans, opened up that territory, not for the Russians, but for foreigners, Struve insists that the time is ripe for the recognition that Russia has but a single road to greatness. This is the road of concentration. All of the force of Russian civilization, he holds, should be expended upon the Black Sea region,—that is, the territory in Europe and Asia surrounding the Black Sea.

We have a real basis here for our indisputable economic supremacy. We have here the men, the coal, and the iron.

The great Russia created here would be not the fantastic dream of reactionary politicians and self-seeking admirals, but the land of national industry, guided by freedom and organization.

Struve points out, further, that it is the contention of the reactionaries that revolution in Russia is fed by the foreign elements. With this pretext, oppressive measures are constantly introduced against the latter. But assuming that the entire population was racially homogeneous, what probability would there be for the survival of a government which bases its success on the pitting of one race against another? Among the many racial problems in Russia the Jewish and

Polish questions stand out in great prominence.

In its relation to the Jewish question the powers that be pursue the tactics of the ostrich. They do not recognize the objects which they do not wish to see. The center of gravity in the political solution of the Jewish question lies in the abolishment of the so-called Pale of Settlement. From the standpoint of creating a mighty Russia the Jewish question is by no means as insignificant as is commonly accepted in the conservative groups permeated by the spirit of the *Novoye Vremya*. If it be true that the creation of a great Russian Empire is tantamount to the expansion of our economic forces in the Black Sea region, then it must be admitted that for the solution of this problem, as for the economic uplifting of all Russia, the Jews are an extremely valuable factor. For the economic conquest of the Near East, the Jews devoted to the interests of Russia and attached to Russian civilization are actually indispensable as pioneers and middlemen. This was recently demonstrated even by the government publication *Vyestnik Finansov* (*Financial Messenger*), 1907. Hence, it is necessary for the sake of the great Russia to utilize their abilities; and, therefore, to achieve loyally their emancipation. Indeed, among all of the foreign elements there is none that may be utilized for national service and assimilated as readily as the Jews, all the lamentations of the anti-Semites to the contrary.

The Polish question, considered from the same standpoint, is largely political. Notwithstanding the commonly accepted belief, Struve holds that Poland is economically dependent on Russia. The latter is its most important market. On the other hand, Russia's possession of Poland is based essentially on political force.

The Russian Empire must retain the Kingdom of Poland within its organization. Hence it is necessary that the people of Poland be contented and that they cherish their bond of union with Russia. The two countries should be united by a bond of understanding and sympathy. Poland has a still greater significance to Russia from the standpoint of international relations. There exists a widespread belief that at the first opportune moment Germany will seize Russian-Poland. This belief rests on error. Prussia cannot even assimilate the Poles of Posen. It cannot annex additional foreign populations, especially Catholics, who might change the balance of power in Germany. For this reason Germany cannot swallow the German provinces of Austria. The Prussian policy of Germanizing Posen is a grave error, but the Russification of Russian-Poland is an utter impossibility. The Russian element in the latter consists only of bureaucrats and the army. But in relying on the economic attachment of Poland to Russia we must strive to strengthen our natural ties with the Slavs in general, and with the western Slavs in particular. Our Polish policy should serve to draw us closer to Austria, which

at present is predominatingly Slavic. A liberal attitude toward the Poles will in a great measure increase our prestige in the Slav world. Although we shall remain the economic competitors of Austria in the Near East, this competition will be ameliorated by this moral-political solidarity.

It should not be forgotten that Austria, with its election reforms, has entered upon an era of internal strengthening. This, the Russian editor reasons, must be followed by the expansion also of the external power of Austro-Hungary.

It does not follow, of course, that we shall be protected when weak from an attack by Austria by the mere fact that we are a Slav country, no more than Austria was protected from the attack by Germany. As long as Russian-

Poland remains a center of dissatisfaction, and as long as Russia builds unnecessary navies for the Baltic and the Pacific, instead of strengthening itself in the Black Sea region, a great calamity may arise for us at our western boundary. Nor should we think that Germany, because of its traditions of friendship for Russia, would, in opposition to its interests, stand on ceremony with a conservative Russia.

The greatness of any empire, Struve concludes, cannot be achieved without the realization of the national ideals. "The national ideals of present-day Russia involve the harmonizing of the ruling power with the people awakened to self-consciousness and self-rule, which are the essence of nationality. The government and the people must form an organic unity."

## THE HORSE VS. HEALTH.

CURRENT progress in economic and sanitary science demands the banishment of the horse from American cities. The authority for this remarkable assertion is Mr. Harold Bolce in *Appleton's* for May. Horses add to the cost of food in our cities as compared with smaller towns, through enormous truckage expenditures, and to the cost of street cleaning. They also increase our mortality rate beyond mathematical appraisal. New York City pays for sweeping its streets and for carting away the refuse close to \$6,000,000. The horse is responsible for much of this total. Manure in the streets creates dust and breeds disease, adding to New York City's hospital cost, which is more than \$4,000,000 a year. There are 120,000 horses in the city, and half of this number are employed in business. One commercial auto vehicle will do the work of from four to six horses and save \$100 a month. On this basis, the writer assumes, \$18,000,000 is annually wasted.

Vegetables, fruit, meat, and other supplies cost 25 per cent. more, owing to cost of hauling, etc., and the cost of city living is at least 10 cents per capita per diem greater than it should be. This means almost \$500,000 a day. The presence of the horse in New York City is an economic burden, an affront to cleanliness, and a terrible tax upon human life. The menace of the horse as a creator of dust is recognized by advanced bacteriologists. Yearly we lose 20,000 victims to dust. Horses, moreover, attract flies, and the removal of the former would greatly reduce

the billions of flies,—breeders and distributors of disease.

"Bacteriological examination," says he, "of the dust that settles in our centers of population has revealed the germs of tuberculosis, pneumonia, diphtheria, anthrax, tetanus, and other maladies. These germs cannot be effectively removed so long as they can lodge in dust, and dust will not leave New York until the horses do." If horses were eliminated asphalt streets would probably take the place of all macadamized thoroughfares. Asphalt gives off only one-tenth the amount of dust that comes from macadamized or granite streets. Smooth streets would also minimize the city's noise.

"A sudden transition," says he, "in Manhattan to the horseless age would necessarily work hardship. The plan as outlined by those who have this innovation in mind is to have a law passed declaring that after a certain date in the future, say January 1, 1914, for example, no horses shall be permitted to enter the city, and that all these animals now within the corporate limits be banished on or before that day. This plan is designed to give ample time to the owners of horses to adjust themselves to the new system."

Commercial automobiles would be substituted with a saving in health, time, and money. Stabling and harness would also be saved,—no light consideration in this city. On a comparison between a 2500-pound-capacity auto wagon and horse wagon the saving in one year is \$1439. While railway freight rates are declining, trucking charges are as-

cending. All the horses in New York City would cover 190 miles in a line. A horse from his head to the dashboard of the wagon requires eight feet. This congests our streets, and would be eliminated by the introduction of auto wagons.

In Washington, Berlin, and other cities the auto delivery wagon is used by the government. This crusade against the horse is a warfare of science against the visible unsanitation and the unseen pestilence of cities. The horse must make way for the motor.

## A RUSSIAN LABOR LEADER ON THE REVOLUTION.

“AT what stage of the Russian revolution are we? Has the revolution reached its end or has it not?” asks George Kroustalev in the *International* (London). Kroustalev, who, it will be remembered, engineered the great railroad strike two years ago, reviews the resources at the disposal of the revolutionary party and those at the command of the counter-revolutionists. After declaring that one would “have to go to Turkey to find, on the Continent of Europe, a government of such notorious incapacity as that of the Czar,” and that this incapacity became manifest in its full extent in the Russo-Japanese war, Mr. Kroustalev goes on to say:

The war caused revolutionary ideas to permeate the ranks of the army, now undeceived. It completed the ruin of the peasant class. It stopped industrial progress, and permanently compromised the finances of the country by increasing its debt to frightful proportions. The war, finally, destroyed the last citadel of Czarism,—the legend of Russia's military power, the faith in the White Czar's invincibility. . . . Far from being the lightning-conductor of the revolution . . . the war had the effect of electrifying the whole nation with the revolutionary spirit.

Mr. Kroustalev analyzes keenly and with much clearness the weaknesses of the revolution. Russia, he reminds us, though possessing 150,000,000 inhabitants, is really a peasant state; for the urban population represents but 12.8 per cent. The remaining 87.2 per cent. is rural; and of the whole, 72 per cent. is engaged in agriculture. The peasant class, constituting two-thirds of the total population, remained almost indifferent to the movement in the towns; and as the revolution during the last two years was essentially urban, it was predestined to failure, having to depend on its own forces, and being unsupported by the peasant element.

The former labor leader resumes his argument at this point thus:

The vast peasant movement which later shook rural Russia could not harmonize with that of the urban elements. The insurrectionary peasants indulged in outbreaks of the most repre-

hensible kind, burning the houses of the landowners. Their hostility was directed not against the political system represented by the Czar, but against certain landed proprietors. This was one weak point. Another was that the army, composed of peasants, was “capable neither of revolutionary initiative nor of a resistance of any duration.” Nor has the army produced a single revolutionary officer having the capacity to direct the mutineers.

It was but natural that the nobility should rise in defense of the monarchy, for in so doing it defended its own threatened interests as well.

The nobility had suffered severely in the peasant riots.

In 1905 the agrarian troubles had cost the nobles in damages 30,000,000 rubles; in 1906 the agricultural strikes had increased the wages of field workers by 75,000,000 rubles; and the strikes of the peasant farmers diminished the revenues of the nobles by 25,000,000 rubles. And this was not all: The revolutionists had the audacity to demand the actual confiscation of the lands of the great proprietors. Had the latter conceded this claim, the nobility as a political and social force would simply have effaced itself.

The *International* writer holds that the settlement of the revolution demands a satisfactory solution of the agrarian question by a distribution of land among the peasants who are in need of it. According to the official figures of the Commission on Rural Affairs, there are in Russia “45,432,825 peasants either entirely without or insufficiently provided with land.” To remedy this condition the government has had recourse to the colonization of Siberia and the sale of crown lands.

Mr. Kroustalev doubts whether, after all the country has endured, the government will issue triumphant from the conflict. “It has tried everything, and yet, beyond dragonnades and executions, has given nothing to the country.” He considers that at the present moment neither revolution nor autocracy can claim the victory; but that “the next revolutionary tide will sweep together into a single nation the rural and the urban proletariats.”

## THE DANISH-AMERICAN UNIVERSITY EXCHANGE.

THE young men who are getting their education at the New York University are taught mechanical engineering by a Danish professor whose name is Carl Lorentzen. Last summer he took a trip to his native land and while visiting the learned institutions in Copenhagen,—mainly the Polytekniske Læranstalt, a splendid school for civil engineers, chemists, etc.—the idea struck him that this school had much to learn from similar American institutions, and *vice versa*, and he determined to try to establish an exchange of professors between his own branch of the New York University and the Polytekniske Læranstalt.

Upon the advice of the director of this school, Mr. Hagemann, he determined to direct his energy on a larger plan, not to confine the exchange of professors to the technical faculties only, but to make it a national issue and to extend it to the Royal University at large. Accordingly he went to the Minister for Church and School, Mr. Sørensen; to the Foreign Department, to the American Ambassador, Dr. Maurice Egan, who promised his support, and to the *rector magnificus* of the university, Prof. M. C. Gertz, and finally to the most important factor, the press.

The first article on this subject appeared in *Politiken*, the best-known and best-edited newspaper in Scandinavia, as an interview of Professor Lorentzen. He said among other things:

I do not see why our little country should not take part in this cultural movement, to which, without doubt, great importance may be attached. We have here a magnificent university, a well-conducted polytechnical seat of learning, which is of a high scientific standing, and quite a number of other things we needn't be ashamed to mention in a foreign land. Look, for instance, at our agriculture. I am sure that Danish professors, if allowed to lecture in American universities, would be able to create a public opinion in favor of our country.

The idea was soon taken up by the Danish-American press. First, *Nordlyset* (New York) published a spirited article explaining and defending the plan and urging its readers to appreciate its magnitude and possibilities. Another Danish-American paper, *Dansk Amerikaneren*, published some interesting interviews,—borrowed from the Danish paper *Politiken*,—with the leading professors at the University of Copenhagen.

Professor Jespersen, who visited America

some years ago, is afraid that the language may prove a stumbling-block, especially in Denmark. "It would be easy," he says, "to find a Danish professor capable of lecturing in English, but impossible to find an American professor who has mastered Danish." He doubts very much if the Danish students in general could profit by a lecture in English. Professor Höfding, the noted philosopher, goes deeper into the matter.

I believe this to be the main thing, that the man who is sent to the other land is a man of pronounced and rare personality, so that he can stand out as a fair type of the best his country possesses. That is more important than his standing in strict scientific sense. The lectures ought to be popular lectures, popular in the best meaning of the word, so that we could get a true view, a clear understanding, of American conditions. It is often enough that we read books on America, but they are written mostly by poets who have been there too short a time to grasp the idea of the country. They grow enthusiastic over things that belong to the surface only, the tall buildings, the hurrying crowds, the magnitude of the land, and they give us their impressions snatched in haste and often colored too much by their vivid imaginations. It is about time now that we get clear information on the inner life of the people, their spiritual life, the way they think and feel. Their literary and cultural work has to be done under conditions that are very different from ours, and so are the social conditions. Furthermore, I have the idea that the American culture in these days is endeavoring to break loose from the European influence, which it in the beginning naturally could not do without, and seeks to tread its own paths. That is what we really want to know, and there is no doubt that the lectures an American man of science might give would prove not merely interesting but of lasting worth.

While the Danish and Danish-American papers thus did their best to create sentiment for the idea, the originator of the idea, Professor Lorentzen, set to work on the unsentimental but very necessary part: that of procuring the money. Mr. Niels Poulsen, the owner of the Hecla Iron Works, donated a considerable sum, as did also Jacob A. Riis and other Danes, and in a short time the money was procured. Professor Lorentzen then sought the assistance of the Rev. Fred Lynch, the noted peace advocate, and through his good services President Butler, of Columbia University, consented to go to Denmark in company with Dr. MacCracken, chancellor of the New York University. Thus the American part of the exchange of professors was established through Danish efforts and by Danish money.

A formal notice was then sent to the University of Copenhagen. *Politiken* was informed that the academic teachers at their meeting had expressed themselves in favor of the plan, and soon afterward *Nordlyset* proclaimed that the university had sent formal invitation to Dr. Butler and Dr. Mac-

Cracken to deliver three lectures each during this semester. Two prominent Americans will lecture in Denmark this spring. In the coming fall two prominent Danes may be lecturing here. That the old and venerable *alma mater* in Copenhagen will select her very best men there is no doubt.

## A DANISH INTERPRETATION OF IBSEN'S DEVELOPMENT.

THE recent publication of Ibsen's letters has done much to throw light over this great and lonesome man, over his character, his inner life, and his gradual growth to perfect clearness over his duty, goal, and means.

In a letter to Prof. Peter Hansen, in Copenhagen, Ibsen insists that all his works are written on the impulse from some personal experience. A literary study bringing out this point appears in a recent issue of the Danish magazine *Tilskueren* (Copenhagen) from the pen of the critic Just Bing.

The question dealt with in "Love's Comedy" touches at the same time the ideas which are the topics of Norway's literature at that age, and the conditions under which Ibsen himself had to live.

In the letter mentioned Ibsen confesses that the same woman who inspired him to *Hjordis* also was the model for Svanhild in "Love's Comedy." That shows what a master Ibsen is in transplanting an impression from his own life to that of the sagas. The skirmish between Falk and Svanhild in "Love's Comedy" becomes in "The Vikings" love's and hate's bitter deadly strife between *Hjordis* and *Sigurd*. It is *Hjordis* who is the center not only in "The Vikings," but in the new form, the new style of Ibsen's production, and the question becomes burning,—Who is *Hjordis*? *Hjordis* is Ibsen's wife.

Ibsen's wife is Svanhild also, and Ibsen says about her: "She is just the character I need,—illogical, but with a strong poetic instinct, large of mind, and with a passionate hate, to all petty considerations."

It is she that speaks through Svanhild's mouth when Svanhild exhorts her poet lover not to write epigrams, pretty things, play things, toy things that shine and glitter and accomplish nothing, but to steer for a loftier goal, write about the faults of the age, whip and flog what is petty and mean, do something, risk something, suffer and lose every thing, if need be.

It is characteristic of Ibsen and very natural that he always emphasizes what woman has a right to expect from man. The influence that prompts Ibsen to write in just this key is to be traced further back. Ibsen's

wife has without doubt obtained her ideas from a book, then just published, a book that created a sensation all over Denmark and Norway, enthusiastically praised and bitterly condemned, a book in which a richly gifted, warm-hearted woman for the first time dared to plead the cause of her downtrodden sex, had the unheard of audacity to claim that life had other aims and higher aims for woman than housekeeping and the bearing of children, that woman owed to herself to develop also her talents and character. That book, written by Camilla Collett, is entitled "The Bureaucrat's Daughters."

The problem in "Love's Comedy" is this: What is our highest duty,—the regard for our individuality, our personal calling, or the considerations of family and home? It is worth noticing that this problem, which whispers covertly in "The Vikings" and "Love's Comedy," speaks loudly in "Pretenders," and becomes that upon which everything hinges in "Brand." When we touch this problem we touch upon Ibsen's own life.

In his younger years, as we can learn through his letters, Ibsen had left his home and broken his family ties. It was a step that cost him dear, but was necessary, as it enabled him to live independently and write independently of life. In 1864, when Norway and Norway's young men deserted Denmark, then in her bitter struggle against Prussia's and Austria's combined forces, when he left his country in disgust to live abroad, he only repeated on a larger scale what he did when he left his early home. His steps in those fateful days were the first he took on the path that later made him the great recluse. How much it cost him we can divine from his poem of that period, "On the Heights." It tells us about the hunter who broke with all the tender feelings that bound him to the valley, to home and bride, that he might live on the heights to seek "liberty and God." His calling drives him up toward the lofty peaks, but he pines, he longs for the dell, for mother's cottage, for childhood's memories. That his wife has helped him in all this is not to be doubted. It is not for us to ask what rôle she played, nor to what extent she has been the model for *Hjordis*. This character is one of the creation, who is not merely the copy of a model. Her pride, undaunted-

ness, and warlike mood tell us that she is the incarnation of Henrik Ibsen's muse.

Ibsen and Björnson each of them wants to be leader in Norway. Ibsen resigns, because Björnson is better fitted for the place. Ibsen founded the Norwegian theater in Christiania. It met with scant success, while the Danish theater flourished. He organized the Norwegian Society, and its meetings were wasted in idle talk. Ibsen's countrymen did not understand him as they understood Björnson, whose peasant stories won every one's heart, whose poem "Yes, We Love" immediately became the national anthem.

Björnson won his country's confidence. Ibsen

never did. Free from jealousy, he left the leadership of Björnson to go into exile. But his patriotism was not lessened; he took upon himself the duty of rousing his people from drowsiness and self-satisfied ease. He felt that it was his duty when in 1864 the Norwegian youths sat home during the Danish war. And when he in Berlin witnessed the exultant jubilation over Sybbol's surrender, his contempt for the mob began to grow and he conceived the idea of "Brand." The idea grew and grew, he got new impulses from the careful artists in Rome, and on a summer day, when he came to Rome from the country and went in under St. Peter's mighty dome, he found as by a revelation the firm and strong form for the gospel he wanted to preach, and shortly after we hear Brand's voice of thunder pealing forth out over the northern lands.

## TEN YEARS OF GERMANY'S CIVILIZING WORK IN CHINA.

THE German Imperial Navy Department recently submitted to the Parliament a memorial concerning the development of the Kiao-Chou district (Germany's colony in

railroad to Tsingtau, from where they are afterward exported abroad.

The enormous progress of the colony is best illustrated by the following figures:

VALUE OF COMMERCE IN		THE PORT OF TSINGTAN.		
		Imports, non-Chinese.	Imports, Chinese.	Exports.
October.				
1899 to 1900	\$845,000		\$3,333,000	\$1,650,000
1906 to 1907	27,239,943		8,208,650	15,143,847
				Total commerce. \$5,928,000 51,592,440

China) which is of general interest. It sets forth, among other things, what the German navy has accomplished during the last ten years for the squalid little fishing village of Tsingtau. In place of the miserable and dirty fishermen's huts has arisen a modern city with more than 30,000 inhabitants, including the Chinese, and consisting of the European quarter, with its suburb of villas at the Augusta Victoria Bay; the native quarter, Ta-pau-tau, settlements for working people, and a commercial and industrial section. A digest of the report, with comment, is given in the *Gegenwart*.

The city has macadamized streets, a canal system, water-works, electric light, church edifices, hospitals, schools for Europeans as well as for Chinese, postoffice, market halls, and a slaughter-house.

The surroundings are adapted to further hygienic conditions. A large harbor (also a free-port) and a smaller one with extensive quays, wharves, and a floating dry-dock make Tsingtau one of the best-equipped ports in eastern Asia. Both harbors are connected with the Shantung Railroad, built by Germans with German capital, and furnishing communication with the interior. Thanks to this railroad, Tsingtau has advanced to the seventh place among China's thirty-six customs ports. The shipping of products from Shantung is steadily increasing, and they are transported over the

THE PORT OF TSINGTAN.	
Imports, Chinese.	Exports.
\$3,333,000	\$1,650,000
8,208,650	15,143,847

### POPULATION.

I. Europeans: 1902—688; 1907—1484. II. Chinese: 1902—14,905; 1907—31,509. To these figures should be added the Japanese, the number of whom has varied from 100 to 200 during the last few years. Regular income of the protectorate: October, 1898-1899, 36,382.30 marks; October, 1906-1907, 1,546,489.30 marks.

In refutation of any and all doubts, persons with the most expert knowledge of economic conditions in eastern Asia have expressed an altogether favorable opinion in regard to the general development of the colony.

As to hygienic conditions, Tsingtau may, on account of the extensive sanitary measures provided, already be considered the healthiest locality on the Chinese coast. It has become a favorite bathing resort, much frequented also by foreigners.

During the lively season of last year visitors arrived not only from places in the immediate vicinity but also from more distant localities (Peking, Hankau, Hongkong, Kobe, Ningpo, and even Manila), in order to seek recreation at Tsingtau. According to reliable information, the larger hotels and boarding-houses had, from June to September, 1907, 425 foreign guests, among them 180 Englishmen and fifty-four Americans. The hotels and other similar establishments were filled to their utmost capacity,

and many visitors were obliged to seek accommodations in private houses.

As a German civilization center, Tsingtau certainly has become a lasting monument to German achievement. In the first place must be mentioned the work of the German naval surgeons in the Chinese hospitals, as well as the lively patronage which is enjoyed by the government hospital and its staff of physicians from foreign European invalids. The most important task of the colony, in reference to bringing European and Chinese civilizations closer together, lies, however, in the educational field. The government school is established on the plan of a German "Reform College" (with ninety-two pupils), and has already

progressed so far that its first pupils have passed their final examination and have obtained the privilege of one year's military volunteer service. A German school for girls will be established in April of the present year.

If we ask ourselves, asks the writer in conclusion, how it was possible to attain such results in the short space of ten years, it must be stated, to the special honor and credit of the navy, that particular stress has, from the very beginning, been laid on an intelligent co-operation of the government officials with the citizens, particularly commercial circles, both in the colony itself and in the mother country.

## CORPORATIONS IN MODERN BUSINESS.

**B**USINESS was done originally by individuals trading with one another; then by a firm of two or more individuals; then by a company; then by a corporation, and latterly by a giant corporation, or what is usually termed a "trust." Human discoveries and inventions led to these successive stages. The corporation is the inevitable result of an expansion in trade. Its place in modern business is discussed by Mr. George W. Perkins in a recent number of the *North American Review*.

In the first stage it met with conflict. This led to consolidation,—and the trust. Its most useful achievements are the saving of waste in its particular line of business, the utilization of by-products, economy in manufacture and selling, and better and more uniform service. It has developed men of a higher order of business ability than ever appeared under the old conditions, and eliminates the harm, while preserving the good, of the old-time destructive competition.

Its management must be efficient,—it must have the highest order of ability for its responsible posts, and the one supreme test for such service is,—fitness. "Influence" is a factor of little weight in this connection. This feature of the corporation gives the rising generation a goal to strive for, since the head of a great trust, in receipt of a princely salary, cannot hand over his position to a brainless heir, the same as his fortune, but must leave the choice of his successor to the corporation itself.

It also tends to standardize its wares and

to improve the same uniformly, to the benefit of the consumer. It pays higher wages and employs more men, and for longer periods, than ever did the era of individual competition. It makes general business conditions sounder, and business steadier. Firms and partnerships change; corporations run counter to time. It surveys a wider field than the partnership or individual trade, can measure the demand for its output with greater accuracy, and, consequently, prevent the accumulation of large but unnecessary stocks.

As yet it is crude and imperfect. It is only in the formative stage. The necessity for the corporation has outrun ability to manage it, and many mistakes have resulted. We must correct, regulate, and control it. Many of the mistakes occurred through a failure on the part of the corporation's managers to realize that they were not in business as individuals, but as the servants of the stockholders, whom they were obligated to serve honestly and faithfully; and further through mistaking the duty they owed the general public.

Again, it is hard to prevent some corporation managers from looking at questions from a personal-gain point of view rather than from that of a community-of-interest principle. The danger-point in corporate development is not found in the large organizations. It is more likely to be in the small institutions. The former are so much in the public eye that their officers are impressed with their semi-public relations and responsi-



bilities. This gives them the attitude of a real trustee, an impartial judge, an intelligent, well-posted, and fair arbitrator when dealing with matters affecting the rights of the stockholders and of the public. This is particularly true in labor questions. The smaller corporation is inclined to take a narrower view of such matters.

Great business corporations, says Mr. Perkins in the article, are great trusteeships, and they would be attacked less if this were more fully known. Corporations of the future must serve the public, deal justly with labor, and induce it to invest its savings in the enterprise. "That these corporations," says he, "have thus become not only vast business enterprises, but great and growing institutions for savings, surely imposes a new and more sacred responsibility, not only upon corporation managers, but upon legislators as well."

Public supervision of corporate affairs by governmental representatives must be welcomed. The writer believes this should come through the federal Government, but disapproves regulation or control by forty or fifty States with varying usages, laws, etc.

A railroad board of control at Washing-

ton, composed of practical railroad men, for expert, high-minded supervision, Mr. Perkins believes, would not be opposed by the business interests of the country. It would do away with unintelligent, inexperienced administration, which the country dreads. The next period in corporation development should be a constructive one,—constructive as to the relations of the corporation to its labor and the public,—and this can best be accomplished by the method of co-operation with supervision.

The spirit of co-operation is upon us. It must of necessity be the next great form of business development and progress. The highly developed competitive system gave ruinously low prices at one time and unwarrantedly high prices at another. From every point of view the co-operative principle is to be preferred. It is more humane, more uplifting, and, with proper supervision, must provide a more orderly conduct of business, freer from failure and abuse, guaranteeing better wages and more steady employment to labor, with a more favorable average price to the consumer,—one on which he can depend in calculating his living expenses or making his business plans.

## IS THE HUMAN RACE DEGENERATING?

A BERLIN physiologist, Dr. Emil König, who has just published a discouraging pamphlet concerning human life, thinks that man has abused his strength and his physiological constitution, and that, for that reason, he is more susceptible to disease than the beings of former times.

"In many people," quotes *La Revue*, reviewing König's book, "there is a very evident degeneracy of the physical organs, and the condition is transmitted from generation to generation. Degeneracy of species is the natural, not to say inevitable, result." König sees a proof of that fact in the alarming increase of cancer cases, which he attributes, in great measure, to the complex life of modern man. He infers that the increase in diseases of the heart may be attributed to the pressure of blood against the linings of the arteries, the pressure being due, of course, to excessive activity of any kind exciting to the circulation; for example, hard work, undue effort, or accelerated movement of the mind or body.

He (König) thinks that marked deterior-

ation is in progress in the human stomach, and that the present swift decay and loss of the teeth have an alarming influence in stomach trouble. In conclusion, he says: "If men continue to live as they have lived under the so-called civilization, the time is near when suicides caused by inability to endure physical pain will be facts of daily occurrence."

This pessimism seems exaggerated, but it is based on truth. It is incontestable that however paradoxical it may be in some instances, human life,—the life as it should be lived,—has broken down the barriers and passed the limitations of reason. Man has lost, if not his comprehension of his best good, at least his precautionary care for his physical well-being. He has forgotten that health, not money, is the best possession and earthly outfit. He wastes his strength as a prodigal wastes an inheritance. In China prizes and premiums are given to people who free themselves of disease. It would be well if the people of Europe and America were to follow, prizes to be offered in certain regions nearer home.

## MAKING ARTIFICIAL GEMS.

THE discussion of the possibility of artificially manufacturing diamonds makes interesting reading of an article on "Artificial Precious Stones," by Dr. Otto N. Witt, professor of chemistry in the *Technische Hochschule* at Charlottenburg, Prussia, reprinted in the *New-Yorker Staats-Zeitung*. Precious stones the professor defines as "minerals which are at the same time distinguished by their beautiful appearance and by ability to withstand the destructive effects of continuous use." The claim of the famous French chemist, Moissan (recently deceased), to having chemically produced the most highly prized of all precious stones, the diamond, is thus discussed:

Moissan found in examining the iron meteorite from the Diablo Cañon some colorless little crystals imbedded in the iron, and which on nearer inspection turned out to be tiny diamonds. As now such meteorites are at the moment of their downfall to earth in a state of fiery fluidity, but during their fall quickly cool, Moissan came to the conclusion that the iron of this meteoric stone had contained carbon dissolved, which in the rapid cooling had not been able to separate itself in the form of graphite, as the carbon dissolved in cast-iron regularly does, but had separated itself in the form of the diamond. Moissan now sought to produce artificially similar conditions by cooling very suddenly molten cast-iron by means of pouring it into water or otherwise. The "pigs" of iron thus obtained he then dissolved in acid, and looked in the residue offered for the diamonds which must have formed if his hypothesis was correct. He really succeeded in finding several colorless transparent little granules, which, however, were so small that they became visible only when greatly enlarged under the microscope. From the crystallization form of these granules (which, however, as I convinced myself, was very indistinct) Moissan concluded that what he had here was really diamonds. The only really unassailable proof that this was so, chemical analysis, was, however, impracticable on account of the microscopic character of these "finds." So that it is to-day still doubtful whether Moissan really produced diamonds; he himself firmly believed that he did.

Dr. Witt then adds: "But, in any case, in our demand for diamonds as ornaments and (what, perhaps, is still more important) for technical purposes we are, afterward, as before, referred to the agency of nature." In the professor's opinion, "for the production of artificial diamonds we have for the present but small prospect of success." While the artificial manufacture of some precious stones must now be regarded as an accomplished fact, and is gradually becoming perfected, he explains that such manufacture either of dia-

monds or of other gems need occasion their owners no fear of their decrease in value. He goes on:

The artificial manufacture of gems has to-day gone so far, indeed, that it can support and complement the yield of natural stones (which is ever becoming smaller) and meet our growing need of luxury. But so easy and simple it is not, and probably hardly ever will be, that thereby precious stones of every kind should be condemned to the rôle of a well-nigh worthless bauble. Even the artificial stones can be manufactured only on condition of a high market value for all precious stones.

Forty years ago, the writer says, the English chemist, Greville Williams, succeeded in producing from the mineral beryl, melted and then gradually cooled, stones which in outward appearance closely resembled the sapphire and were distinguished by great hardness and durability. But their chemical composition showed them to be artificial and their optical properties were defective. They stood midway between artificial precious stones and the glass imitations of precious stones.

To-day, however, the artificial production of the ruby and the kindred stones, Professor Witt declares, is a "perfect success." He mentions " . . . the artificial rubies and parti-colored sapphires which a Paris manufacturer exhibited at the exposition of 1900, and which created a justified sensation among all who saw them."

Here for the first time were artificially manufactured stones which possessed all the properties of the natural stones and fully resembled them. Of the manufacture of these stones for a while nothing was known; not till some time later did the French chemist and mineralogist Verneuil publish the fact that he was the discoverer of the new process, which in its characteristic features he also described. The exhibitor of the artificial stones at the Universal Exposition was an assistant of Verneuil's, to whom the latter had intrusted the manufacture. For a number of years the well-known Berlin investigator, Professor Miethe, has also been occupying himself with the study of gems. Alone and associated with the gem expert Wild, in Idar, he has developed further Verneuil's process in its details, so that now the manufacture of faultless rubies and white sapphires is a sure process. As a wholly special advance, however, which the gentlemen mentioned have achieved must be mentioned their having also succeeded in ascertaining the coloring principle of the blue spinels, and in artificially producing this in quite as great perfection as nature herself. Thereby two of the rarest and most costly forms of gems have become accessible to us artificially.

# LEADING FINANCIAL ARTICLES.

## PUBLIC UTILITIES AND THE INVESTOR.

“**W**HY can't you describe street-railway bonds in detail, just as you do railroad bonds?” asked a reader of the *Investment Bureau* in this magazine.

In answer we had to dwell upon the special character of the knowledge necessary to the forming of an intelligent opinion upon any public-utility security. We had to contrast this *special* knowledge with the *general* information regarding railroad securities, which is at the hand of any financial student or banker.

The reports of the railroads to State and federal authorities are fixed and minute in detail, so that neighboring roads can be compared with each other and the conclusion formed that one is a better moneymaker than another, or is less heavily burdened with debt in proportion to its mileage, or is managed more effectively, or spends more money for repairs to engines and cars and road-beds.

But what use would it be to compare the cost per mile of running street-cars down Broadway with the operating statistics of the “Main Street” trolley in a rural county-seat? Clearly, conditions are so peculiar to the locality in each instance that a special and independent investigation of each proposition would be necessary.

Obviously such an expert investigation cannot be made by every small investor who wants to buy public-utility bonds. This information must properly be collected by the banker who offers the bonds. But one thing the investor can do,—he can investigate his banking-house. If he finds that it has a long record of dealing in street-railway, electric-light, and other public-utility securities, and has recommended to its clients only such as have turned out well, then, and not until then, the investor should begin to pay serious attention to the statistics of the road as presented in the circular describing the bonds.

### EXPERT OPINION.

The difficulty and cost of making a thorough inquiry into the standing of a street-railway company, for instance, may be ap-

preciated by reading George Garr Henry's article in the *April System*.

In order to determine the safety of a street-railway company's bonds the company must be subjected to a threefold examination,—physical, financial, and political.

It is usually impossible for the average investor to make such an examination himself, nor is it likely that he would possess sufficient technical knowledge to render his investigation of much value. For an accurate estimate of the value of a street-railway's physical property it is usually necessary to depend upon the expert opinion of a trained engineer.

In most cases it is probably found that the bond issue is in excess of the value of real estate and the replacement value of the physical property, the balance representing a capitalization of the franchise.

To determine the real value of the franchise or franchises is a difficult matter and involves the whole question of the company's relations with the community which it serves and with the local law-making bodies.

The first question which arises is whether the franchise is perpetual or for a definite time, and the second whether it is partial or exclusive. Franchises vary greatly in these respects. Sometimes a franchise, apparently partial, is practically exclusive, owing to the fact that all the available space in the streets is already occupied by the company's own tracks. If the franchises of a company are limited as to time it is expedient if not imperative that the bonds should mature before the expiration of the franchises.

### GOING BEHIND THE FIGURES.

Next must come the report of the expert accountant. Nor is it enough that the road show a record of earnings in the past sufficient to pay the interest on the bonds in question.

The payments of the road must be analyzed to determine whether the proper amounts have been expended for renewal of track, replenishment of rolling stock, and other improvements sufficient to keep the property in good physical condition. This is the most intricate subject in the investigation of a street-railway property. Unless proper allowance be made for depreciation, in addition to the expenses of direct operation, it is only a question of time before the strongest company will become bankrupt.

Deterioration of plant and equipment, which goes on constantly, can be offset in only two ways. One is out of earnings and the other is out of the security-holders,—that is, by decreases in the market value of the securities.

The first takes prosperity or courage; the second leads to bankruptcy.

It is difficult to measure depreciation accurately, but a safe rule is to write off 10 per cent. of gross earnings each month for depreciation. In this way the charge for depreciation will be proportionate to the traffic, which provides automatic adjustment.

If the net earnings, after making this allowance for depreciation, and after providing all expenses of operation, including ordinary repairs, amount to as much as twice the interest charges upon the bonds outstanding, it is probable that the bond may be taken with safety.

#### POLITICS ALSO ENTER.

Even a well-maintained railway, skilfully managed, with proper franchises and small debt, may still make trouble for its bondholders if it stands wrong with the politicians and with the public. The investigating bankers must estimate the probability of a low-fare campaign, perhaps for political reasons only. The attitude of the Legislature on franchise renewal must be taken into account, and also the ability of the railway's lawyers to defend it from fraudulent damage suits. Moreover, the general feeling of the public toward the management is a tangible asset or liability, according as the road has given satisfaction or aroused enmity.

Evidently only men of special experience and integrity can be trusted to learn the real influences behind an issue of street-railway or other public-utility bonds. But when these facts have been accurately reported to a conservative banker, and when the banker finds them such as to justify his recommendation of the bond,—then the investor is right in considering the bond a desirable investment of its kind.

Bankers would describe such a bond as not readily convertible, with little prospect of appreciation in value, but with unusually high yield, considering its high grade of safety. In other words, the bond pays 5 to 6 per cent. a year, which is more than could be expected from almost any other class of security equally as safe; but it may be difficult to turn into cash in a hurry, rarely being listed on the Stock Exchange, and (unless it is a convertible bond) it lacks speculative possibilities of great rise in value. Many investors, however, are not influenced by these two latter considerations, and should not be. For them the public-utility bond, investigated and recommended by the banker of reputation, ranks high as an income-producing security.

### MINING PROPOSITIONS FOR THE SMALL INVESTOR.

“I NOTICE that you ‘knock’ mining propositions in all shapes.” Thus the president of an Alaskan mining company wrote to the REVIEW OF REVIEWS recently, in remonstrance. He felt that his own mine should form an exception, since its management was honorable and its ore beds promising. He asked aid to secure the small amount of capital which he deemed necessary for its development.

It was one thing to endeavor to bring this mine president into touch with responsible bankers who are interested in such propositions; it would be quite another thing to allow the stock of such a company to be offered to readers of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS. No matter how high the integrity of the management, or how rich the ore, there is no getting away from the fact that his company does not own a “mine,” strictly speaking, but a “prospect.” To buy stock in a prospect cannot be other than a pure speculation. Only a few mining companies, steady dividend-payers, have qualified for the investment class.

Here is a striking fact brought out by the editor of the *Financial Record*:

There have been over 150,000 mining companies organized and incorporated in the United States. A full list of dividend companies, in which all the gold, silver and copper mining companies of the United States are reported, shows that there are less than one hundred dividend-paying mining companies in the United States at the present time. One producer out of 1500 is a very small percentage.

How painfully inadequate a percentage this is can be seen from a comparison with railroad stock. Last year it was computed that two-thirds of the railroad stock in the hands of the public was returning dividends to the owners. This is about one thousand times the proportion of dividend-paying mining stocks!

What gambler would bet his money on a turn of a card or a throw of dice which mathematicians had proved was possible only once in 1500 times? The purchaser of the average mining stock in the development stage, however, would seem to be taking just about such a position.

## NOT ALWAYS DISHONESTY.

Nor are the disappointments of mining-stock holders to be traced entirely to dishonesty. With the best intentions in the world, the most energetic and efficient management may fail to get enough precious metal out of their "hole in the ground" to pay dividends on their stock. Some of the reasons are discussed in an editorial in the *Engineering and Mining Journal*:

The great losses of money in mining are suffered not through the occasional spectacular failures of big enterprises or by the deliberately fraudulent schemes which some of our Western friends are so anxious to exterminate by legislation, but rather by the drain of the money of the public into *more or less honest, more or less misguided* ventures that are not illegitimate, but are entered into without competent engineering advice. What a familiar story it is to read of a company organized with a capital of several millions, shares boomed to triple the price of their flotation (which, of course, was many times too high in the first place), fond hopes of great speculative profits, expenditure of much money in a stamp-mill, etc., failure of the mine to make the expected returns, excuses by the management, visits of the directors to look into matters, suspicions aroused, employment of engineers to examine and report (like physicians, they are called in when the patient is sick, seldom being retained to keep him from becoming sick), and finally the knowledge that the property is "just a good prospect," which the original promoters sold for the price of a grandly developed mine.

When one adds to the number of "misguided," the multitude of the deliberately dishonest promoters of alleged mines, so extravagantly exploited in many Sunday papers and circular letters, one begins to see how the

149,900-odd non-dividend producing mining companies have come into existence. The reader of advertising matter offering the stock of a mining company should stop and ask himself about three questions:

(1). How do I know that this company really does own any property at all?

(2). If I can prove this to myself, then how do I know that this property will ever be anything but a "prospect"?

(3). Granted that I have struck the one proposition out of 1500 which may be expected to make money, what earthly assurance have I that the far-off officers, the promoters, or other insiders will not get all the profits,—leaving the petty stockholders like myself to be frozen out by manipulation so easy to be accomplished with an unlisted "curb" stock?

## A RICH MAN'S GAMBLE.

Questions similar to these concerning any American *railroad* could be answered with the greatest fullness, and the prospective investor would have a chance to know just where he stood. But the purchase of the average mining-company stock in the "prospect" stage is a dark gamble. The rich man whose inclinations and surplus allow him to "take a chance" may be justified in buying it. But what an inconsistency it is to behold the small capitalist of strict principles, who would never dream of betting on a race-horse at a fair and openly calculated odds, or "backing the red" at roulette with nearly even chances, actually risking his hard-earned savings with only one chance out of 1500 to win.

## THE GREATEST RAILROAD IN THE WORLD.

INVESTORS have benefited by one result of the sweeping clean-up in business. It has exposed the weak and strong spots in the American railroad situation. The few receiverships on the one hand are more than balanced by the showing of the financial, physical, and operating strength of those roads which are best weathering the storm. One of these, perhaps the soundest of all, is the subject of recent admiration from experts on both sides of the Atlantic. It is the Pennsylvania, the nucleus of the greatest railroad system in the world.

The high value of Pennsylvania stock for investment is strongly indicated by careful editorials in the London *Statist*, and by a

striking history of the company from its early times to the present, from the pen of John Moody, a leading railroad statistician, in *Moody's Magazine*.

## A LONDON COMMENT.

"For those desiring a security of great intrinsic value, giving a relatively high yield, Pennsylvania shares may be commended. The bonds of the company can be bought to give yields up to 4 per cent. and over, and they may be safely purchased by the most prudent." Thus the *Statist* sums up its researches into the Pennsylvania's record and outlook. It is unusual for a financial periodical of such conservatism to indulge in such

direct recommendation. Only an extraordinary showing could justify this confidence.

English students of finance are noted for their painstaking and cautious examination of all the factors entering into an investment proposition. The two articles in the *Statist* which culminated in the conclusion repeated above considered not only the satisfactory net earnings for 1907, which left the railroad with \$11,000,000 after it had paid \$7 on every share of stock; but a study was also made of the situation for the future. This the *Statist* thinks is favorable, pointing to earnings for the railroad in 1909 "nearly, if not quite, as large as they were in 1907."

The economic conditions supporting this opinion are somewhat as follows: The probability that in January, 1908, the check to trade was in its most severe stage; the prospect for a better maintenance of freight rates than during former panics, when rebates and secret rate-cutting were common practices, and the reasonable chance that neither politics nor crops will make 1908 a disastrous year.

Finally, the management of the railway itself is known to be admirable in efficiency and economy. Already the falling off in receipts is being met by the cutting down of expenses in a striking manner. Material, fuel, and labor ought to be cheap during 1908. "Therefore," says the *Statist*, "for all these reasons we anticipate that the company may not experience much difficulty in maintaining its 7 per cent. dividend, and that it should certainly have no difficulty in making 6 per cent. distributions."

#### KEEPING AHEAD OF THE TIMES.

The motto of the Pennsylvania Railroad for half a century might well have been *to keep ahead of the times*.

The aggressiveness and imagination of the road's managers are graphically shown by John Moody's historical article in *Moody's Magazine*. During the fifty years since the first through train was run to Pittsburg from Philadelphia without transfer of passengers the mileage has increased from about 350 to more than 11,000, and the combined earnings have reached nearly \$327,000,000,—an amount not even approached by any other railroad system.

This extraordinary income could not have been earned unless the company had consistently discounted the future,—unless it had spent millions on traffic which did not exist but which was ready to exist as soon as

facilities were provided. Just at present the company is being much criticised for the expenditure of \$100,000,000 or so necessary before its trains can run from Jersey City, underneath Manhattan Island, to Long Island, and so to New England. Certainly it will be some years before sufficient new business can be handled at a profit to pay interest and dividends on this enormous sum. Yet to the reader of Mr. Moody's illuminating article even such a gigantic extension as this does not seem out of line with the progressiveness shown by the president, Alexander J. Cassatt, and the other managers who have brought the road to its leading position.

In short, for the greatest railroad of the world, centering in the wealthiest section of America, the vital issue is still *to keep ahead of the times*. Mr. Moody illustrates this situation:

The major part of the Pennsylvania lines traverse five of the richest and most rapidly growing States in the Union, in respect to both population and wealth. These States are New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois. They embrace at the present time over one-quarter of the population of the entire country, and the total wealth within the borders of these States as reported in 1904 by the Census Bureau was in excess of 30 per cent. of the total reported for the entire wealth of the nation. Since 1850, when the record of the Pennsylvania Railroad first began, the population in these States has grown from 6,500,000 to over 23,000,000, and the recorded wealth from \$2,000,000,000 to nearly \$33,000,000,000. The Pittsburg district has developed within forty years from a small industrial center on the Ohio River to the largest and richest aggregation of iron, steel, and allied industries in the world; the cities of New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Pittsburg, Cleveland, Chicago, Cincinnati, St. Louis, and the rest have all more than doubled in population since the Pennsylvania lines began to extend beyond the borders of their original State, and the property values in the great cities which the Pennsylvania lines either penetrate or pass through have shown almost fabulous increases within the past decade.

In view of all this it should not be a matter of wonder that the Pennsylvania Railroad has never gone through a single year since 1860 without the payment of a dividend; that in this period it has paid out upward of \$300,000,000 in cash to its shareholders, and that it has been enabled during the past nine years alone to turn back into the property out of its earnings for improvements and sinking funds over \$86,000,000 and still leave a profit and loss surplus of \$25,000,000. Since 1864 the actual profits of the operated lines alone, not including any of the lines west of Pittsburg, nor any of the separately operated lines in the East, have exceeded \$1,000,000,000. The figures, could they be readily obtained, of all the controlled lines as well, would undoubtedly give results several hundred million dollars greater than this.

## RULES FOR A TRUSTEE.

**STRANGE** to say, there is no formal and exact line of conduct for an American trustee. The reader of this article might suddenly find himself empowered by a deceased friend's will to invest the estate in the widow's interest, and left practically free to follow his own method. Purely through lack of experience he might buy real estate at haphazard, or the most speculative kind of stocks. Such things are constantly happening, and as constantly endangering the welfare of dependent widows and orphans.

The proper conduct of a trustee is very concisely summed up by the financial editor of the *World's Work*, who believes that such an investment "must be restricted to first-mortgages on real estate, not to exceed 60 per cent. of the market-value of the property; to bonds secured by mortgage on going concerns, railroad or industrial, of good reputation and of long standing; to municipal bonds of the State in which the testator lived; to deposits in the banks of the same State; to certain other securities,"—such as guaranteed stocks and bonds of local public utilities whose prospects can be shown to be exceptionally good.

Let us take a specific case: Suppose a man leave a legacy of \$20,000 cash, and a proper home for his widow and children, and a will instructing that the sum be kept invested until the death of his widow, and then converted into cash and distributed. This is an actual case, the legacy having been left in the State of New Jersey. How may it properly be invested? For the sake of clearness one must suppose that the fund may be held tax-free, for the tax laws vary in each State, and to select a tax-free investment in every case would require a book.

The writer would take the following as a fair distribution of such an estate:

	Amount.	In- come.
Cash in bank.....	\$1,000	\$40
In first-mortgages on farm-lands or im- proved local property.....	10,000	550
In steam-railroad bonds legal for New Jersey savings-banks.....	3,000	135
In selected local municipal bonds.....	3,000	135
In local gas, traction, or manufacturing bonds .....	3,000	150
	<u>\$1,010</u>	

Many cautions must be observed. The local banker should give his opinion in the case of the farm mortgage. Or if the property has been improved, it is well to purchase the mortgage through one of the title-guarantee concerns; the difference in the rate of interest is well spent in the additional safety. A lawyer's recommendation, however well meaning, does not furnish equal safety.

Municipal bonds, if the community issuing them is a small one, are often very hard to dispose of, even in instances where their safety is very high. Since it is always well to have a capital that can be quickly "liquidated," or converted into cash, it is sometimes best to select "short-term" municipals, due to be paid within a few years.

The author of the article in the *World's Work* recommends a personal acquaintance with the business of any public-utility or industrial company whose bonds are bought for such a trust fund. It will frequently happen that the trustee has no personal acquaintance with the management of such enterprises. In such cases the recommendation of a sound and long-experienced banking-house should not be despised. A conservative investment banker, upon understanding the nature of the funds to be invested, should be trusted to suggest what gas or street-railroad or electric-lighting securities might best supply a portion of the widow's or orphan's income. Such securities could give an income of more than 5 per cent. with a safety equal to that of the remainder of the investment.

## MUNICIPALS THE SAFEST FOR INDIVIDUALS.

Trustees, and other prospective investors who demand safety first of all, have been asking the REVIEW of REVIEWS about Government and State bonds. It is no reflection against the safety of such securities to suggest municipals instead. The situation is explained by Charles Lee Scovil in *Success*:

There is no form of investment in this world that is safer than the bonds of the United States Government. In view of the fact, however, that such bonds sell at prices to yield less than 2 per cent., they are rarely purchased by individual investors, who cannot afford, except in special cases, to accept so small a return upon their capital. The great bulk of the bonds of the United States Government are used by national banks, which must, as soon as organized, provide themselves with a certain amount of such bonds. The amount is dependent upon the capitalization of the bank.

Many authorities claim that municipal bonds of the best type rank next to Government bonds in point of safety, placing them even ahead of State bonds. While a bondholder can bring legal action against a municipality, he cannot sue a sovereign State, although one State can sue another. Some States have no debts; others, comparatively few; and still others have a considerable amount of outstanding obligations. However, the floating supply of State bonds in the market is relatively small, and those available command high prices.



# THE NEW BOOKS.

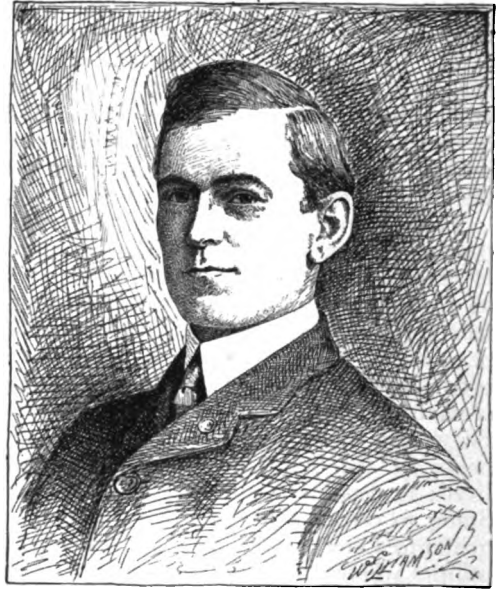
## NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

### THOREAU, OUR FIRST GREAT "NATURE" WRITER.

It is now forty-six years since the death of Thoreau, our most famous observer of nature and out-of-door life. He was greatly appreciated within the little circle of his intimate friends near Boston, but his fame was small indeed at the time of his death. He had published only two books. Now we have this beautiful and definite edition of his writings in twenty volumes (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). It is not often that nine-tenths of the literary work of a famous author is posthumous. Fortunately, the miscellaneous writings of Thoreau had been preserved, and after his death three or four volumes appeared. The extent of the present edition is due simply to the fact that Thoreau's journals, as a great literary mine, were recently discovered for the purposes of editing and publishing. He had kept the most careful journals from 1837 to 1861, and these contained not only his observations from day to day on all sorts of things in life and nature about him, but the meditations due to his varied reading and his interest in matters literary, social, ethical, and indeed on all subjects. Mr. Bradford Torrey, as editor of these journals, is entitled to praise and thanks. The photographic illustrations scattered through the volumes are due to the skill and taste of Mr. Herbert Gleason, and, like Mr. Torrey's work, that of Mr. Gleason is a real contribution to the total result. This publication in uniform style of Thoreau's journal, along with his other well-known writings, such as "Walden" and "A Week on the Concord and Merrimack Rivers," is a marked event in the history of American literature, for it firmly establishes the position of an author whose fame has rested heretofore as much upon personal traditions as upon the too slender basis of his published writings. We have now in these twenty volumes the full justification of his sequestered but active intellectual life.

#### DESCRIPTION AND TRAVEL.

In "The Mother of California" (Paul Elder & Co.) Arthur Walbridge North has given a spirited historical sketch of the little-known land of Lower ("Baja") California from the days of Cortez to the present. He recounts to the accompaniment of some interesting illustrations from photographs the history of the ancient missions and describes the mines and the physical, social, and political aspects of the country. There is an extensive bibliography and an introduction by Cyrus C. Adams, of the American Geographical Society. The long sojourn of our battleship fleet in Magdalena Bay has made this "land that reaches down toward Panama" a region of considerable interest to modern Americans. Mr. North delicately suggests the question, Shall the United States purchase Lower California? and proceeds to out-



ARTHUR WALBRIDGE NORTH.

(Author of "The Mother of California.")

line his opinion in an exceedingly interesting chapter in which he seeks to prove that geographical location, which has throughout its history made this peninsula an expense and no special benefit to Mexico, would make it of the highest value to the United States.

A unique and interesting publication is "The Canal Zone Pilot," a handbook published at Panama by A. Bienkowski and sub-titled "A Guide to the Republic of Panama and a Classified Business Directory." A good deal of interesting historical matter about the Isthmus is included and some illustrations (generally poorly printed, however), supplement the text.

#### HISTORY, BIOGRAPHY, AND MEMOIRS.

Volume V. of the Cambridge Modern History (Macmillan) treats of "The Age of Louis XIV." It will be remembered that these volumes are not being issued in their numerical order, the one preceding this having been Volume X. The present volume treats of the absolutistic idea in European history. The Grand Monarch, say the editors in their preface, though endowed with some truly royal qualities, was himself "no great statesman and nothing of a general." His monarchy was not his creation, but "was without real initiative and no intellectual effort associated with his reign was due to his personal inspiration." On the other hand, the system of absolute government which he carried on through more than half a century,

and to which "all the activities of the French nation were consistently, though not without struggles, accommodated, was characteristic of the whole age of which he is the most conspicuous figure." A large portion of the present volume, also, is occupied with an account of the Thirty Years' War. The whole series, as we have mentioned in connection with our notices of other volumes, is being edited by Drs. A. W. Ward and G. W. Prothero and Mr. Stanley Leathes.

A volume which can be profitably read at the same time as Lord Cromer's "Modern Egypt," noticed in our pages last month, is "Egypt and Its Betrayal" (Grafton Press), by Dr. Elbert E. Farman, former United States Consul-General at Cairo, being, as he says, an account of the country during the periods of Ismail and Tewfik Pasha and of how England acquired a new empire. The volume is illustrated.

Dr. Henry Charles Lea has supplemented his elaborate "History of the Spanish Inquisition" with a volume on "The Inquisition in the Spanish Dependencies" (Macmillan). Dr. Lea shows that in the colonial tribunals the Inquisition was at its worst as a portion of the governmental system and so contributed in no small degree to the failure of the Spanish colonial policy.

Sir Henry Drummond Wolff's "Rambling Recollections" (Macmillan,—two volumes), while literally true to its title, possesses a certain coherence resulting from the personality of the author and his manner of telling his experiences. It is charmingly written, and when Sir Henry's long career in the British diplomatic service, particularly at the court of Madrid, is remembered, it will be seen that it is possible for the two volumes to contain a great deal of interesting reading. The author manages, without giving



DR. PROTHERO IN HIS STUDY.

(One of the editors of the "Cambridge Modern History" series.)

away diplomatic secrets, to convey to us a great deal of the "atmosphere" surrounding the legations of the great powers in the European capitals.

Another volume of reminiscence, also from the press of the Macmillans,—*"Leaves from the Notebooks of Lady Dorothy Neville"*—is full of fascinating personalia of the fascinating Lady Neville. Rather interestingly, passages in the diary quoted (the book is edited by Lady Dorothy's son, Ralph Neville) refer appreciatively to Sir Henry Drummond Wolff's book just mentioned.

The publication, some months ago, of the *"Memoirs of the Comtesse de Boigne"* aroused considerable interest in this country as well as in France and England on account of the historical value of the memoirs as well as for their literary charm. The work is now complete in three volumes, covering the period from 1781 to 1830, and is edited from the original manuscript by Charles Nicoulaud (Scribners). The second volume covers the four years from 1815 to 1819, including the Comtesse's personal experiences during the return of Napoleon from Elba and her life in England, where her father was French Ambassador. The third volume gives a fine eyewitness description of the revolution of 1830, which made Louis Philippe king.

Another work of reminiscence and biography in a historical setting is *"A Princess of Intrigue"* (Putnams,—two volumes), by H. Noel Williams. It is an account of the plottings and vanities of Anne Genevieve de Bourbon, Duchess of Longueville. The Duchess, it will be remembered, was one of the three French women who, Cardinal Mazarin once declared, were quite capable of governing the country or of sending it to destruction.

An English rendering of Jules Le Maitre's biography and study of Rousseau (*"Jean Jacques Rousseau,"* McClure Publishing Company) disclaims the intention of being a critical biography. It is, says the author, a history of his sentiments. A reading of the English version (by Jeanne



SIR HENRY DRUMMOND WOLFF.

(Whose "Rambling Recollections", have just been published.)



DR. JOHN BROWN.

(Whose "Letters," edited by his son, have just appeared.)

Mairet) indicates that the French Academician has actually accomplished his intention of stating his ideas "simply and clearly, in a tone which is generally that of a somewhat careful conversation."

"The Letters of Dr. John Brown," edited by his son and Dr. D. W. Forrest (Macmillan), contain some interesting letters from Ruskin, Thackeray, and other literary Englishmen of the first half of the past century.

The English and American biographical volumes which go under the general title of *Who's Who* ("Who's Who," Black, London, Macmillan, New York; "Who's Who in America," A. N. Marquis & Co., Chicago) for the current year, have come to hand. The next issue of the American volume will be in 1910, so that the present issue is for two years. The English manual has a long and dignified history and its present issue maintains its high character. The issue for 1908 contains 2039 pages. "Who's Who in America," founded nine years ago, has a new editor,—Mr. Albert Nelson Marquis, of the Marquis Company which bring out the work. This latest volume,—of 2271 pages, with lists and indexes,—contains 16,395 names. A new feature is the geographical index, which groups according to State and city or town the names in the main body of the work.

#### A GREAT MUSIC SERIES.

The growth of the country in musical taste, if it were to be shown by one thing only, might best be demonstrated by an examination of the supply of songs and instrumental printed music found in familiar use on the piano in the home of the average family of education and culture. The progress of twenty or thirty years as thus indicated has been so great that it can leave no

doubt as to the future. Not only are the people of the United States developing an appreciation of music, but they are also learning a great deal about music from the historical, biographical, and literary standpoints. The number of Americans who really know something about the great composers and about the standard operas is now very considerable. Nothing else but such a state of growing musical taste and cultivation could justify a publishing scheme so extensive, and so perfect in its appeal to those who care for the best, as "The Musicians' Library," for which we are indebted to the Oliver Ditson Company (Boston). About forty volumes of this library have already been issued, each one of them complete in itself. They are of standard folio size, of high excellence in typography, printing, paper, and binding, and, more important than that, they are surprisingly satisfactory in their editing. Each volume consists of a series of masterpieces either of song or of piano music, grouped in such a way as to represent adequately a single composer, or else to conform to some other scheme of logical association. Each volume, furthermore, gives what is especially desirable in connection with the musical selections themselves, namely, a critical introduction of sufficient length to be a real contribution to musical literature, written in every case by some one thoroughly qualified. For example, the volume containing twenty piano compositions of Mozart is edited by Carl Reinecke, who is the foremost interpreter of Mozart's works. The volume containing forty songs of Brahms is edited by Mr. James Huneker, and there are several other volumes devoted respectively to the songs of Franz, Schumann, Schubert, and others. There are several volumes of selections



THE COUNTESS DE BOIGNE WHEN SHE WAS ONE OF THE MOST POWERFUL WOMEN IN EUROPE.

(The de Boigne, "Memoirs" in English translation have recently appeared.)

from the lyrical and dramatic works of Wagner. There are other volumes of piano compositions selected from the works of Chopin, Liszt, Bach, and earlier composers, such as Handel, Haydn, and Mendelssohn. There are other volumes specially selected, as, for example, "fifty master songs" selected from the world's best from Mozart to Macdowell, with a critical estimate of each song and nine portraits. It should be remarked that every volume contains at least one well executed portrait. There is a delightful volume of fifty Shakespeare songs, and two volumes containing an anthology of French songs. There is a volume of American songs, one of Scottish songs, and one of negro melodies transcribed for the piano. Enough has been said to indicate the scope of a beautiful and noble music



ALBERT NELSON MARQUIS.

(Editor and compiler of "Who's Who in America.")

library, which continues to appear in successive volumes and which is so desirable that every music lover must appreciate any separate book or any grouping.

#### BOOKS RELATING TO EDUCATION.

The School of Liberal Arts and Sciences for Non-Residents is an institution founded to meet the educational needs of those who through one cause or another are prevented from acquiring a liberal education by attending schools, colleges, or universities. The school has established its headquarters at 156 Fifth Avenue, New York City, and has published several text-books, the first of which to come to our notice is "Introductory Economics," by Prof. Alvin S. Johnson, of the University of Nebraska. This work distinctly differs from all other economic text-books with which we are acquainted. It deals with the more fundamental problems of the science and does not attempt an exhaustive treatment even of these, but it seems to have been



MRS. CARL SCHURZ.

(The first kindergartner in America. See "The Kindergarten in American Education.")

written with the main purpose of stimulating economic reasoning on the part of the pupil. Its language is simple and for the most part easily understood by the reader of only rudimentary education. At the same time, the mature student of the subject will find that the author has had continually in mind the work of the most progressive among the modern economists, even though the terminology of their treatises has been for the most part omitted. If the other books in this series succeed as well as this one in popularizing modern learning the School of Liberal Arts will have accomplished much for the education of a large number of Americans who are now deprived of such advantages.

"The Kindergarten in American Education," by Nina C. Vandewalker (Macmillan), makes a distinct contribution to American educational history in so far as it portrays the kindergarten movement in relation to American education as a whole. Up to this time there has been little published in this field beyond the recording of isolated facts of kindergarten history. Another distinct service is rendered by Miss Vandewalker in bringing to light the important foundation work done in this country by various German-Americans who more than fifty years ago brought with them from the fatherland the kindergarten as it had been developed up to that time. Credit is given to Mrs. Carl Schurz as the first kindergartner in the United States. Mrs. Schurz founded and maintained a kindergarten at Watertown, Wis., in 1855.

"School Reports and School Efficiency" is the title of a volume compiled for the New York Committee on the Physical Welfare of School Children by Dr. David S. Snedden and Dr. William H. Allen (Macmillan). The sub-





REV. NEWMAN SMYTH, D.D.

(Author of "Passing Protestantism and Coming Catholicism.")

ject has already been discussed by Dr. Allen in the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* for May, 1906. While this study of school conditions originated several years ago in New York City and resulted in showing that the Board of Education of that city was failing through the lack of proper business methods to make the most of funds committed to its charge, a great many of the conclusions to which the study leads are equally applicable to school conditions in other communities. Boards of education and school officers throughout the country will find in this report many suggestions that may be adopted with profit. The committee did not confine its investigations to New York City, but examined the reports of 100 cities with a view to indicating in what respects they actually aid in school economy and administration.

Perhaps the most advanced public library in the United States in the matter of directing children's reading is the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh, which has just brought out a new edition of its catalogue of books for the use of the first eight grades in the Pittsburgh schools. In the preparation of this catalogue the library staff has had the co-operation of the teachers in the public schools, and the work as it stands has the cordial approval of the Pittsburgh school principals and the city superintendent. Librarians and teachers in other cities will surely find this list of books helpful in their work.

#### DISCUSSIONS OF PRESENT-DAY RELIGION.

Dr. Newman Smyth's studies of the dominant religious tendencies of our day and generation, which has just come from the Scribners under the title "Passing Protestantism and Coming Catholicism," is a very suggestive and thought-provoking book. The author considers the "passing" of Protestantism, "Mediating Modernism," and the "coming" of Catholicism. A study of the history of the Protestant church convinces him that that institution has lost its religious authority, that, having long ago accomplished its great work of freeing the human mind, its end is already in sight. This same condition is equally true of Roman Catholicism, he holds. The reconciler of the two, Dr. Smyth believes, is to be Modernism, condemned of Pope and preacher and little understood by the world at large, of which, however, this author gives a very lucid and interesting account. A possible future union of Protestantism and Catholicism on a new basis into one united Christian church is the thought that dominates this book.

Dr. Washington Gladden's views as to the functions and mission of the Christian church have become fairly well known through previous publications. His new book, "The Church and Modern Life" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) co-ordinates and enforces those views. A new reformation, he holds, is needed in our time to bring society to Christ as a social savior, just as the reformation of the sixteenth century was required to bring the individual to Christ as a personal savior. He does not admit that the work of Protestantism is ended.

#### ESSAYS IN SOCIOLOGY.

"What will the world be like when its state is really a socialist one?" This question H. G. Wells sets himself to answer in his new book: "New Worlds for Old" (Macmillan). In this volume Mr. Wells temporarily forsakes his role of a writer of fantastic romances and sets forth his idea in his own clear style of what the future socialistic state is to be.

Mr. Alfred L. Hutchinson's treatise on "The Limit of Wealth" (Macmillan) is another attempt at forecasting the social millennium. Mr. Hutchinson would put nothing in the way of individual accumulation of riches, but would limit the amount that each man should have for purposes of purely personal enjoyment.

Dr. Hutton Webster, professor of sociology and anthropology in the University of Nebraska, has written a treatise on "Primitive Secret Societies" (Macmillan), in which he discusses the significance of the data collected in recent years by investigators in Australia, Melanesia, Africa, and North America. Much of this information regarding initiation ceremonies and other curious rites found among savage and barbarous communities will be entirely new to those readers who have never had access to detailed accounts of these recent discoveries.



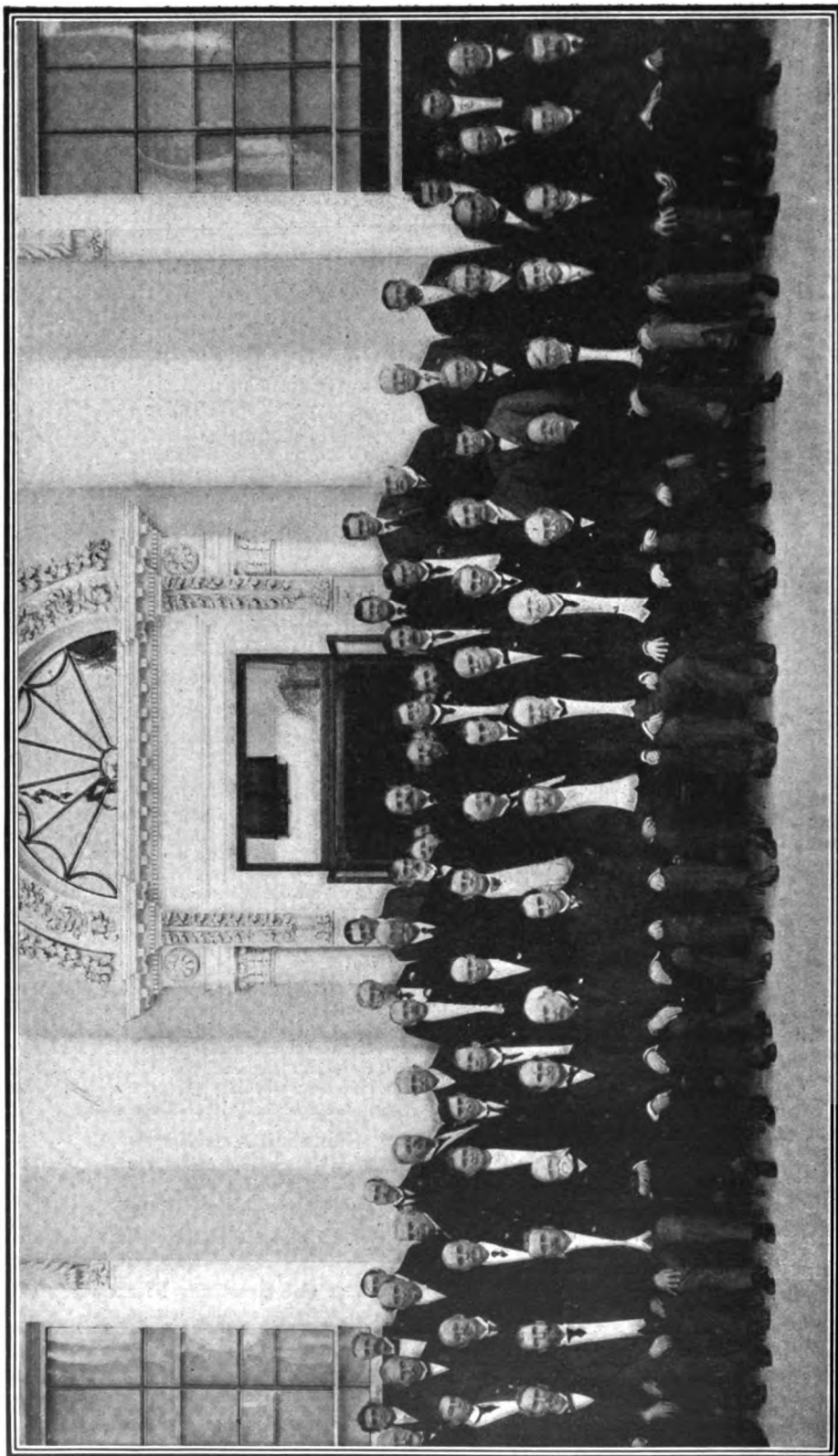
# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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# A LARGE GROUP OF THOSE ATTENDING THE WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCE LAST MONTH.

(Seated, from left to right, are Gov. Harris, Ohio; Gov. Hughes, N. Y.; Gov. Davidson, Wis.; Andrew Carnegie, William J. Bryan, James J. Hill, John Mitchell, President Roosevelt, Vice-President Fairbanks, Justice Harlan, Justice Brewer, Justice White, Justice McKenna, Justice Holmes, Justice Day, Justice Moody, and Secretary Cortelyou. Nearly all of those standing are Governors of States.)



# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

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NEW YORK, JUNE, 1908.

No. 6

## THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*A Season  
of  
Harmony.*

We have not often in our history reached the convention season in a Presidential year without finding the atmosphere charged with the spirit of partisan or factional strife. This year there is remarkably little controversy of a deep-seated nature. The parties are not in sharp array against one another, sectional feeling has almost disappeared, and the factional troubles within the great parties are far less serious than they have often been in the past. The most striking characteristic of the great gathering at the White House last month was the genuine spirit of harmony and good feeling that prevailed from the beginning to the end. When it is remembered that this assemblage of governors and other representative men was held in the closing days of the long session of a term of Congress immediately preceding the national party conventions, its unity has additional significance and serves to illustrate the very unusual state of mind that prevails throughout the country.

*The  
White House  
Conference.*

The object of the conference was to promote policies and movements for the conservation of the natural resources of the country. President Roosevelt had invited all the governors of the States and Territories, each of whom was authorized to select three men from his State as additional members of the conference. The President also directly invited a number of other men, for reasons of personal distinction and fitness or as representing organizations interested in the subject matter of the conference. Nearly all of the governors were present on this historic occasion, which began on May 13 and lasted three days. The President was never more impressive than in his opening address, and his unflinching tact and good

management contributed much toward the great success of the meeting. It was the general feeling that the people of the States had been wise and sensible in choosing for their governors men of sense, ability, and public spirit.

*The Men and  
the  
Topics.*

Mr. Andrew Carnegie and Mr. James J. Hill made influential addresses, one upon ore and coal as national resources, and the other upon the need of preserving the fertility of the soil. Mr. William J. Bryan was active and helpful throughout the conference and made a closing address commending thoroughly the policies of forest preservation, waterway improvement, irrigation, and agricultural development with which Mr. Roosevelt's administration has been so notably identified and which henceforth will be fostered as national movements by progressive leaders of all parties. Distinguished practical and scientific experts discussed forest resources, supplies of ores, coal, and natural gas, protection and improvement of rivers for better navigation, for development of water-power, and for prevention of damage through overflow and through the erosion of soils. Irrigation, swamp drainage, and other problems having to do with the full utilization of our landed domain were suitably discussed. The President declared that this great conference could not and would not have been held but for Mr. Gifford Pinchot, the invaluable expert and administrator whom we are so fortunate as to have in charge of our national forest reservations. Among the practical results of the conference may be noted the firm establishment in the country's appreciation and support of Mr. Pinchot's splendid work. The many-sided undertakings of the Department of Agriculture were strongly endorsed by the conference, and

Secretary Wilson, who has now served nearly twelve years in the cabinet, might well have felt that the magnificent work carried on under the various bureaus which pertain to his department was obtaining the nation's recognition as standing in the first rank of the Government's important projects. Furthermore, all those identified with the movement for a large and comprehensive improvement of the navigable waterways of the country had reason to feel that this conference was the most valuable of any that has ever been held in its relation to their movement.

*A Group of Able Governors.* The character and ability of the men who were serving their States as governors were remarked upon by all who attended the conference, and furnished a fresh argument for the election of United States Senators by direct vote of the people. The Southern govern-

nors,—notably Blanchard, of Louisiana; Folk, of Missouri; Glenn, of North Carolina, and Willson, of Kentucky,—were especially active and valuable members of the conference; and they are men who would count for much in any political or deliberative body. Johnson, of Minnesota, the Democratic Governor of a Republican State, and the Western and Northwestern governors in general, appeared in the conference as men of ready resources and marked qualities of leadership. While national policies and measures for the protection of the United States against the undue waste of its natural resources are imperatively needed, there is also room in every State for a supplementary activity as respects matters of public interest that have a local rather than a national or interstate character. Thus, while fully endorsing the policy of national forest reserves, the governors of a number of the States announced their purpose to appoint State forestry commissions at the earliest possible moment, following the example of New York and several other States.



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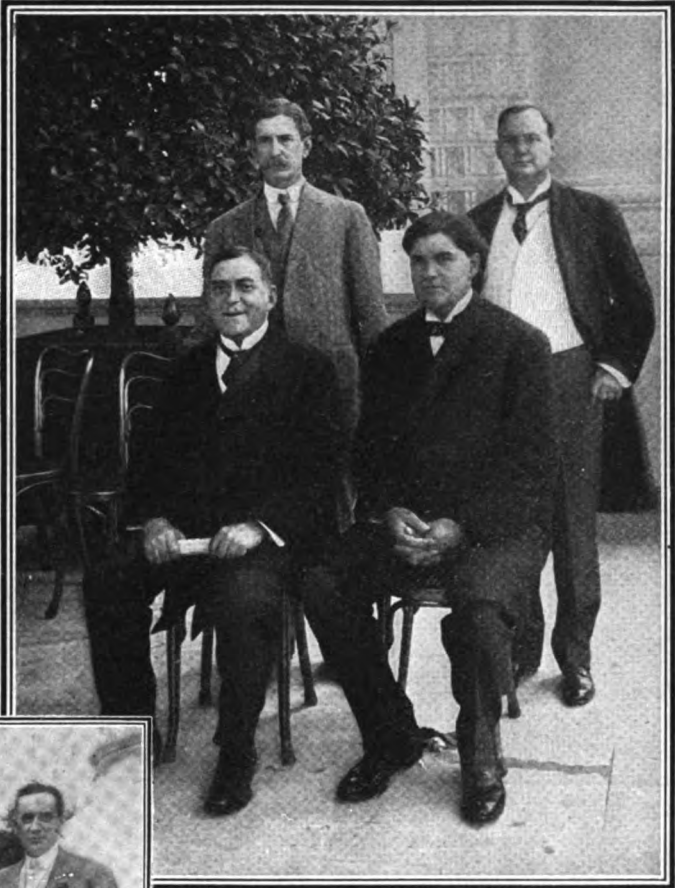
HON. GIFFORD PINCHOT.

(Chief of the Forest Service and member of the Inland Waterways Commission.)

*Practical Rather Than Academic.* The conference dealt very happily with all attempts to raise the issue as between the rights and powers of the nation and the individual States. It was a practical conference, dealing with actual subjects, and it did not allow itself to be confused by attempts to bring forward merely academic distinctions. The President wished to have things done, and was ready to welcome State activity in so far as it could proceed effectively. The Southern governors, meanwhile, who might have been supposed to cling to the States' rights theory, were nationalists in the fullest sense when it came to policies for the improvement of waterways and the preservation of the forests that are necessary to secure the navigation of the streams.

*Urging the Eastern Reserves.* It had been hoped that the influence of the conference might help to secure the passage of the bill pending in Congress for the creation of the Appalachian and White Mountain forest reserves.

If this bill could have come squarely before Congress upon its merits it would have been passed beyond a question. But the opposition of the controlling spirits in Congress has thus far been found too great to overcome. A compromise, however, has been secured in the form of a commission of Senators and Representatives who are to inquire into the relationship of these proposed reserves to the maintenance of waterways, and are to report not later than the 1st of next January. The latest form of obstruction takes refuge behind the Constitution. If, however, it can be shown that the proposed forest reserves are essentially



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Gov. Swanson, of Va. Gov. Folk, of Mo.  
Gov. Willson, of Ky. Gov. Sheldon, of Neb.

A GROUP OF GOVERNORS AT THE CONFERENCE.



Photograph by Harris & Ewing, Washington.

Gov. Noel, of Miss. Gov. Deneen, of Ill. Gov. Johnson, of Minn.

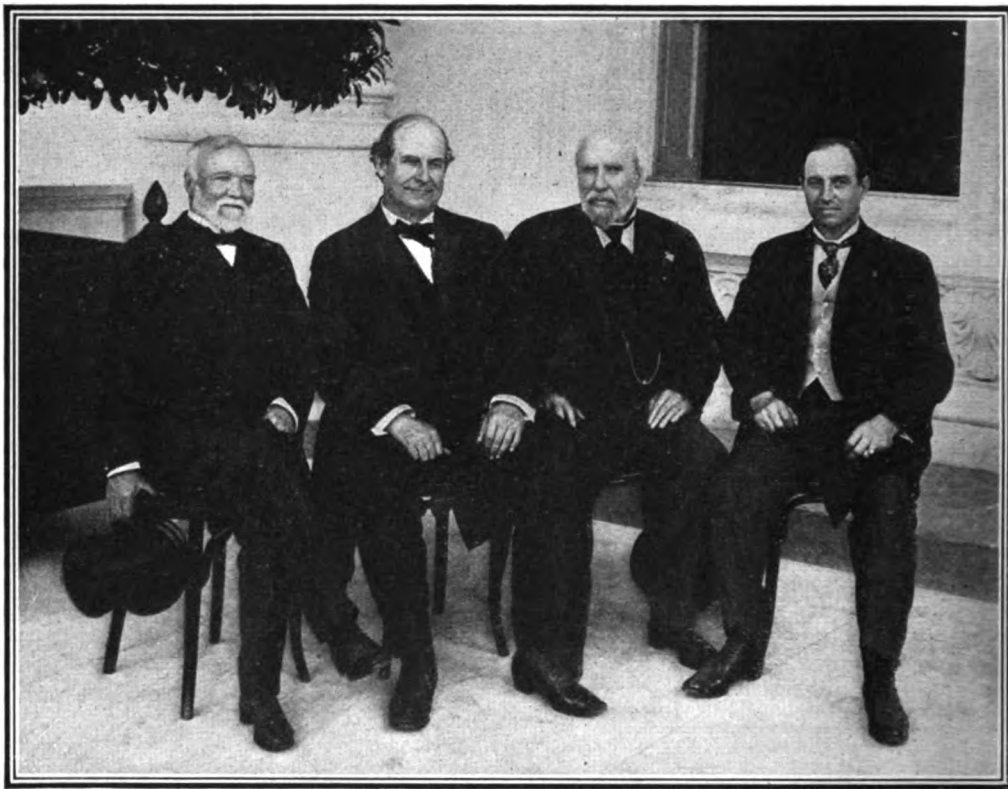
A GROUP OF THREE GOVERNORS AT THE CONFERENCE.

(General Secretary Shipp standing in rear.)

related to the maintenance of navigable waterways, the constitutional lawyers may relax their scruples. Meanwhile every year of delay means irreparable injury to these mountain districts, whose forests ought to have been nationalized and preserved a good many years ago. There is now good ground for hoping that the bill may become a law at the next session of Congress.

It is one thing to preserve the resources that are still within the control of the Government as a part of the unsold public lands, and it is of course quite a different thing to deal with natural resources that have passed from the ownership of the State to that of private individuals or commercial corporations. With a little more wisdom and discrimination in the making of our land laws at an

*How  
to Proceed.*



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Andrew Carnegie.

William J. Bryan.

James J. Hill.

John Mitchell.

FOUR DISTINGUISHED GUESTS AT THE PRESIDENT'S CONFERENCE LAST MONTH.

earlier period we should have retained vast areas of forest now alienated, and immense supplies of coal and of iron ore. As matters stand, however, it has been possible during the last ten years to set apart large forest reserves from the still unsold public lands of the Far West, and something can yet be done on the public domain for the conservation of other forms of natural wealth. Meanwhile there are two ways by which Government can proceed where natural resources have already passed over into private hands. In the case of forest areas, the resumption of public control may be secured by purchase, as in the case of the Adirondack forest reserve in the State of New York, or as is proposed on the part of the national Government in the case of the Appalachian and White Mountain reservations. In a number of the States it will doubtless be found feasible for the commonwealth itself to acquire mountain areas and re-establish the forests that have been so largely cleared away. There is a marked tendency to follow New York and Pennsylvania in this method.

*Limiting  
the Private  
Owner.*

The other method of proceeding is that of an exercise of the right to limit the use of private property where the public interest is involved. In his address at the opening of the conference President Roosevelt called attention to an opinion emanating a few weeks ago from the Supreme Court of the State of Maine upholding the right of the Legislature to restrict the cutting of trees upon private property without rendering compensation, where the motive lies in the preservation of the rivers and the maintenance of general conditions which would be imperiled by the rapid cutting away of the forests. A similar decision by the courts of New Jersey has been upheld by the Supreme Court of the United States in an opinion delivered two months ago by Justice Holmes and quoted at some length by President Roosevelt in his address. This decision is so far-reaching and important that we may well reprint here that part of it quoted by the President. It is as follows:

The State as quasi-sovereign and represent-

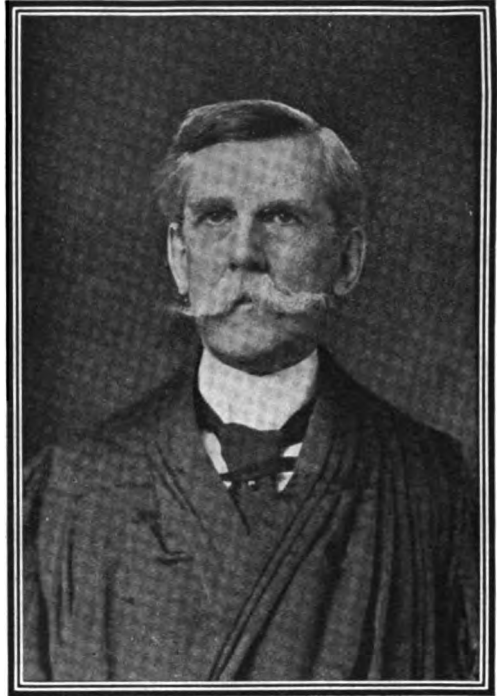
active of the interests of the public has a standing in court to protect the atmosphere, the water, and the forests within its territory, irrespective of the assent or dissent of the private owners of the land most immediately concerned. . . . It appears to us that few public interests are more obvious, indisputable, and independent of particular theory than the interest of the public of a State to maintain the rivers that are wholly within it substantially undiminished, except by such drafts upon them as the guardian of the public welfare may permit for the purpose of turning them to a more perfect use. This public interest is omnipresent wherever there is a State, and grows more pressing as population grows. . . . We are of opinion, further, that the constitutional power of the State to insist that its natural advantages shall remain unimpaired by its citizens is not dependent upon any



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GOVERNOR GLENN, OF NORTH CAROLINA.

(Who made a thrilling speech at the conference on broad national lines.)

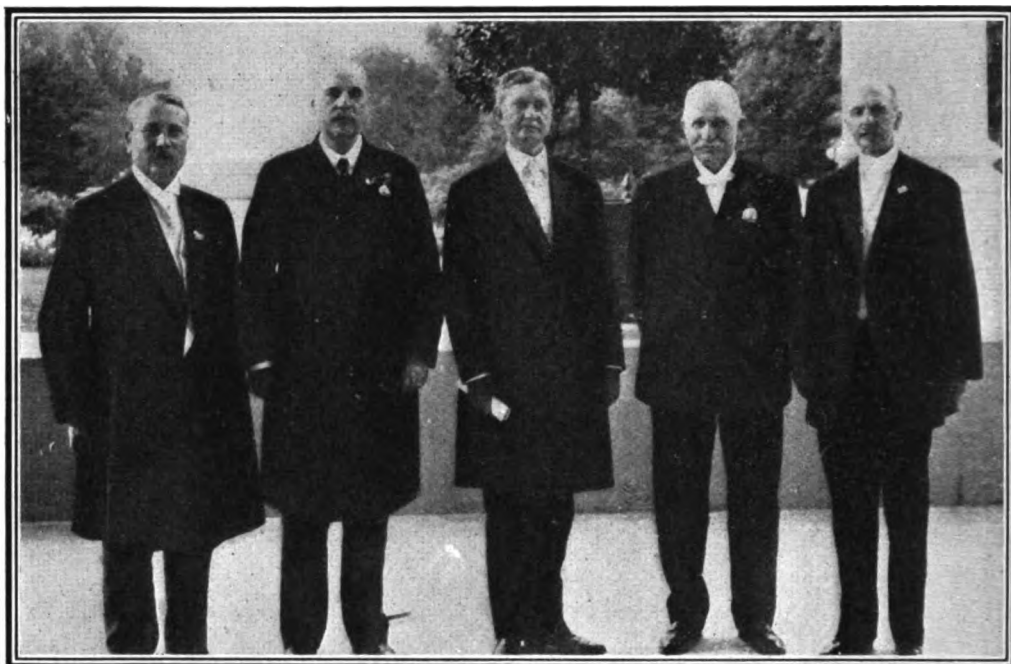


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JUSTICE OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES, OF THE UNITED STATES SUPREME COURT.

nice estimate of the extent of present use or speculation as to future needs. The legal conception of the necessary is likely to be confined to somewhat rudimentary wants, and there are benefits from a great river that might escape a lawyer's view. But the State is not required to submit even to an esthetic analysis. Any analysis may be inadequate. It finds itself in possession of what all admit to be a great public good, and what it has it may keep and give no one a reason for its will.

*Far-Reaching Results of This Principle.* In the case of Maine the courts were dealing with the preservation of forests. In the New Jersey case, sustained by the United States Supreme Court, the matter at issue was the direct diversion of the water of a river by a private company for use in another State. A very interesting instance of the application of State authority to the preservation of an important natural resource is to be found in the Indiana law which prohibits the waste of natural gas. If Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Indiana had at a sufficiently early day appreciated the need and value of such public action, the results would have been important almost beyond comprehension. Natural gas is in many respects the most valuable of all forms of fuel. Yet in the States where it



Photograph by Frederic B. Hyde, Washington.

From left to right: Gov. James O. Davidson, Wisconsin; Gov. John F. Fort, New Jersey; Gov. Newton C. Blanchard, Louisiana, chairman; Gov. Martin F. Ansel, South Carolina; Gov. John C. Cutler, Utah.

#### THE COMMITTEE OF GOVERNORS WHO DRAFTED THE RESOLUTIONS.

has been found and utilized probably three times as much as has been allowed to go to waste as has been used. In connection with the obtaining of crude petroleum from the earth, there is constantly going on a needless waste of natural gas. Every State which possesses this valuable form of fuel should at once pass strict laws to prevent its further waste. The recent decisions of the courts in support of the idea that the community is greater than the individual, and that private property is merely a grant from the State, limited by the larger considerations of public welfare, can now be advantageously invoked in a number of ways for the welfare not only of men now living, but also and especially for the maintenance for future generations of the country's prosperity. When the full proceedings of the conference appear in a compact volume, means should be found for a widespread distribution of the book.

•  
*The  
Unanimous  
Verdict.*

A committee on resolutions, headed by Governor Blanchard, of Louisiana, made a report that was in hearty endorsement of all the policies that the President had advocated in his open-

ing address, and that had been so well supported in the various papers and speeches of the sessions. The report of this committee, which was unanimously adopted, favored the idea of future conferences of the same nature, for the further advancement of the same objects. There was also recommended the appointment by each State of a commission on the conservation of natural resources, to co-operate with each other and with the federal authorities. Undoubtedly this conference will have had the effect of promoting the great movement already begun for the comprehensive development of waterways. Congress has provided for the perpetuation of the Inland Waterways Commission, which in its preliminary reports has shown so broad a grasp of the large problems that are associated with the waterways question. It is not improbable that the advocates of waterway improvement, among whom are now numbered the great railroad presidents, with Mr. Hill in their lead, will have secured the success of their demand for a \$500,000,000 appropriation at the rate of \$50,000,000 a year for ten years. Such expenditures would be fully justified by the facts in the case.

*Forests  
and  
Print Paper.*

At the time of the conference a committee of the House was occupied with hearings upon the bill promoted by the newspaper men of the country abolishing the tariff on wood pulp, which is the material from which ordinary printing paper is made. The leading newspapers of the country were able to show that the price of paper had been sharply advanced, and they undertook to convince Congress that this advance was due in considerable part to the monopolizing of paper production. They held, further, that the monopolistic conditions in the paper trade were made possible by the tariff. The manufacture of wood pulp is a considerable factor in the sweeping away of our forest areas, and the pulp situation is so closely controlled that the paper trade is on a changed basis and the average newspaper publisher is seriously affected. The Canadian forests suitable for paper-making are so vast that there is no danger of their rapid exhaustion even if the most wasteful methods were permitted, while with suitable regulations, such as Canada would undoubtedly make and enforce, the supply may be regarded as inexhaustible. We need in this country an ample supply of paper at a reasonable price, and we also need a restoration of forest growth for the protection of our rivers and our soils. The sooner the tariff on wood pulp is abolished, the better from various standpoints. There was never any doubt as to how Congress would vote if the matter could be brought squarely to the test. But so much time was exhausted by the committee in protracted hearings that it was uncertain when these pages closed for the press whether or not the question could come to a vote before adjournment.

*The  
Tariff  
Question.*

It was much to the credit of the gentlemen who made up the White House conference that none of them tried to make political capital by discussing the tariff as a main issue. It is obviously true that as respects some of our resources the tariff is involved. But the main questions of the conference could be dealt with fairly and fully without much need of raising that question. Undoubtedly free pulp and also free lumber will have to come in the near future when the revision of the tariff is a dominant issue. The party in power would have put itself in better condition for the campaign if it had heartily supported the idea that the preliminary work

of tariff revision ought not to be delayed, but ought to be entered upon with the end of the present session. It was evident months ago that a tariff commission in the more ambitious sense could not be secured at the hands of the present Congress. It was hoped, however, that Congress might be willing to authorize the President to appoint tariff experts already in the employ of the Government departments as a special commission and set them at work to formulate facts as to cost of production at home and abroad, and other pertinent information, in order that the now greatly needed work of tariff revision might be taken up and pushed to a rapid completion in the near future. Toward the end of the session Congress seemed a little more inclined to do something of this sort, although it was evident that the Ways and Means Committee of the House did not intend to allow the President to appear to the country to have any part in guiding the preliminary inquiries. The Senate alone voted to employ experts, under direction of the Finance Committee.

*Relative  
Costs.*

With the crying need for waterway improvements, it is not strange that there should be murmuring in many quarters on account of the stupendous sums expended for the army and navy and pensions. The greater part of our national income goes for these objects. We could create a comprehensive system of waterway improvements for what the army or the navy together cost in each Congressional period of two years. These expenditures are certainly very regrettable, but it does not follow that they are unnecessary or unwise. There would be little use to provide costly harbors unless we were prepared to defend them in case of attack. Since it is conceded we must have some sort of navy, it should also be understood that true economy in the long run lies in having the navy so unmistakably efficient that it may be relied upon not merely to win victories in case of war, but to prevent the recourse to armed measures. We are constantly doing everything in our power to promote peace and good-will among the nations, and are doing our full share toward accustoming the world to arbitration and to the idea of international tribunals. The time will come when we shall not need to spend so much of our revenues relatively for military purposes. At present the efficient navy is to be regarded as our accepted policy.



*The  
Battleships to  
Be Granted.*

The President's battleship message, which at first seemed to be without effect upon Congress, was potent in the end. The President had, for reasons which he stated with great cogency, asked Congress to authorize four new battleships. The House Committee had decided to order one new battleship, with no appropriation to start the work. As a result of the President's message the House bill provided for two ships, with an appropriation of \$7,000,000. In the Senate a vigorous and spirited contest was made against Senator Hale's committee by supporters of the President's policy, including a number of the younger Republican Senators. Senator Hale has been so accustomed to the idea that what he says in the Senate is final on naval matters that Senator Beveridge, who led the fight against the committee's bill, was subjected to irrelevant personal attacks. The result, however, was a substantial victory for the President and the Senators who supported him. Senator Allison saved the face of the discomfited Hale by assuring the Senate that if the two ships could stand in the present bill, two more would be authorized seven months later in the short session of the present Congress, and meanwhile money enough would be appropriated so that there would be no delay in preparing the plans, letting the contracts, and starting the work.

*Work for  
Our  
Navy.*

With this understanding, the bill was passed and the President was very well satisfied, because Mr. Allison's announcement, which was further to the effect that Congress would regularly authorize two battleships at each session, until the navy was as large as the situation required, went even farther than the President had asked. What was wanted now was a definite notice to the world that the American navy would be maintained at a point of high efficiency upon as large a scale as could be desired to protect all the interests for which our Government is responsible. At the present rate it will not be many years before the military and naval powers of the world will be glad to take up the question of reduced armaments, inasmuch as the burden of expense is becoming intolerable. Until that time the American navy will have two missions to perform: First, that of defending and protecting our own country, and, second, that of helping our Government to use its influence in the most

effective way for maintaining the world's peace through a transitional period. When better methods have been evolved for keeping the peace of nations, Uncle Sam, like all the rest, will be glad enough to cut down the naval budget to the smallest possible limits.

*Congress  
and its  
Critics.*

The number of bills presented to Congress for consideration during the past session reaches tens of thousands. A great many useful and meritorious things have been accomplished. Many Congressmen, working conscientiously in their respective committees, and securing particular results for which they have been laboring, are sensitive about the criticisms to which Congress has lately been subjected. Next month we shall undertake to present a fair and reasonable analysis of what has been attempted and what has been accomplished in the long session of the Sixtieth Congress. At the moment of adjournment such an estimate cannot be prepared with sufficient accuracy or perspective. The main criticism is directed against the seeming inability of Congress to shape a major program and deal with it effectively. All of the many meritorious things that have been done could have been accomplished in any case, while the failure of Congress to meet the expectations of the President and the country as to leading topics seems to be due to a very bad system.

*A Bad System  
in  
Bad Hands.*

It is to be remembered that a bad system can yield good results if worked by the right kind of men. But the critics now insist that the bad system in Congress has lately been in the hands of the wrong kind of men. The country desires to see the revision of the tariff undertaken promptly and in good faith. Public opinion is not rabid about the tariff, does not wish business disturbed by an overstrained political tariff controversy, and does not expect to see the principle of protection repudiated. It would be willing to accept a Republican revision of the tariff provided it were done in accordance with the needs of the business community. But the President is a good enough Republican for the people of the country; and public opinion goes at least as far as he has yet gone in its demands for tariff revision. He is the accepted leader of the Republican party. The ruling clique in the House of Representatives has a firm hand upon the deliberations

of that body, but its members do not represent American public opinion. The manufacturers have demanded a tariff commission to be set at work at once to prepare the facts. President Roosevelt has repeatedly in messages to Congress advised the appointment of some form of tariff commission. The country has wished it; the Senate under Mr. Aldrich's leadership would have reluctantly granted it; but Mr. Cannon, Mr. Payne, and Mr. Dalzell, ruling the House of Representatives, were unwilling to let the country have it. The autocratic system under which the House is ruled has gone too far and has become vicious.

*Leadership  
Should Be  
United.* But the system would be tolerable if it were directed by men of progressive minds, representing the spirit and aspiration of the Republican party. The real leadership of the Republican party has been in the Administration and not in the House of Representatives. Mr. Roosevelt, representing the country at large; Mr. Root, representing New York and the great Middle States; Mr. Taft, representing Ohio and the great Central West; Mr. Meyer representing New England,—in short, the entire cabinet group, including those associating with it,—command the confidence of the Republican masses as respects public questions and policies. The ruling cliques in the two houses of Congress do not now represent the Republican masses, even to a moderate extent. The only thing that can possibly drag the Republican party through the coming campaign with any hope whatever of victory is the enthusiasm for a progressive Administration, in contrast with the reactionary management of the party in the two houses of Congress. If the ruling clique in the House and the corresponding clique in the Senate had been dealing during the past four years with a President who agreed with them in their preferences and points of view, the Republican party would step out into the arena with the certainty of the worst defeat in all its history.

*What  
Can Save  
the Party?* Bryan, or Johnson, or Folk, or Gray, or Harmon, any one of them, could win the election with ease this year but for the fact that the Roosevelt Administration has accomplished much in spite of the opposition it has encountered at the hands of the men who assume to control the actions of both houses of Congress. As matters stand with respect



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SENATOR BEVERIDGE, OF INDIANA.

(From a snapshot taken last month on the White House steps.)

to the tariff, the attempt to start some sort of work in good faith has been a flat failure. The House authorities would not allow anything to be done, and the Senate authorities

would not allow the President to have anything to do with the appointment of experts or members of a commission. The situation is one that commends itself to Democratic leaders. If they cannot make valuable capital out of it, they are not equal to their easy opportunities. Yet this situation does no real justice to the Republican majorities in the two houses. They have been the victims of the bad system. If they could have shaken off the paralyzing and terrorizing influences of the system under which they are dominated, they would gladly have co-operated with the wise, brainy, and progressive Republican leaders of the Administration, and would have done some good work with which to go before the country.

*What  
Might  
Have Been.*

They would have authorized the President to appoint an able tariff commission, to get to work at once. They would have agreed upon some clear and simple improvements in the currency system for immediate purposes, and would have instructed the President to co-operate with the two houses in the appointment of a currency commission to report a good and thoroughgoing bill for consideration at the beginning of the next session. They would have passed the Appalachian and White Mountain Forest Reserve bill with a rush. As the thing stands, the Senate finally passed that bill, but the ruling authority of the House took it upon itself to prevent its becoming a law. Modifications of the Sherman Anti-Trust law are vastly to be desired, and the registration and supervision of great corporations by the Government at Washington has become a crying need. Public opinion in this country is ready for such steps in those directions as the President urged upon Congress and as were to some extent embodied in the Hepburn bill advocated by the Civic Federation. If the leadership of Congress had been willing to co-operate sincerely with the real brains and leadership of the Republican party, something could have been done along those lines.

*Fighting  
for  
Concessions.*

Almost everything achieved in Congress of a kind that appeals to the country, and that will help to save the day for the Republican party in the election, has been wrung from the unwilling bosses of the two houses through the insistence of public opinion guided by the President, and through the insistence of re-

bellious groups of Representatives and Senators who have forced concessions from the dictators. Mr. Townsend, of Michigan, for example, has made himself a well-deserved reputation for courage in fighting for several House measures that deserved consideration. A number of vigorous and virile Senators have risen against the cynical and absurd domination of Hale, of Maine, in matters relating to the navy. Both houses are ruled by groups of men who have served for long continuous periods. When such men, intrenched in power as they are, hate all progressive views, and are not in sympathy with the interests of the people, they can do an amount of harm that is almost incalculable. The present Congress and its predecessor, so far as the Republican majorities are concerned, were elected by voters who gave clear instructions to their Representatives to support the policies of the President. Yet the ruling cliques in both houses have not worked in harmony with the President, and their failure to support the Administration has not been creditable.

*Taft  
and the  
Prospect.*

It now appears to be as nearly certain as future events often are that Secretary Taft will be nominated for the Presidency by the Republican convention that meets in Chicago on Tuesday, June 16. We publish elsewhere an article by Mr. Wellman setting forth Mr. Taft's superb training and qualification for the Presidency. In these editorial columns on many occasions during the past ten years we have found good reason to commend Mr. Taft's public work. The Republican party will do itself credit and honor in making him its standard bearer. The mass of the party believes heartily in the Roosevelt Administration's spirit and tone, as well as in its particular policies; and it regards Mr. Taft not only as identified in every sense with the work of the Administration, but also fitted to administer the Government during the next four years, or eight years, on the same high plane of intelligence, courage, and public spirit. The country will not fail to note the fact that the elements within the party that have obstructed the work of the Roosevelt Administration have also opposed the nomination of Mr. Taft up to the point where their failure seemed to be inevitable. Naturally they will accept the situation, or, as the politicians say, they will clamber into the "band-wagon."

*A  
Dangerous  
Harmony.*

But it must not be forgotten that a campaign managed and dominated by the interests that opposed his nomination and that have tried to block and thwart the work of President Roosevelt will not help very much to get Mr. Taft elected. There are veteran old hangers-on of the National Republican Committee whose very names ought to be a stench in the nostrils of the Republican party, and whose little victories of manipulation in organizing conventions and in work of that sort are always seriously at the expense of the party's real welfare. Mr. Taft is famous for his good nature, and he naturally likes harmony. But he will fall into a perilous trap if he does anything that permits it to be generally believed that his opponents have successfully employed the old tactics of "stooping to conquer." The country loves President Roosevelt for the enemies he has made; and if Mr. Taft should be too complacent toward certain interests for the sake of harmony he would lose at one end of the line a great deal more than he could gain at the other.

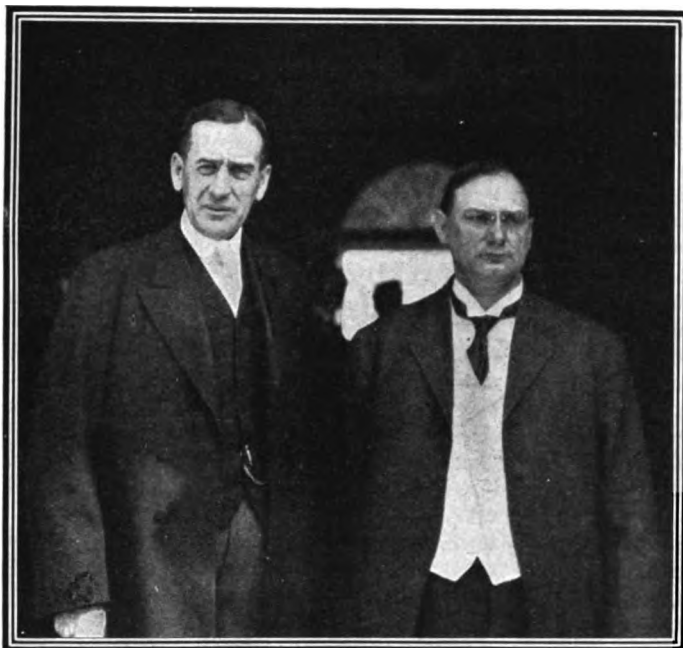
*Who Will Run  
the  
Convention?*

For success in the campaign it is highly important that the convention at Chicago should be a spontaneous, self-directing body. That it will want Mr. Taft for its Presidential nominee is altogether probable. It seems wholly unlikely that any coalition of interests or of reactionary politicians could prevent the convention from naming the candidate it really desires to choose. But the convention should also insist upon organizing itself effectively for every part of its work. It makes a great difference who is temporary chairman, for the reason that the man named for that office is expected to make the speech that sums up the work and position of the Republican party, and that, to use a hackneyed phrase, "strikes the keynote" for the campaign. It would be ridiculous for a convention that stands heart and soul by the Administration of President Roosevelt, and that proposes to nominate an eminent member of the Roosevelt Administration, to select for its chief oratorical exponent a man who could by any chance fail to represent in the highest sense the best for which the party stands and the things which it must rely upon for success. Four years ago the Hon. Elihu Root was chosen for this position, and he was the best man in the party for the task of stating and interpreting the issues. The situation this

year is not one to be trifled with. If the National Committee has a slate and a program that the convention can regard as rising to the serious heights of the best that is possible, doubtless the convention will thank the committee for its intelligent and patriotic work and accept its proposals. But unless we are greatly mistaken, this year's convention will not permit its business to be done for it in advance by an old-fashioned kind of whispering manipulation on the part of a steering sub-committee of the National Committee. A cut-and-dried convention would not impress the country well, and would augur badly for success in the campaign. The convention should find its own presiding officers, should be careful about its committee on credentials, and, above all things, should take a keen interest in the making of its platform. There is a great deal for a national convention to do besides nominating candidates for the Presidency and the Vice-Presidency. The National Committee, on account of the way in which it is constituted, falls far short of being a representative body. Conventions in the past have been led into serious mistakes through allowing themselves to be manipulated by shrewd intriguers from relatively unimportant States, who make it their business to play the game of party control behind closed doors, but who have neither the ability nor the character to go out and fight the battles of the party in the open.

*Bryan's  
Good  
Chances.*

With the very general acceptance of the view that Mr. Taft would receive the Republican nomination, the popular interest in the work of the Democratic convention at Denver increased steadily through the month of May. The candidacy of Governor Johnson, of Minnesota, attracted wide attention, and the friends of Mr. Bryan redoubled their efforts. The most typical contest as between these two candidates occurred in Alabama, where the Democratic voters had it out in a primary election for delegates to the Denver convention. The Johnson men had made a special effort in Alabama and were confident that they would win. The Bryan people, however, were decisively victorious. In Pennsylvania, as in New York, uninstructed delegates were chosen, and it is not certain what these States may do at Denver. The strong probabilities are, however, that Mr. Bryan will be nominated. Governor Johnson was kept under close and curious ob-



Photograph by Frederic B. Hyde, Washington.

GOVERNOR JOHNSON, OF MINNESOTA, AND GOVERNOR FOLK, OF MISSOURI, AS SEEN TOGETHER IN WASHINGTON LAST MONTH.

servation while in Washington attending the White House conference, and he seems to have made a highly favorable impression. That conference, however, was on so high a plane of public spirit that it brought the best out of all the distinguished men who attended it. Shrewd Republican observers were of opinion that Mr. Bryan had recently made great advances in his hold upon the voting masses of the country. Mr. John Mitchell, who was especially honored by President Roosevelt as one of his chief guests at the conference, was also under constant observation because of his reputed choice by Mr. Bryan as his "running mate" on the Presidential ticket. As the man who has organized and led the coal-miners of the country for years past, Mr. Mitchell,—now retired from the presidency of the great union that he so successfully served,—is esteemed for his good sense and high character by men of all parties and all ranks.

*Probably a Good-Tempered Campaign.* Hon. Judson Harmon, of Cincinnati, who was a candidate for the Denver nomination, has now accepted his party's candidacy for the governorship of Ohio. The situation in that State is rather bewildering, because the Bryan men, led by the Hon. Tom Johnson,

Mayor of Cleveland, failed to name their candidate for Governor, while they seem to have dictated the platform and are in strength for purposes of the Presidential campaign. Mr. Bryan has many genuine friends and supporters within the ranks of Tammany Hall, and it seems probable that they will compel Mr. Murphy, who now serves as Democratic dictator for the State as well as the city, to fall into line with the great Bryan wave. As the politicians of both parties now view the situation in private, whatever they may say in public, it will be Bryan at Denver if it is Taft at Chicago. Governor Comer, of Mississippi, in referring to this prospect last month, and in admitting that the Southern

Democrats are for Bryan as a rule, declared that the South feels that whichever way the election might go the country would have a good President. Undoubtedly the entire country, regardless of party, holds Secretary Taft in high estimation. On the other hand, in spite of the bitterness of former campaigns, there is a prevailing feeling of kindness toward Mr. Bryan as a personality.

*An Abandoned Issue.* Seldom in the history of the country has a single man in Congress made so hard and persistent a fight as that which Senator Foraker has conducted in his attempt to make it appear that the Administration had done something wrong in its disbanding of the negro battalion after the disorder at Brownsville, Texas. The whole negro race of the country has been wrought up to a high pitch of excitement against an Administration which has been eminently fair and friendly toward people of all races. Last month Mr. Foraker virtually abandoned his fight by giving up the attempt to bring the question to a vote, and allowing it to be shelved for consideration in some future session of Congress. He had made a personal contest showing immense ability and force. The negro leaders may find it hard to recover their bearings.

*The  
New York  
Situation.*

Another month passed in New York State with practically no change in the legislative situation which we outlined in our May number. Ignoring the recommendations of Governor Hughes on race-track gambling, direct nominations, and several other matters of legislation that he deemed vitally important, the Legislature adjourned on April 23, only to be recalled in extra session by the Governor on May 11. The special election for State Senator held in the Niagara-Orleans district on May 12 resulted in the choice of the Republican candidate, William C. Wallace, pledged to support Governor Hughes on the race-track issue. This outcome was directly due to the speech-making campaign made by Governor Hughes in the district,—an achievement unparalleled in the annals of New York politics and marking an epoch in the working of our free institutions. Although the plurality was a small one, the victory was notable in that it was won against great odds in a district always regarded as "close," and this year conceded by the professional politicians of all parties to be "safely" Democratic. The serious and protracted illness of one of the Senators who had voted for the race-track bills in the regular session still kept the Senate a tie on the question, provided that no change of vote should be made by individual Senators. Therefore no attempt was made, early in the session, to pass the bills. The Governor's recommendations to the Legislature at the opening of the extra session laid special stress on the direct-nominations and primary measures, the bills to amend the Public Service Commission law by including telegraph and telephone companies in its scope, and the amendment of the labor law so as to provide for the inspection of mercantile establishments. The issue of greatest importance to the people of the Empire State at the present time is unquestionably that of direct nominations, since, in the language of the Governor, "party nominations should accurately reflect the will of the enrolled voters, and provision should be made for the expression of this will as directly as possible." In other words, the Governor would get rid of the boss.

*Hughes  
as a  
Political Factor.*

One of the political items of last month was to be found in a statement by Governor Hughes to Gen. Stewart L. Woodford, in answer to a direct inquiry, that he would not under any circumstances accept a nomination for

the Vice-Presidency and that he could not serve even if elected. There had been much talk of Mr. Hughes as Secretary Taft's "running mate," but the Governor's statement is accepted as conclusive. It seems, however, not to be at all settled whether Governor Hughes will run for another term in his present office or whether the Republican party will have to find some other candidate. Much depends upon the results of the work of the special session, the convening of which required Governor Hughes to leave the President's conference at the White House on the afternoon of the opening day. Governor Hughes has made it perfectly plain that in the failure of the Legislature in this special session to pass the measures to which he attaches chief importance he will accept a renomination on the sole condition that he may make the platform. His friends are aware that he does not seek the governorship or any other public office except for the achievement of certain results. There would be no logic in offering him the nomination again unless the Republican party of New York were prepared to take him for exactly what he represents. General Woodford and the Hughes Presidential League stand practically upon the ground that no Republican this year could surely carry the State of New York except Roosevelt or Hughes. They admit everything that is said about the qualifications of Mr. Taft for the Presidential office, but argue that party success depends upon carrying the State of New York, and that this fact makes Hughes the most available candidate.

*Cleveland's  
Three-Cent  
Fares.*

The ten-years' traction fight in the city of Cleveland came to an apparent end on April 27, when the Municipal Traction Company, a holding corporation, took possession of the entire street-railway system of the city. The terms of the settlement by which this long and wasteful strife was terminated were devised by Mayor Tom L. Johnson, who was re-elected last fall on a platform of three-cent car fares. In arranging with the different traction companies after a valuation had been agreed upon, it was provided that on this sum a rental should be paid under the lease equivalent to 6 per cent. interest. All earnings in excess of this rental must be used for the improvement of the service or reduction of fares. This means that Cleveland's entire street-railway system is to be operated in the interest of the public.

In other words, the results sought by this experiment in traction management are nothing more nor less than the results aimed at by all the advocates of municipal ownership. We can hardly wonder that the settlement was regarded as so important in Cleveland that a day was set apart as "Municipal Day," and for twenty-four hours the cars were operated free. On April 29 all fares within the city limits were reduced to 3 cents and without the city to 5 cents. Later an additional cent was charged for transfers, but it is promised that this additional charge is to be abandoned within three months, when a straight three-cent fare, with universal transfers, will go into effect within the city limits. Unfortunately, the first month's operation of the street-cars under the new arrangement was marked by a strike of the conductors and motormen for higher wages, and attempts to operate the lines were met with violence. It was alleged by some of the city officials that political enemies of Mayor Johnson had much to do with inciting the trouble.

*Oregon's  
Ref-  
erendum.*

In connection with the election to be held in Oregon on June 1 a correspondent in that State ventures the assertion that Oregon is taking the most radical steps toward direct legislation ever taken by an English-speaking community. Perhaps some of our readers need to be reminded that the State has for several years been working under a legislative system by which measures are referred to the people by the Legislature, referendum votes are ordered by petition of the people, and laws are proposed by initiative petition. At the approaching election no less than nineteen measures are to be voted upon by the people of Oregon, four of which are constitutional amendments referred to the people by the Legislature; four are legislative measures upon which the referendum has been ordered by petition, while the remaining eleven are laws or constitutional amendments proposed by initiative petition from the people. In the latter group are measures dealing with woman suffrage, the single tax, the recall of public officers, instructing members of the Legislature to vote for the people's choice for United States Senator, proportional representation, and a corrupt-practices act. The Secretary of State has recently sent to every registered voter a pamphlet containing the measures to be voted upon in June, together with the

arguments for and against each proposition. Along with a system of direct legislation, Oregon has direct primaries. Interest in the campaign preceding the primaries held on April 17 centered in the struggle of United States Senator Fulton for renomination. As a result of the voting on that day Senator Fulton was defeated for the Republican nomination by H. M. Cake, a well-known Portland lawyer.

*Arkansas  
Capitol  
Frauds.*

Among the States where the initiative and referendum are beginning to have a place in party platforms is Arkansas, which has lately entered on a housecleaning campaign similar to Pennsylvania's experience with the Harrisburg scandals. In the primary elections for the governorship one of the candidates, George W. Donaghey, made a startling exposure of frauds in the building of the State capitol. In his campaign for the gubernatorial nomination Donaghey was victorious, although he was opposed by United States Senator Jeff Davis, as well as by leading members of the present State administration. The result of the Democratic primaries in Arkansas shows not only that the people of that State wish to put down fraud and graft in their State government, but that there is an open rebellion against bossism in party management. The prohibition issue also played some part in the Arkansas campaign, as it has in the politics of nearly all the Southern States during the past year.

*Georgia  
on a "Dry"  
Basis.*

The whole country has been interested in watching the experience of Georgia under the new liquor law. In the city of Savannah, after the passage of the State prohibitory law, social clubs were formed whose real purpose was evasion of the law, and forty-four officers of these "locker clubs," so called, were indicted by the federal grand jury for failure to pay the special tax required by the Government of all retail liquor-dealers. When the cases came up for trial before Judge Emory Speer each indicted man pleaded guilty, and in consideration of suspension of sentence each signed a solemn obligation never again to violate any national law or engage in the sale of intoxicating liquors. Under the court's administration of the national law within his discretionary powers Judge Speer has thus eliminated absolutely the open and flagrant sale of liquor in Savannah, and thus



incidentally, by administering an internal revenue statute and punishing its violation, has dealt the foes of temperance in Georgia a crushing defeat. It is said that there are now no clubs selling liquor in Savannah, and the activity of the Anti-Saloon League and of the churches has so grown that in what was recently regarded as the most "open" city in the State there is now no sale of liquor except by "blind tigers," and the State courts and city authorities have entered upon their vigorous prosecution.

*A  
Nebraska  
Experiment.*

This new hostility to the saloon is not confined, however, to the Southern States, as Dr. Iglehart's article in our April number clearly showed. Since that article was published important local-option elections have been held in the States of Illinois, Michigan, and Nebraska. In the latter State for nearly thirty years the law had provided for local option, high license, a \$5000 bond for each license, and complete responsibility on the part of the saloonkeeper and his bondsman for all the consequences of every sale. Nearly one-half the towns of the State had adopted prohibition. As a result of the elections of April 7 prohibition has made a net gain of more than forty towns, with additional gains in prospect. The chief interest centered in Lincoln, the State capital and the seat of the State University. There the excise board had recently adopted what are believed to be the most stringent regulations short of actual prohibition ever enforced by an American city. The saloons are ordered to close at 7 p.m., the number of licenses is limited to one to each 2000 of population, and the rules governing the arrangement of the premises and the conduct of the business are made extremely severe. Incorporated or private clubs are prohibited from selling liquor to members, and druggists are permitted to sell alcohol only upon furnishing a bond for \$5000. The license fee remains unchanged at \$1500. The Prohibitionists, professing to look upon these regulations as a mere artifice to ward off complete prohibition and as not intended to be strictly enforced, demanded a referendum vote, the alternatives being prohibition and the "daylight saloon." The number of votes cast broke all records, even for Presidential years, and the "daylight saloon" won by the slender majority of 221. The new Lincoln plan will now have the benefit of a thorough trial.

*A Season of  
Gatherings of  
Peace and  
Progress.*

The months of April and May were marked by an unusual number of national gatherings and celebrations emphasizing the conquests of peace and commemorating anniversaries of a religious and spiritual nature. The conference at Washington of the governors of virtually all the States of the Union, already discussed, dealt with economic problems. The second annual meeting of the American Society of International Law, held at Washington on April 24-25, discussed phases of international peace and amity, while the conclusion of the arbitration treaties with Great Britain and Japan furnished the illustrations to the text. Especially noteworthy in the interest of international peace and understanding was the dedication on May 11 of the new Pan-American Building at Washington. Other events of the past weeks of interest to large and widely distributed bodies of our citizens were the celebration in New York City of the Catholic centenary and the holding of the twenty-fifth Methodist quadrennial conference in Baltimore. The Pacific Coast's welcome to the American fleet on its homecoming and the Presidential campaign now in full swing were other topics which may be said to have deeply interested every American citizen during the months of April and May.

*International  
Law and  
Justice.*

The growth of the American Society of International Law during its scarcely more than a year of life is a striking evidence of the widespread and active interest of the American people in international relations. No effort has been made to secure popular following, and yet this society now numbers more than 900 members, including the Chief Justice and other distinguished members of the Supreme Court, three cabinet officers (one of them president of the society), a number of Senators and Representatives, and many eminent diplomatists, as well as prominent lawyers and publicists. Secretary Root, Secretary Straus, Mr. Justice Brewer, and a dozen or more Senators and Representatives do not regard it as inconsistent with their official and diplomatic duties to participate actively in the work of the society with the hope of helping to establish the principles and practice of international law. Secretary Root, the president of the society, is earnestly endeavoring to secure a wider popular understanding of the prin-



Kelsey &amp; Cret, Architects.

THE NEW HOME OF THE INTERNATIONAL BUREAU OF THE AMERICAN REPUBLICS, IN WASHINGTON, AS IT WILL APPEAR WHEN COMPLETED.

ciples of righteousness between nations, believing firmly, as he does, that "the impotence and powerlessness of international law on many occasions in the past have been to a great extent due to the fact that the rules of this law were not known by the leading politicians as well as by the 'man in the street.'" In the current issue of the *American Journal of International Law*, the quarterly organ of the society, Mr L. Oppenheim, the eminent English authority, emphasizing this very point, says:

Public opinion with regard to international questions is at present at the mercy of the press and the agitator, and it is common knowledge that the jingo and the chauvinist frequently make use of misguided public opinion for their own ends. If the public knew something about the merits of the case concerned they would frequently look upon the matter more coolly and in a more impartial way, and it would be easier for the governments to consent to arbitration.

At the second annual meeting of the society perhaps the most important and interesting topics discussed were: "Should the Violation of Treaties Be Made a Federal Offense?" and "Arbitration at the Second Hague Conference."

*Progress of Arbitration.* The able and interesting discussions of this latter topic, "Arbitration at The Hague," by Mr. Choate, General Porter, and others were emphasized and strongly impressed upon their hearers by Mr. Root's announcement of the progress made in the United States in the work of establishing a general system of arbitration machinery with the rest of

the world. Eleven of the conventions signed at The Hague have now been approved by our Senate. Treaties of arbitration with Great Britain, France, Spain, Norway, Switzerland, Italy, and Mexico have also been signed and ratified by the Senate. On May 5 Secretary Root for the United States and Ambassador Takahira for Japan signed a general treaty of arbitration to be in force for five years after the exchange of ratifications. The treaty is similar to those already negotiated with other foreign powers, and its conclusion is a welcome confirmation of the pacific and optimistic estimates of American and Japanese relations which this magazine has always entertained and expressed. A clause in the Anglo-American arbitration treaty, very significant and important to our own country in its future relations with the British Empire, recognizes the right of Canada or any other self-governing dominion of the empire to be consulted in the making of a treaty. This is the first time such concession has been formally accorded. It marks the recognition on the part of Great Britain of the international rights of her colonies.

*The "Pan-American Palace."* Upon more than one occasion has this magazine set forth the history, scope, and aims of the International Bureau of the American Republics, which, under the energetic and able management of Mr. John Barrett, is doing so much to cement more closely the friendly relations already existing between the

twenty-one independent nations of the Western Hemisphere. The bureau is the office of the International Union of the American Republics, which includes the United States, Mexico, and the South and Central American countries. It holds conferences every few years to discuss ways and means of promoting the welfare, peace, commerce, and friendships of the countries participating. An event of prime importance in the relations of these countries took place on May 11, when representatives of the United States and the Latin nations of the New World participated in the cornerstone-laying of its new home, a splendid modern building to be erected in Washington and provided through the gift of Mr. Andrew Carnegie and the contributions of the different republics. The dedication was marked by impressive ceremonies, including addresses by President Roosevelt, Secretary Root, the Brazilian Ambassador to Washington, and Mr. Carnegie. The new building, which with its equipment and maintenance is to cost over \$1,000,000, will be a dignified and appropriate center of governmental and popular activity and interest in general American affairs. It will really be an international temple of peace and good-will, of particular value and importance to the American nations. The *Bulletin*, published by the bureau, is an enterprising, well-edited, monthly periodical, which is rapidly taking on the character of a well-illustrated magazine. It gives information in regard to the commerce, law, new enterprises, and general development of each republic.

*The New York  
Catholic  
Centenary.*

The entire week beginning April 26 was devoted by the Catholics of New York to the celebration of their first centennial. It was on April 8, 1808, that Pope Pius VII. erected the first metropolitan see in the United States, that of Baltimore, and created new sees at New York, Philadelphia, and Boston. Since the consecration of the first Catholic bishop of the New York diocese, when there were less than 10,000 Catholic churchmen in the city, the population within the limits of New York owing adherence to the church of Rome has increased to over 1,200,000, who worship in 503 churches, and whose welfare is looked after by 894 priests. The church has mightily increased in influence, material wealth, and public esteem. The celebration of the last week in April, under the direction of Archbishop Farley, took the



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HIS EMINENCE CARDINAL LOGUE, PRIMATE OF ALL IRELAND.

(A distinguished visitor in New York during the Catholic centenary celebrations last month.)

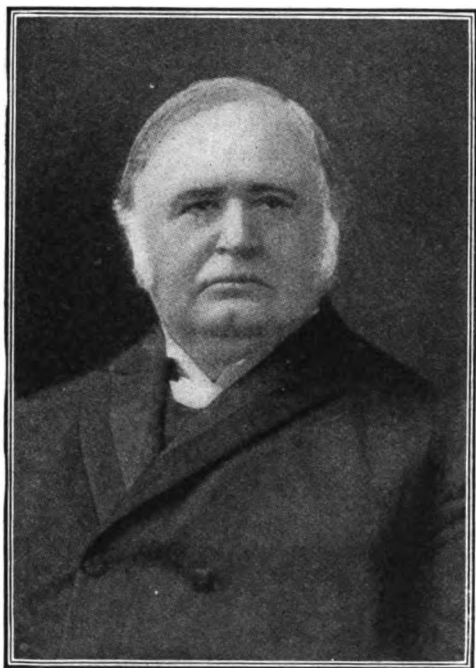
form of religious exercises in all the churches, the holding of special masses and services in St. Patrick's Cathedral, and a great street parade on May 2 of 40,000 men and boys, including all the representative semi-military organizations, societies, and social orders of the church.

*A  
Patriotic  
Event.*

A number of distinguished ecclesiastical visitors were present during the ceremonies, chief among whom was his eminence Michael, Cardinal Logue, Archbishop of Armagh and Primate of all Ireland. The 'American patriotism of the celebrants on this occasion was voiced by Cardinal Gibbons when he declared:

Whatever progress the Catholic Church has made here it owes a debt of gratitude to this country for it. We owe it to this country because here we have what no European country can boast of,—freedom of speech, freedom to practice our religious belief.

The demonstrations convinced Cardinal Logue that "the future of the Catholic Church remains with America." Non-Catholic opinion as expressed in Protestant



BISHOP DANIEL A. GOODSSELL, OF THE METHODIST  
EPISCOPAL CHURCH.

and Jewish organs notes with much approval the disappearance of the old, bitter anti-Catholic feeling. In the words of the *Outlook*, the city of New York "gratefully appreciates the service which that (the Catholic) church is rendering to the community by inculcating the spirit of reverence for law and lawful authority, which is the foundation of civil and religious liberty."

*The Methodist Quadrennial Conference.* Last month the quadrennial General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church met in Baltimore on the centennial anniversary of its first session in the same city. American Methodism registers the moral and religious convictions of more than 3,000,000 persons. A conference of its general deliberative body, therefore, is of great national importance. At the Baltimore conference, the sessions of which lasted throughout the entire month of May and were attended by 787 delegates from all parts of the world, legislation vitally affecting the religious life of the denomination was enacted. At these quadrennial conferences one of the most significant events is always the reading of the Pastoral Letter of the Bishops, or, as it is more generally known, the Episcopal Address. This is a review of the progress made by the de-

nomination during the preceding four years, accompanied by recommendations to the delegates and the church at large in the matters of ecclesiastical discipline and general conduct. The address of the present conference, written and delivered by Bishop Daniel A. Goodsell, of Boston, was a document remarkable for its statesmanlike breadth, tolerant spirit, and dignified, vigorous diction. A large gain in communicants is reported, and material prosperity and health are evident in all departments of the church. The address, however, is much more than a report of material progress; it is a keen and outspoken treatment of most of the conditions of modern American life and thought.

*Recommendations of the Bishops.* The General Conference, the bishops believe, should not be charged with the investigation of "heresies," a work which they maintain should be left to the more local bodies. They note the increasingly widespread desire to readjust the formulation of Christian doctrines to modern knowledge and modern thought, although as yet they recommend no action looking toward that end; they declare their gratification over the increase in civic righteousness, and believe that "with a restless and iconoclastic future before us we must both lead and restrain by religious forces"; they speak out clearly on the subjects of the abuse of commercial and political power, condemn the increase of divorce in the United States, express high approval of the progress made toward international peace, speak in no uncertain tones of child labor and the rights of wage-earners, and make a radical and highly significant utterance on the temperance question. When some years ago, says the address on this point, the General Conference "planted our church on the heights of legal and constitutional prohibition, some in the church, and many in the world, felt that we had passed from sobriety of judgment to fanaticism, and in short had become 'intemperately temperate.' To-day we find that State after State has climbed to our position and that unexpected aid has reached us from railway and other corporations as well as from some trade unions."

*New Rules and Election of New Bishops.* Many other subjects of church legislation were discussed at the conference, chief among which were the question of the time limit upon the pastorate and forbidden amusements for

church members. The Episcopal Address recommended striking out from the book of discipline the list of specified amusements, inserted in 1872, leaving as the ground for church trial only the taking of "such diversions as cannot be used in the name of the Lord Jesus." Great interest centered about the election of eight new bishops. There were more than 240 candidates voted for on the first ballot, on May 20, which resulted in the election of two bishops, the Rev. Dr. William F. Anderson, of New York, and the Rev. Dr. John L. Nuelsen, of the Nast Theological Seminary, Berea, Ohio. Other ballots were immediately taken for the remaining six bishops to be elected, but the results of the vote were not obtainable at the time these pages were going to press.

*Secretary Taft,  
Peacemaker in  
Panama.*

Rumors of impending aggression upon Colombia by Venezuela and Panama, alleged election frauds in Panama, and reports of political disorder in more than one country of Central America last month called for investigation on the part of the United States Government. Secretary Taft, accordingly, made a flying trip to Panama and investigated conditions there. There is to be a presidential election in the little Isthmian republic on July 12, and charges of fraud and intimidation had been freely made by several political groups which claimed they had been denied the right to register. A real revolution was threatened. The diplomatic friendly offices of the peaceful American Secretary of War, however, have succeeded in smoothing out the situation and clearing away the clouds. The United States has obtained the privilege of appointing representatives who will observe the elections and report to President Roosevelt. It was pointed out to the Government of Panama that "if fraud was permitted in the elections it would be likely to lead to violence and riot and insurrection, contrary to the interests of the United States, and that it would then be the duty of the United States to preserve order under the treaty." The Government of Panama, therefore, decided to appoint a commission of electoral inquiry with full power to investigate, and will permit the United States "to join in this inquiry through any agents." Furthermore,

If the United States comes to the conclusion that material errors or defects are now or hereafter made in the electoral proceedings or that the right of suffrage has been or may be lost to



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REAR-ADMIRAL SPERRY, WHO WILL COMMAND THE BATTLESHIP FLEET ON ITS RETURN VOYAGE.

citizens through the failure of the electoral jury to discharge its duties or otherwise, then Panama will cause the same to be remedied in some lawful manner in the due course of the season before election.

*The Naval  
Review at  
San Francisco.* On May 6 the battleship fleet, comprising forty-three ships, sailed into San Francisco Bay under the flag of Rear-Admiral Evans, then in command of American warships for the last time. "Fighting Bob's" old enemy, rheumatism, has forced him to give up active service some weeks before his official retirement, which takes place on August 18. During the great review of two days later, when all our warships passed under the eye of Secretary of the Navy Metcalf, San Francisco and the Pacific Coast paid the highest honors to the ships and the sailormen. Although Admiral Evans took no official part in the review, whenever he appeared on the streets of the city he was unmistakably the popular hero. Although not actually rounding out his official term, the man who, in the words of Kipling, "has lived more stories than Zogbaum and I could invent," has had an eminently successful and worthy career. His devotion and courage will not be forgotten by the

American people. The review in San Francisco Harbor was the most impressive of its kind ever given in this country, Secretary Metcalf as the personal representative of the President being accorded special and unusual honors. Rear-Admiral Sperry will command the fleet on its return voyage. After visiting Seattle in our own State of Washington, and Puget Sound, return will be made to San Francisco late this month. On July 7 the ships will leave the Pacific port for Honolulu. They are due at Auckland, New Zealand, on August 9; at Sydney on August 20; at Melbourne on August 29; at Manila on October 1, and at Yokohama on October 17. It is expected that a portion of the fleet will reach Amoy, China, and, after paying a short visit there, return to Manila, where the reunited armada will take up its homeward course. It is believed that more than 42,000 miles will have been covered when next February the vessels anchor again in Hampton Roads.

*Canadian  
Topics of the  
Month.*

As noted in a preceding paragraph, all future treaties or agreements between the United States and Great Britain which affect in any way the relation of this country with our Canadian neighbor will be submitted for approval to the Dominion authorities before becoming effective. Almost simultaneously with the signing of this instrument another treaty for the marking of the boundary line between the United States and Canada was ratified in the Senate (May 4). It is agreed in this document that each of the contracting parties shall at once appoint an expert geographer to serve as commissioner for the purpose of "more accurately defining and marking the international boundary line between the United States and the Dominion of Canada." The closeness of Canadian-American relations was further emphasized last month by the agreement to formulate another treaty to prescribe and determine accurately the water rights in lakes and streams on the boundary between the two countries. Another event of importance to the people of the Dominion during May was the arrangement between the British and Canadian governments for the exclusion of Hindu immigration, the agreement taking the form of making it impossible for Hindus to leave India, thereby obviating the disagreeable and delicate task of acting at the other end of the problem and excluding them from the Dominion.

Meanwhile, it may be said, the Canadian Government and people are almost unitedly absorbed in the preparations for the Quebec tercentenary next month.

*The British  
Budget  
Presented.*

Premier Asquith presented his first budget to a crowded House on May 7; not only was every member of the Commons present, but the peers' and visitors' galleries were crowded to overflowing. The long-anticipated announcement of old-age pensions was received with intense interest. The budget provides for pensions of \$1.25 weekly for every inhabitant of the United Kingdom of over seventy years of age who applies, excepting criminals, lunatics, and paupers, with the exception that no one actually receiving more than \$2.50 weekly income will be admissible. The scheme, which is not to be operative until January 1 next, will probably affect a half a million individuals. The budget proposes that the charge is to be a national, not a local, burden, and must not exceed \$30,000,000 in any one year. A long and heated discussion is certain to follow in the Commons. Mr. Winston Churchill's defeat at Manchester on April 4, by his Unionist opponent, was regarded as a heavy blow to the prestige of the government, amounting to a setback to the political career of the young Minister. On May 9, however, he was returned triumphantly from one of the Dundee districts to a seat made vacant through the elevation to the peerage of Mr. Edmund Robertson. Mr. Churchill's campaign in both constituencies was marked by hard work and picturesque electioneering. In both districts the new President of the Board of Trade was vigorously opposed by the labor element and by the "Suffragettes."

*An  
Awakening  
Ireland.*

While actual Home Rule for Ireland may be no nearer than ever, many signs of industrial and social improvement are evident in the Emerald Isle. Chief Secretary for Ireland, Mr. Augustine Birrell, has been tireless in his campaign for the repeal of the detested Coercion act of 1887, and for the establishment of real Irish universities. As already noted in these pages, the latter project has been almost realized. A bill repealing the Coercion act has passed its second reading in the Commons and seems likely to become a law. Government statistics issued in London indicate that emigration from Ireland is

decreasing. Indeed, it is believed that the number of persons leaving Ireland for the United States during the present year will be the smallest in many years. This is due to a number of causes, prominent among them being the economic and industrial improvement among the Irish people which has marked the past decade. Native industries are springing up in the villages, and employment for skilled and unskilled labor is steadily increasing. The agitation of patriotic nationalistic societies against emigration has also had effect. The Land law is gradually working toward a solution of the tenant problem, and altogether there are many signs of prosperity in Ireland.

*Social  
Problems in  
France.*

Some very important legislation was enacted by the French Parliament during its last session, and some equally important measures not disposed of then were taken up earnestly when the Chamber of Deputies came together again on May 19. During the preceding session the Senate passed the Divorce bill of the Chambers. By this measure a French decree of separation becomes a divorce automatically at the end of three years when either party to the separation requests it. Another enactment of far-reaching importance to the republic is the Old-Age Pension bill, a compromise of the original measure, which has taken more than two years to work its way through the upper house of the French Parliament. It is really a workman's pension scheme which will affect from 1,500,000 to 2,000,000 persons, and involve an initial expenditure by the state of more than \$150,000,000. A recent publication of the vital statistics of the republic for the year 1907 shows that the birth-rate in the republic is rapidly decreasing. During the calendar year ending January 1, last, there were in France 19,000 more deaths than births. These subjects of decreasing birth-rate and divorce are agitating all grades of French society. Paul Bourget, the celebrated poet and novelist, whose problem play, "A Divorce," made such a profound impression in France last year, attributes the decline of France as a great power to these two causes. He maintains, further, that the new French feminist movement is making the evil worse, and points as evidence to the campaign recently conducted by the "Suffragettes" of Paris in favor of the election of Mlle. Laloi for member of the Municipal Council. Mlle. Laloi, who ran on a platform calling for shorter

hours and higher pay for women workers, has, it seems, some radical opinions on the marriage relation. Her candidacy was finally declared illegal.

*Fixing the  
Status of North-  
ern Europe.* Three highly important international agreements were concluded late in April. In St. Petersburg, representatives of Russia, Germany, Switzerland, and Denmark signed a treaty guaranteeing the maintenance of the *status quo* in the Baltic Sea. On the same day (April 23), in Berlin, the German Secretary of Foreign Affairs and the ministers of Great Britain, France, Denmark, Sweden, Holland, and Norway, put their signatures to a treaty by which their governments bind themselves not to change in any way for at least ten years the present political status of the North Sea. During the same week Great Britain, France, and Sweden agreed to the annulling of the promise forced from Russia after the Crimean War that under no circumstances would she fortify the Aland Islands, a group off the coast of Finland, not far from Stockholm. These highly important international understandings have reassured those who feared that Germany intended to forcibly annex Holland or that Russia might in the near future attempt the absorption of Sweden. An interesting development of Danish politics during the past month was the recommendation by the commission appointed by King Frederick more than a year ago, in the form of a bill to be submitted to the Danish and Icelandic parliaments, that Iceland be constituted "a free, autonomous, and independent country, united to Denmark by a common king and common interests, and forming with Denmark a state federation,—the United Danish Empire."

*The Duma  
a Real  
Parliament.*

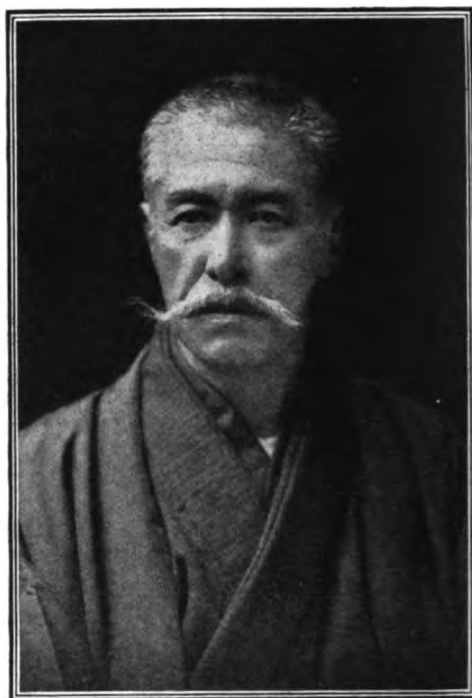
Unsettled relations with Turkey, the proposition to construct the so-called Amur Railroad, and the apparently inspired address of Finance Minister Kokovtsev in the Duma, announcing that "Russia has no Parliament,"—these were the Russian topics discussed most animatedly last month. The Amur Railroad proposition is nothing more than the proposed revival of a former abandoned scheme to connect the Amur River by a railroad line across the Korean border to Vladivostok. This, as will be easily seen, enters the region of the Chinese-Japanese-Manchurian-general European disputed territory in the Far East. The measure au-



thorizing the construction of the railroad is still under discussion in the Duma. This body listened with amazement and indignation, early in May, to a speech by the Finance Minister, in the course of which he exclaimed: "Thank God, we have not a Parliament in Russia yet!" Contrary to his hopes and expectations, this very remark has had the effect of fixing and crystallizing in the minds of the Russian people the fact that the empire actually has a Parliament. Mr. Komiakov, president of the chamber, denounced Mr. Kokovtsev's remark as "a most unfortunate expression," and the Duma officially expressed its view that "while Russia may not actually have parliamentarism, it has a real Parliament." A subsequent audience granted by the Czar to President Komiakov confirmed the belief that his Imperial Majesty is "satisfied with the attitude and deliberations of the Duma and that the rumor that in any way he would oppose that body's claim to be a Parliament can be denied categorically."

*The  
Japanese  
Elections.*

By a narrow but sufficient majority the Japanese Government emerged triumphantly from the general elections on May 15. Although there was some delay in announcing the detailed vote, it was stated authoritatively from Tokio that the Seiyukai, or Liberal party, by the aid of the other allied groups in the chamber, will remain in control and that Premier Saionji has saved his position as head of the government. The announcement made at the same time that, despite the triumph of his party, Premier Saionji would soon be removed from office, can only be understood when it is remembered that representative government as constituted in Japan does not provide, as in England, that the Prime Minister shall be absolutely responsible in fact as well as in name to the lower house of the Parliament, nor, as in Germany, that he shall in fact but not in name be accountable to a majority of the popular branch of the government. The Emperor of Japan has never consented to abdicate his autocracy in any manner or degree. Time and time again he has chosen his chief minister against the wishes of the elected representatives of the people. An appeal to the country, however, has always demonstrated that the electorate sides with the Emperor. In the present instance two of the Elder Statesmen, Count Inouye and Count Matsukata, are opposed to the financial policy



VISCOUNT HOTTA, THE NEW JAPANESE MINISTER OF FINANCE.

of the Saionji cabinet, while Marquis (now Prince) Ito zealously supports the Premier. The immediate fate of the ministry is therefore in doubt.

*Japanese-  
Chinese  
Relations.*

Japan's foreign and domestic problems, however, are real and pressing. Finances are still in a bad way, and it is believed that the visit to New York last month of Baron Yoshiro Sakatani, ex-Minister of Finance, was for the purpose of negotiating a loan for his government. The new Financial Minister, Viscount Hotta, has virtually committed himself against the imposition of more taxes. The friction between the governments at Peking and Tokio and between the Chinese and Japanese peoples would seem to be increasing. A series of boycotts of Japanese goods by Chinese merchants began some weeks ago and has assumed serious proportions. A powerful league of societies throughout the Middle Kingdom, known as the Self-Government Society, it is reported, has organized a definite campaign against Japanese commerce, the hostility extending even to trade between members of both nationalities in foreign ports.

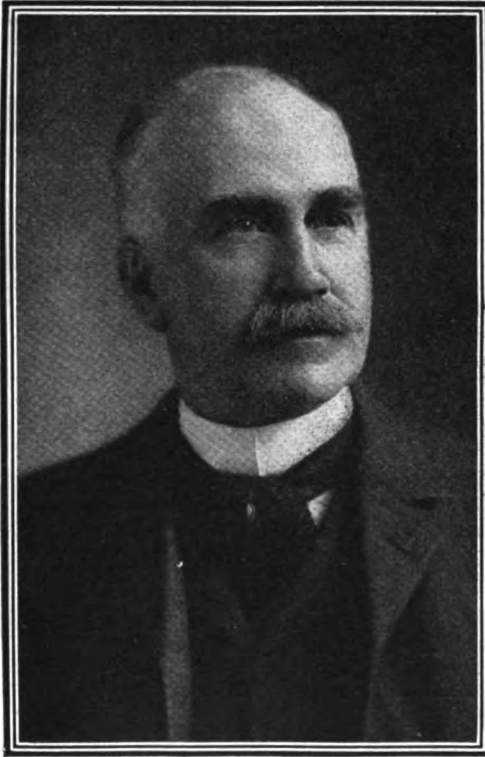
# RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From April 21 to May 20, 1908.)

## PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

April 21.—The Senate considers the Naval Appropriation bill....The House adopts Speaker Cannon's resolution providing for an investigation of the alleged paper trust.

April 23.—The Senate adopts an amendment to the Naval Appropriation bill appropriating \$7,000,000 for beginning work on battleships....The House adopts a resolution authorizing the



Photograph by Bellesmith, Cincinnati.

HON. JUDSON HARMON.

(Nominated by the Democrats for Governor of Ohio.)

Attorney-General to bring suit for forfeiture of several million acres of land granted to the California & Oregon Railroad Company.

April 27.—A special message from President Roosevelt, urging legislation on the lines of his previous recommendations, is received in both branches....The Senate passes the Naval Appropriation bill after defeating the four-battleships amendment by a vote of 50 to 23....The House considers the Sundry Civil Appropriations bill.

April 28.—The Senate passes the Pension and District of Columbia Appropriation bills.

April 30.—The Senate considers the Agricultural Appropriation bill....The House adopts an amendment to the Sundry Civil Appropriations bill providing \$350,000 for enforcing the publicity clause of the Railroad Rate law.

May 1.—The Senate debates the resolution offered by Mr. Elkins (Rep., W. Va.) suspending for twenty months the operation of the commodity clause of the Railroad Rate law.

May 2.—The Senate passes the Diplomatic and Consular Appropriation bill....The House passes bills increasing the number of Philippine commissioners to nine and appropriating \$250,000 for the relief of sufferers from tornadoes in the South.

May 4.—In the Senate, Mr. Bulkeley (Rep., Conn.) defends the negro soldiers dismissed on account of the Brownsville affair; the Canadian boundary treaty is ratified.

May 6.—The Senate passes the Child Labor bill for the District of Columbia and adopts a resolution calling for information whether the commodity clause of the Railroad Rate law is complied with....In the House the bill re-establishing the canteen in national soldiers' homes is defeated.

May 7.—In the Senate, the Government's forest policy is attacked by Mr. Teller (Dem., Colo.) and defended by Mr. Depew (Rep., N. Y.)....In the House, a provision in the Sundry Civil Appropriations bill to limit wages in the Panama Canal Zone is defeated.

May 8.—The Senate continues discussion of the Government's forest policy....The House adopts the conference report on the Army Appropriation bill, including increased pay, and passes the Sundry Civil Appropriations bill.

May 9.—The Senate practically concludes debate on the Agricultural Appropriation bill....The House passes the Child Labor bill for the District of Columbia.

May 11.—The Senate passes the Agricultural Appropriation bill; Mr. Rayner (Dem., Md.) introduces a resolution calling for a court of inquiry in the case of Col. William F. Stewart....The House passes the bill prohibiting gambling in the District of Columbia.

May 12.—The Senate passes the Post-Office Appropriation bill (\$229,027,367)....The House agrees to the conference report on the Naval Appropriation bill.

May 13.—In the Senate, consideration of the Brownsville affair is postponed on motion of Mr. Foraker (Rep., Ohio) until December 16; the resolution of Mr. Rayner (Dem., Md.) for a court of inquiry in the case of Colonel Stewart is referred to the Committee on Military Affairs; the House bill restoring the motto "In God We Trust" to the coins is passed.

May 14.—The Senate passes the Sundry Civil Appropriation bill....The House, by a vote of 184 to 145, passes the Vreeland Currency bill.

May 15.—The Senate passes the Aldrich Currency bill as a substitute for the Vreeland bill. . . . The House passes the Omnibus Public Buildings bill and the Military Academy Appropriation bill; the Currency bill as amended by the Senate is sent to conference.

May 16.—The Senate passes a bill to create an Appalachian forest reserve. . . . The House passes bills granting compensation to Government employees for injuries sustained in the service and authorizing the continuance of the Inland Waterways Commission.

May 18.—The Senate sends the Legislative Appropriation bill to conference. . . . The House passes the General Deficiency Appropriation bill.

May 19.—The Senate agrees to the conference report on the Agricultural Appropriation bill; a bill creating a commission on the conservation of resources is introduced. . . . The House agrees to the conference report on the Legislative Appropriation bill and passes the bill making an appropriation of \$1,500,000 for the representation of the United States at the Tokio Exposition in 1912.

May 20.—The Senate passes the Public Buildings bill. . . . The House adopts the partial conference report on the Sundry Civil Appropriation bill.

#### POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

April 21.—In the Louisiana State election Jared Y. Sanders (Dem.) is chosen Governor; the Legislature is unanimously Democratic and is pledged by the primary vote for the present United States Senator, S. D. McEnery; five constitutional amendments are adopted.

April 23.—The New York Legislature adjourns; Governor Hughes calls an extraordinary session, to begin on May 11. . . . President Roosevelt appoints Milton D. Purdy, assistant to the Attorney-General, to succeed Judge Lochren. . . . Illinois Democrats instruct their delegates-at-large for Bryan.

April 25.—A meeting of New York State Democrats decides to call no second State convention, but to provide a committee of sixty-one to preserve the principle of home rule in party affairs.

April 28.—Arkansas and Colorado Republicans instruct for Taft; South Carolina Republicans send an uninstructed delegation to Chicago; New Jersey Democrats send an uninstructed delegation to Denver. . . . Governor Hughes, of New York, names Samuel H. Ordway as commissioner to hear testimony on the charges filed against President Bermel, of Queens Borough, New York City.

April 29.—Connecticut Democrats refuse to instruct for Bryan. . . . Joseph Bermel resigns as President of Queens Borough, New York City. . . . Pennsylvania Republicans instruct delegates at-large for Senator Knox; West Virginia Republicans instruct for Taft; Vermont Republicans send uninstructed delegates to Chicago; Mississippi Republicans select uninstructed delegates-at-large.

April 30.—Maryland and North Carolina Republicans instruct for Taft; Maine Republicans declare for Taft, but fail to instruct the delegates-at-large. . . . Lawrence Gresser is chosen to

succeed Joseph Bermel as President of Queens Borough, New York City.

May 2.—At the New York State convention of the Independence party it is decided to run a third national ticket.

May 3.—Four State Senators are arrested in Arkansas in connection with the investigation of alleged bribery in the Legislature.

May 5.—New Jersey Republicans select four uninstructed delegates-at-large.

May 6.—A bill providing for the merger of the Boston and Maine and New York, New Haven & Hartford railroads is filed with the Committee on Railroads of the Massachusetts Legislature. . . . The Administration Republicans of Alabama meet in State convention and instruct delegates to Chicago for Taft. . . . Ohio Democrats nominate Judson Harmon for Governor and indorse William Jennings Bryan for the Presidency.

May 7.—Kentucky and Wyoming Republicans instruct for Taft; Utah Republicans declare Roosevelt their first choice and Taft their second. . . . Massachusetts Democrats instruct their delegates-at-large for Bryan. . . . Governor Hughes, of New York, approves the revision of the military code so as to conform the organization of the National Guard to that of the regular army.

May 8.—Governor Hughes speaks at five enthusiastic meetings in the Niagara-Orleans Senate district in the campaign of William C. Wallace for the State senatorship.

May 9.—Governor Hughes speaks at great mass meetings at North Tonawanda and Niagara Falls, N. Y., advocating the passage of the anti-race-track gambling bills. . . . The Massachusetts State convention of the Independence party elects an uninstructed delegation to the national convention of the party.

May 11.—The New York Legislature meets in extra session and receives a message from Governor Hughes recommending measures that failed of passage at the regular session.

May 12.—William C. Wallace, pledged to support Governor Hughes in the fight to do away with race-track gambling, is elected State Senator in the Niagara-Orleans district of New York. . . . Michigan Republicans instruct delegates-at-large for Taft. . . . Governor Hughes, of New York, declares that even if he were elected Vice-President he could not serve.

May 13.—The Alaskan Republican convention sends contesting delegates to Chicago. . . . The conference of governors and other public men on the conservation of natural resources in response to the invitation of President Roosevelt, begins at the White House, in Washington.

May 14.—California, Washington, and North Dakota Republicans instruct delegates-at-large for Taft; Georgia Republicans send uninstructed delegates to Chicago. . . . Wyoming Democrats instruct for Bryan; Minnesota Democrats instruct for Johnson and refuse, by vote of 772 to 166, to indorse Bryan as second choice.

May 15.—At the final session of the natural-resources conference at the White House President Roosevelt makes a declaration of policy on State and federal rights.

May 16.—Senator Julius Cæsar Burrows, of Michigan, is named by the Republican National Committee as temporary chairman of the national convention.

May 18.—In a message to the Louisiana Legislature Governor Sanders recommends the suppression of race-track gambling, and local option combined with high license to regulate the liquor traffic.

May 19.—California Democrats instruct for Bryan.

May 20.—Pennsylvania Democrats send uninstructed delegates to Denver; Michigan and Missouri Democrats instruct Denver delegations for Bryan.

**POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.**

April 21.—Sir Wilfrid Laurier, Premier of Canada, appoints Mr. W. Mackenzie as secretary for imperial and foreign correspondence. .... The Haitian Legislature begins its session at Port au Prince. .... Martial law is proclaimed in Guatemala City.

April 22.—The newly elected Cape Parliament is opened by Sir W. Hely-Hutchinson.

April 24.—The Canadian Parliament rejects, by vote of 95 to 42, a motion in favour of the abolition of bonuses to immigration agents. .... The British Home Secretary appoints a departmental committee to inquire into the operation of the law relating to inebriates. .... Winston Spencer Churchill (Liberal) is defeated for reelection to the British Parliament in Manchester by W. J. Hicks, Unionist candidate.

April 27.—The Cape Colony Legislature is prorogued until June 18.

April 28.—A conference of state premiers assembles at Melbourne, Australia.

April 29.—King Manuel makes his first address to the Portuguese Cortes. .... A woman candidate stands for the first time in a Paris municipal election.

May 2.—Troops are sent to quell a revolutionary outbreak near Lima, Peru. .... The Korean Government prepares for an active campaign against disorderly elements.

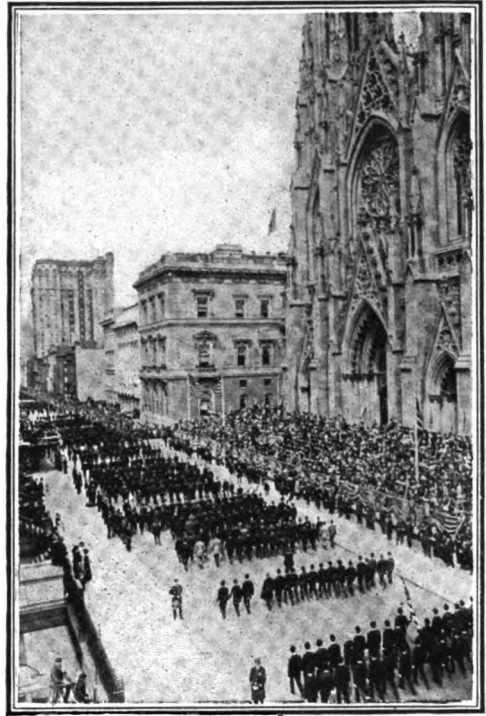
May 3.—Municipal elections are held throughout France; a woman suffrage candidate is defeated in Paris.

May 4.—Fernando Guachalla is elected President of Bolivia. .... Thirty persons are arrested in Calcutta on charges of being implicated in a plot to overthrow British rule in India and murder officials. .... The British House of Commons passes the Licensing bill on second reading and refers the measure to committee of the whole.

May 6.—The British House of Commons resolves to abolish the system of licensing opium dens in crown colonies. .... King Manuel takes the oath to observe the Portuguese constitution and is proclaimed King.

May 7.—Premier Asquith presents the budget to the British House of Commons; he announces that old-age pensions will be provided from the national treasury and that the duty on sugar will be reduced.

May 8.—The British House of Commons, by a vote of 201 to 7, passes on a second reading the bill repealing the Irish Coercion act of 1887.



Photograph by Brown Bros., N. Y.;

**PARADE OF CATHOLIC LAYMEN PASSING ST. PATRICK'S CATHEDRAL ON THE OCCASION OF THE NEW YORK DIOCESAN CENTENARY.**

(From a stand built in front of the Cathedral entrance the parade of 40,000 men and boys was reviewed by Cardinal Logue and Archbishop Farley.)

May 9.—Winston Spencer Churchill, President of the Board of Trade in the new Liberal cabinet of Great Britain, is returned to Parliament from Dundee by a majority of 2709.

May 11.—The British House of Commons, by a vote of 344 to 31, passes the Irish University bill on second reading.

May 18.—Premier Stolypin, in a speech before the Russian Duma, urges that legislation be enacted giving the empire control over Finnish matters of joint importance without infringing the autonomy of Finland.

May 19.—The French budget shows an estimated deficit of \$8,800,000. .... The Russian Minister of Finance announces the government's intention to raise \$400,000,000 by internal and foreign loans to meet railway construction and army reforms.

May 20.—The British House of Commons passes the second reading of the Education bill by a vote of 370 to 206.

**INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.**

April 23.—The Baltic and North Sea conventions are signed at St. Petersburg and at Berlin by representatives of Germany, Great Britain, France, Denmark, Holland, and Sweden. .... An act denouncing the treaty of Stockholm of 1855 is signed at Stockholm by representatives of

Great Britain, France, and Sweden....It is announced at Copenhagen that Constantin Brun, Danish Minister to the United States, will be transferred to London and that Count Carl von Moltke will probably succeed him.

May 5.—A general arbitration treaty between the United States and Japan is signed at Washington.

May 6.—Prompt action by the viceroys at Chinese ports prevents the extension of the boycott started at Canton against Japan....Foreign consuls near the Russo-Turkish frontier report that Russia is massing forces in that region and forwarding supplies.

May 7.—Guatemala, alarmed by rumors that Mexico is massing troops on her frontier, asks the United States to demand an explanation from Mexico....The Emperor and Empress of Germany and heads of other ruling families assemble in Vienna to congratulate Emperor Francis Joseph, of Austria, upon the sixtieth anniversary of the beginning of his reign....It is officially denied from Tokio that the Korean Emperor will be banished by Japan.

May 8.—China asks French assistance in checking rebels near the Tonquin border.

May 10.—The Ameer of Afghanistan, replying to India's protest regarding the invasion of Afghan tribes, says that he has issued orders to prevent further incursions.

May 12.—Great Britain, Russia, France, and Italy decide to withdraw their troops from Crete.

May 13.—Japan refuses China's offer of a modification regarding the construction of a railroad line in Manchuria.

May 14.—The federation of Denmark and Iceland is provided for in a report submitted to King Frederick.

May 16.—Panama invites the United States to appoint a commission to assure a fair election of a president.

May 19.—The text of the treaties arranged between Great Britain and the United States regarding international fisheries and boundaries is laid before the Canadian Parliament.

#### OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

April 21.—The Venezuelan port of La Guayra is closed, owing to disease believed to be the bubonic plague.

April 23.—A series of tornadoes in Texas, Oklahoma, Arkansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, Tennessee, Alabama, and Georgia cause a loss of 350 lives and much property....The new Pennsylvania Railroad bond issue sells above the subscription price....The first woman's congress held in Italy is opened in Rome.

April 24.—It is decided by the employers' federation to order a lockout in every shipbuilding yard in the United Kingdom....The American Society of International Law begins its annual meeting in Washington with an address by its president, Secretary Root.

April 25.—The Russian Government's steel works at Abukov are destroyed by fire with a loss of \$2,500,000....In a collision off the Isle of Wight between the American liner *St. Paul* and the British cruiser *Gladiator* twenty-eight



HIS LAST VOYAGE.

(Admiral Evans took leave of the fleet at San Francisco last month.)

From the *Globe* (New York.)

lives are lost from the latter....Twenty-eight persons are killed in a railway collision in Mexico.

April 26.—The centenary celebration of the establishment of the Roman Catholic diocese of New York begins in that city.

April 27.—The issue of \$40,000,000 4 per cent. Pennsylvania Railroad bonds is oversubscribed twenty times.

April 28.—The population of Cleveland, Ohio, enjoys free street-car rides by way of signaling the settlement of the ten years' traction war, by the terms of which the concession of three-cent fares is obtained.

April 30.—Secretary Taft leaves Washington for the Isthmus of Panama.

May 2.—40,000 Roman Catholic laymen in parade are reviewed by Cardinal Logue and Archbishop Farley at the close of the New York centenary celebration.

May 6.—The quadrennial session of the General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church is opened at Baltimore....The American battleship fleet arrives at San Francisco.

May 8.—A Portuguese force defeats natives in Guinea after an action lasting nine hours....Secretary Metcalf reviews the combined Atlantic and Pacific fleets at San Francisco....Fire destroys two business blocks in Atlanta, Georgia, causing a loss of \$1,500,000.

May 9.—The foundation-stone of a new capital city of Montenegro is laid on the Adriatic Sea by the French in Montenegro....Admiral Robley D. Evans, U. S. N., is succeeded in command of the Atlantic battleship fleet by Admiral Thomas.

May 11.—The corner-stone of the new building for the Bureau of American Republics is laid at Washington.

May 14.—The Franco-British Exposition is opened in London by the Prince of Wales.... The new buildings of the College of the City of New York are formally opened.

May 15.—Admiral Charles S. Sperry takes command of the Atlantic fleet at San Francisco. .... The plant of the Omaha Packing Company at South Omaha, Neb., is destroyed by fire with a loss of \$1,250,000.

May 16.—The entertainment of the Atlantic fleet is completed at San Francisco.... Conductors and motormen on the Cleveland street-railway line strike for higher wages; much violence ensues.

May 18.—The American battleship fleet sails from San Francisco.

# OBITUARY.

April 21.—Nicolas Emile Gebhart, French professor of literature and academician, 69.... Prof. Leopold von Schrötter, of the Vienna medical faculty, 70.

April 22.—Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, 71.... Kassim Bey Amin, judge of the Egyptian court of appeals, 44.... Bishop Ellison Capers, of the Protestant Episcopal diocese of South Carolina, 70.... Samuel R. Shipley, a well-known Philadelphia financier, 80.

April 23.—Gen. Nicholas Petrovich Linevich, commander-in-chief of the Russian troops in Manchuria in the war with Japan, 68.

April 24.—Rt. Hon. William Kenyon Slaney, member of the British Parliament, 60.

April 25.—Former United States Senator Johnson N. Camden of West Virginia, 80.... Rev. Dr. William Hoffman Ten Eyck, of the Reformed Church in America, 90.... Cardinal Januarius Portanova, Archbishop of Reggio-Calabria, 63.... Very Rev. Archibald Hamilton Charteris, of Edinburgh, 72.

April 27.—Ex-Governor Myron H. McCord, of Arizona, 67.

April 28.—Brig.-Gen. Alfred L. Hough, U. S. A., retired, 82.

April 29.—Rev. Morgan Dix, D.D., for forty-six years rector of Trinity Parish, New York, 80.... Dr. Charles John Aldrich, of Cleveland, a specialist in neurology, 46.

May 1.—Prof. John Joseph McNulty, of the College of the City of New York, 46.

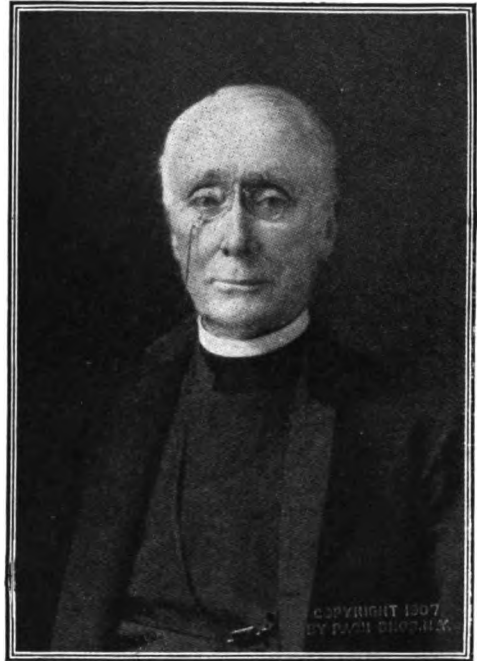
May 2.—The Hungarian general, Stephen Turr, member of Garibaldi's staff, 83.

May 4.—Albert Stickney, the New York lawyer and author, 68.... Thomas J. Sullivan, director of the United States Bureau of Engraving and Printing, 63.

May 5.—Albert Auguste de Lapparent, the French geologist, 69.

May 6.—Ex-Congressman Martin L. Smyser, of Ohio, 57.

May 7.—Jerome Flannery, an authority on the game of cricket, 43.... Major O. P. Chaffee, a staff officer in the Confederate Army, 79.



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THE LATE DR. MORGAN DIX.

(Forty-six years rector of Trinity Parish in New York City.)

May 8.—Ludovic Halévy, the noted French librettist, 74.

May 9.—Rt. Hon. James Alexander Campbell, brother of the late Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, 83.

May 10.—Dr. Benjamin James Fernie, associate editor of the *Christian Herald*, 66.

May 11.—Ex-Congressman John A. Quackenbush, of New York, 80.... Sir Alexander Condie Stephen, K.C.M.G., 58.

May 13.—Bishop Ignatius H. Horstmann, of the Roman Catholic diocese of Cleveland, 67.

May 14.—Ex-Congressman Horatius C. Burdard, formerly Director of the United States Mint, 83.... Gen. Charles Albert Whittier, a veteran of the Civil War, 68.

May 15.—Prof. Walter Augustus Wyckoff, of Princeton University, 43.... Mrs. Emily E. Woodley, who was commissioned by President Lincoln as a captain in the army, 73.

May 16.—Captain Charles W. Boothby, one of the organizers of the Republican party in Louisiana, 79.... Brig.-Gen. William Miles Townsend, of the Confederate Army, 77.

May 17.—Archbishop Peter Bourdage, of the Roman Catholic diocese of Sante Fé, 63.... Frederick May Holland, the author, 72.

May 18.—Captain Samuel Samuels, a famous American skipper, 83.... Ex-Congressman G. A. Finkelnberg, of Missouri, 71.

May 20.—Prof. Leslie A. Lee, of Bowdoin College, noted for expeditions in Labrador and South America, 56.

## SOME OF THE RECENT CARTOONS.



YOU'VE GOT TO REFORM YOUR EXTRAVAGANT HABITS, OLD MAN.  
From the *Herald* (New York).



UNCLE SAM IS WILLING TO LEARN.  
From the *Press* (New York).

(Mr. James J. Hill's address at the White House conference on the wasting of the quality of American soils through bad methods of farming made a strong impression).

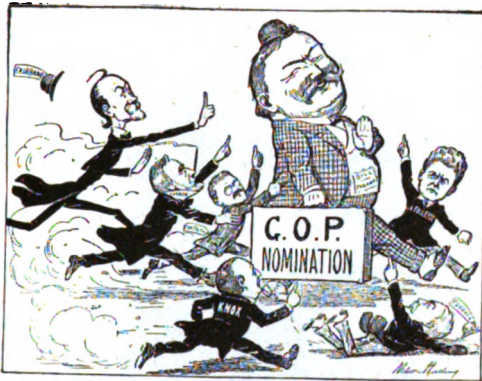


TIME TO LOCK THE BARN.

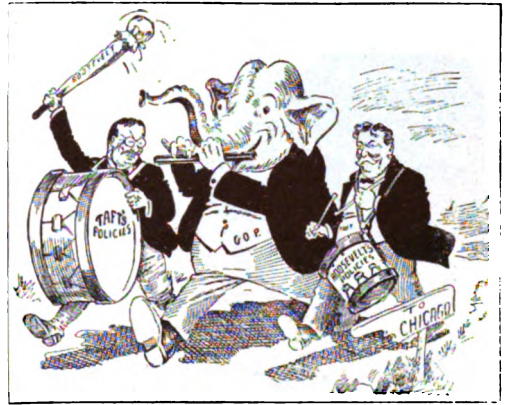
UNCLE SAM: "Some of the horses have been stolen, so I will lock up before they are all gone."

From the *Herald* (Duluth).





ALL ANXIOUS TO CARRY MR. TAFT'S BAG.  
From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).



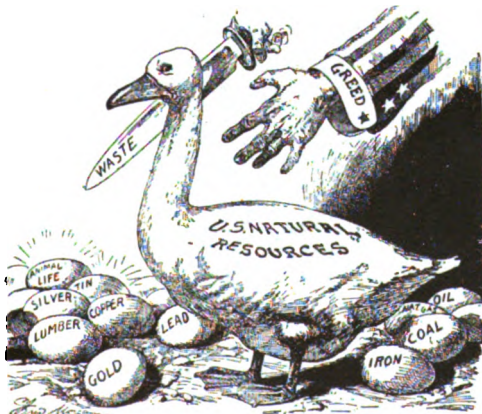
THE SPIRIT OF 1908.  
From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane).



THE DOG—YOU CAN'T LOSE MR.  
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



TRESPASSING.  
From the *American* (New York).



KILLING THE PROLIFIC GOOSE.  
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



CONGRESS SEEMS TO BE STRIVING FOR A SPOTLESS  
RECORD.  
From the *Record-Herald* (Chicago).



"SEEIN' THINGS!"

From the *Evening Mail* (New York).

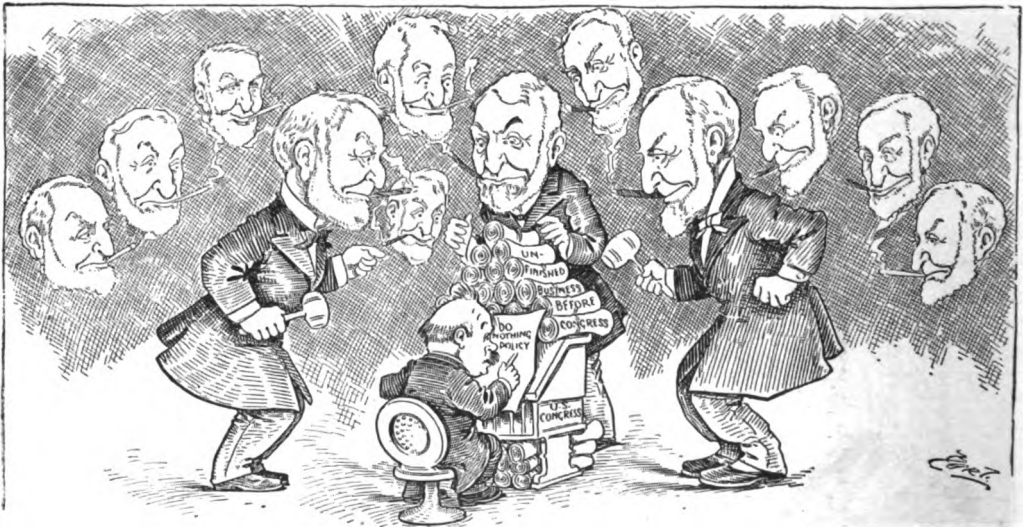


THE ETERNAL QUESTION.

From the *World* (New York).

Cartoonist Davenport, of the *Evening Mail*, one of the New York papers which have vigorously supported Governor Hughes in his race-track campaign, sees in the attitude of the Republican politicians of the State the reluctant

admission that Hughes is the "logical" candidate to succeed himself in the governorship. The Governor's triumph in the Niagara-Orleans Senatorial contest set at naught the earlier predictions of the machine.



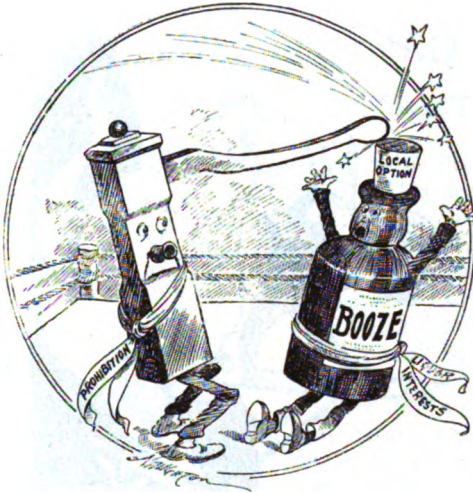
THE CHARGE OF THE LIGHT BRIGADE IN CONGRESS.

Cannon to right of them,  
Cannon to left of them,  
Cannon in front of them  
Volleyed and thundered.

Theirs not to make reply,  
Theirs not to reason why,  
Theirs not to do or try:  
Noble three hundred.

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).





THE "PUMP" DELIVERS A "KNOCK-OUT" BLOW.  
From the *Herald* (Duluth).



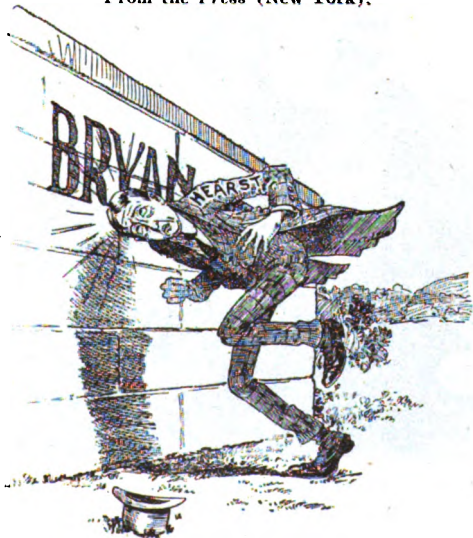
WELL PACKED.  
From the *Herald* (Rochester).



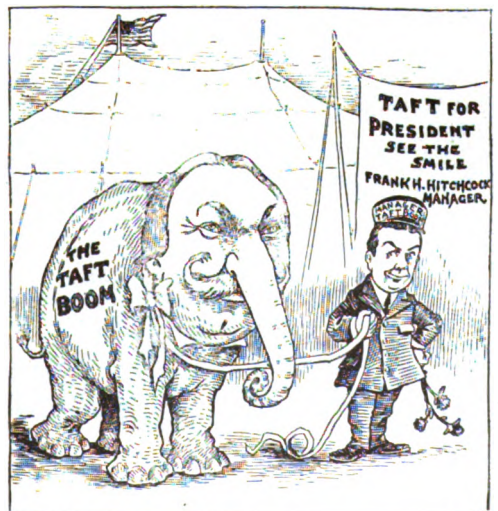
WAS "UNCLE JOE" LAUNCHED OR SHIPWRECKED?  
From the *Press* (New York).



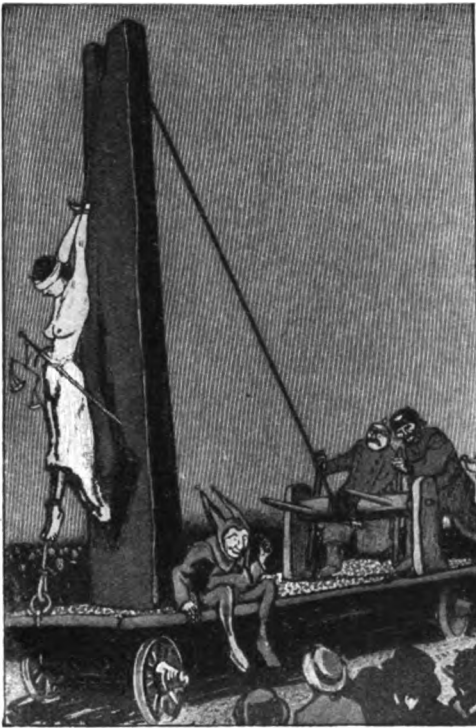
SHOUTING FOR HUGHES, BUT TAFT IS ON THEIR HEARTS.  
From the *Telegram* (New York).



UP AGAINST IT AGAIN.  
From the *News* (Baltimore).



GETTING TO BE A BIG ELEPHANT NOW.  
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



THE RUSSIAN AND PRUSSIAN IDEA OF JUSTICE.

(The artist of *Simplicissimus* (Munich) thus sets forth his conception of Russia's treatment of the Finns and Prussia's relations to the Poles.)



ON THE BRINK OF THE ABYSS.

CHANCELLOR VON BÜLOW (to Germanla): "Do not be afraid, my dear madam, you are quite safe in my hands."

From *Wahre Jacob* (Stuttgart).

The financial difficulties of the German Empire and Prussia's troubles over franchise matters and the attempted Germanization of her subject peoples are furnishing themes for the cartoonists of all the opposition papers in the empire.



AN EGYPTIAN VIEW OF CHINA'S EFFORTS TO MODERNIZE HERSELF.

THE CHINESE PEOPLE (to the Japanese): "You were once down here with us, brothers. By what miracle have you raised yourselves into those lofty regions?"

THE JAPANESE: "It is a matter of progress. You can also exalt yourselves if you so desire."

THE CHINESE (and all other Orientals): "But what sort of a beast is this you call Progress, and how can we harness it?"

From *Punch* (Calro, Egypt).

# TAFT, TRAINED TO BE PRESIDENT.

BY WALTER WELLMAN.

**T**WENTY-FIVE men have been President of the United States. They were chosen for this high post for various reasons,—some for their eminence in civil life, some on account of military distinction, some because of successful party leadership, some because of their conspicuous identification with commanding issues, some through hero-worship or adventitious personal popularity, some through party compromises, some through the accidents of politics or nature. Not often, if ever, have the American people deliberately set out to train a man for the Presidency, to prepare him through education and experience and work for the responsibilities of their highest and most exacting public office. That is what they are doing now, have been doing for some years. They are training William Howard Taft to be President. That he will be nominated by the Republican party is virtually settled, and his chances of election are fairly good, though by no means certain.

If Mr. Taft is chosen to be the twenty-sixth man to sit in the Presidential chair he will be placed there because an intensely practical people, in a period of their history when emotionalism is somewhat checked and dull, follow out their natural instinct to recognize, to reward, and to utilize the highest efficiency. That is a natural instinct with the American people. It is an instinct which finds its strongest expression in commercial, industrial, and professional life. In those fields of activity men work from the bottom to the top. Rodmen and freight-train conductors and station agents become general managers of railways. Factory foremen rise to the head of great industrial corporations. The office boy of to-day may be the head of a commercial firm in the distant to-morrow. Individualism is keener in America than anywhere else. Here there is surer, quicker, recognition of individual merit, efficiency, power to do things and do them well, than in any other country. With us there is little traditional preferment, much insistence that the man who advances shall rise only by making good. Industrially this premium on efficiency is one of the prime factors which have carried us so far. In that field it is a principle which we invariably and sharply apply. In

politics we apply it vaguely, occasionally, at random, mixed often with traditionalism, emotionalism, or hero-worship. Now, more or less consciously, but none the less surely, the American people are trying to use it in their President-making.

## INDENTURED TO THE PUBLIC SERVICE.

If ever a man was put in training for the Presidency and kept there, and required to go through all the arduous experience sure to fit him for the final and highest promotion, that man is Mr. Taft. It does not matter that this was what we may call unconscious design. In the very nature of the case it could not be conscious. There exists no power anywhere to sign an apprentice at the Presidential trade. But in the larger scheme of things, in that play of fate which some call Providence, it was just as if the power to indenture a Presidential apprentice had somewhere existed, and a young man named Taft had indentured himself to the American nation. Of course he did not himself realize it. But he played his part from the beginning precisely as if he had realized it. As a matter of fact, Mr. Taft never till quite recently had an ambition to be President. He was not one of those star-gazing youths who set out for the White House. This aspiration was not awakened in him till long after it would have had its birth in the minds of ninety-nine men out of a hundred placed as he was. It is well known that his real ambition, even as late as a year or two ago, was for the Supreme bench. But the beauty of it, the magnificence of it, from the character viewpoint, is that from first to last he unconsciously acted precisely as if he were conscious, as if he were ambitious for the Presidency, as if he realized that he had signed articles with the American people. That is the way the greatest achievements of the larger scheme of things are almost always worked out in this world.

## THE ESSENCE OF THE BLOOD OF THE PURITANS,—DEVOTION TO DUTY.

Mr. Taft trained himself for the Presidency, without knowing it, by always following the law of gravity of his nature, the force which compels him ever to do his best. His

is not a complex character. It is not difficult to analyze. It is large, massive, plain, strong, simple. But the very heart, essence, and vitality of it is this something within him which compels him, in every situation and task and relation, every day, hour, and moment, to give forth his best, to reserve nothing of strength from his duty, to forget himself, to throw himself into his work with all his might for the very love of doing that or through the sheer impossibility of doing anything else. The blood of the Puritans is in his veins, and Duty is the god of the practical modern Puritan.

We read this dominant note of his character,—this seeking of excellence,—throughout all we know of his half-century of life. In boyhood he excelled both in games and studies. At Yale he was not only the most popular man of his class as "Big Bill Taft," but the leader of his class in every activity,—the stroke of his class crew, the champion wrestler of the university, and finished second in scholarship in a class of more than 100. Leaving college, he took up the first work that came to hand, as newspaper and law reporter while studying law. He was a good reporter, a good student. Though he had a famous and well-to-do father, he made his way on his own merits. He practiced law with success, held one or two minor offices in Cincinnati, became a judge of the Superior Court of that city, and a little more than eighteen years ago appeared in Washington as Solicitor-General under the Administration of President Harrison. Here again his habit of hard work stood him in good stead. He won several important cases, and attracted attention above the ordinary run of easy-going departmental officials. At this time, also, he met and made a friend of another young official, then Civil Service Commissioner Roosevelt. It was not strange that Roosevelt, the energetic, the strenuous, and Taft, "the big steam-engine working day and night," should find something in common; nor is it necessary to say that the friendship between them has been of importance to both, and is likely to continue of importance for years to come.

WHAT A MAN DOES IS THE MAN —TAFT  
DOES MUCH.

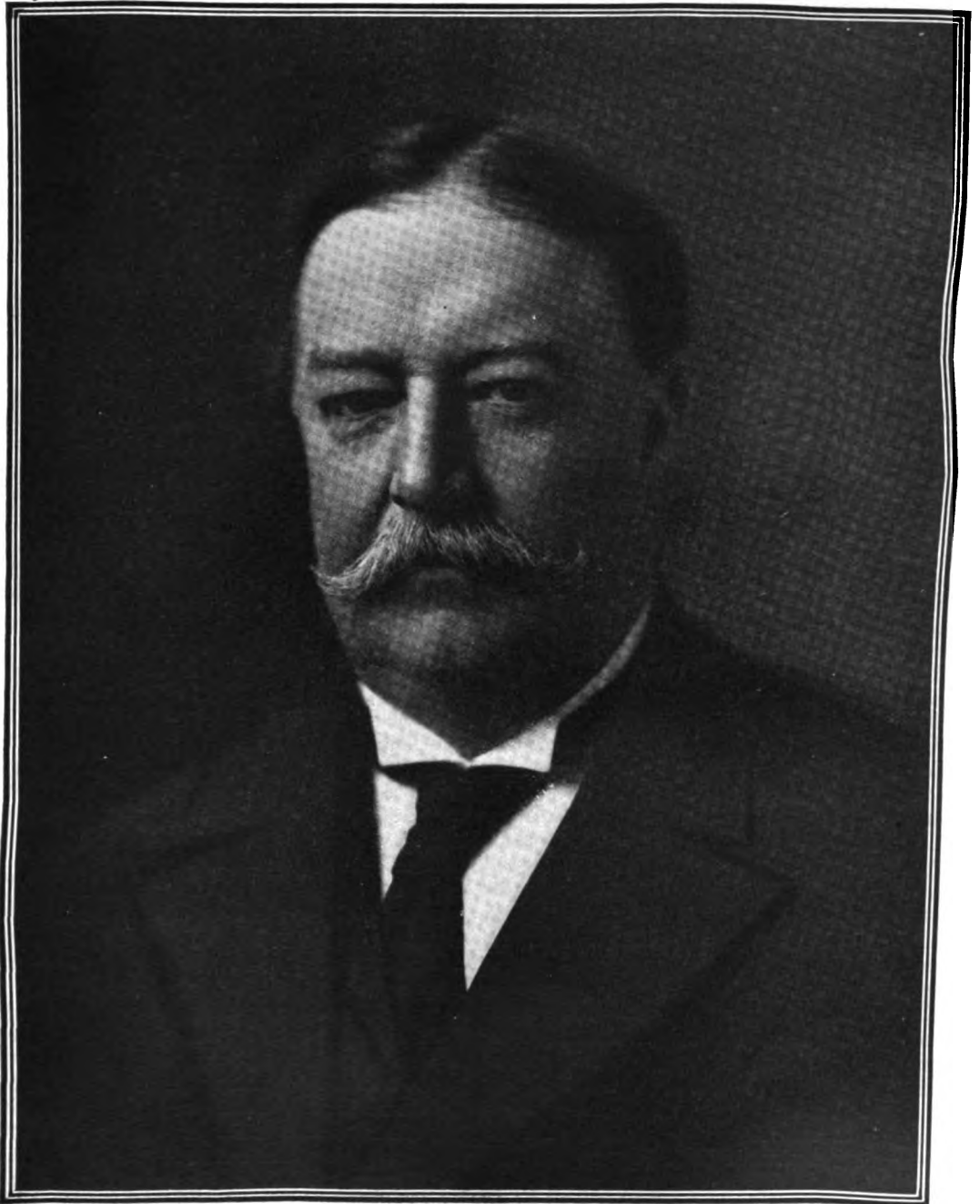
We are less concerned with Mr. Taft's history than with his character. But what a man does is the man. And Mr. Taft has done much. Upon leaving Washington it was to become United States Circuit Judge

at Cincinnati. Here again he did his best. Duty was his master. He rendered certain decisions affecting labor which to this day are much discussed, which have brought him more or less criticism from labor leaders and spokesmen. Without discussion of those decisions, this much may be said: He may have been mistaken, though that is far from being established; he may have erred in interpretation of law, though the chances are that he was wholly right; but that he was "an enemy of labor," that he leaned this way or that through prejudice or association or environment, is impossible. That is not in his nature. He could not do it. He never did it. Whatever he did he did because he believed it was his duty; and that he would have done at any cost. Moreover, there was courage as well as conscience in those decisions. One of them was rendered in troubled times. There was a railway strike; passions ran high; a number of men, misrepresenting labor, gathered in the courtroom, and muttered that if the judgment were against them the judge should not leave the building alive. The blue-eyed judge faced them serenely, smilingly; calmly he announced his decision. Then the smile vanished, a fighting glint came into the blue eyes, down upon the desk banged a large, firm hand, and a clear voice rang out: "When you leave this room I want you to do so with the knowledge that if there is enough power in the army of the United States to run these trains, these trains will run." Then the judge strode out of the room, unafraid, and the sullen crowd melted away. The trains were run.

#### DUTY SUMMONS FROM THE QUIET BENCH TO THE FIELD OF STRENUOUS ACTION.

It was in 1900 that Mr. Taft made his appearance upon the national field of action. President McKinley was in trouble about the administration of the difficult affairs of the Philippines. He was at loss to find the man for the emergency. "I want a man who is big, strong, patient, tactful yet firm, and willing to kill himself with hard work if necessary," said McKinley to Mr. Day, then his Secretary of State. "Why don't you send for him, then?" replied Day; "Will Taft is the man you want,—he's on the bench at Cincinnati." McKinley telegraphed Taft to come to Washington. Taft came, without the slightest idea what was wanted of him. He was amazed when told it was desired he go to the Philippines and try to create a na-





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HON. WILLIAM H. TAFT.

(Born at Cincinnati, September 15, 1857; son of the Hon. Alphonso Taft, Attorney-General in President Grant's cabinet; graduated at Yale, 1878; married at Cincinnati, June, 1886, Helen Herron; assistant prosecuting attorney of Hamilton County, Ohio, 1881-2; collector of internal revenue, first district of Ohio, 1882-3; assistant county solicitor, Hamilton County, 1885-7; judge of the Superior Court of Ohio, 1887-90; Solicitor-General of the United States, 1890-2; United States Circuit Judge, sixth circuit, 1892-1900; president of the United States Philippine Commission, March 13, 1900-February 1, 1904; first civil governor of the Philippine Islands, July 4, 1901-February 1, 1904; Secretary of War of the United States since February 1, 1904.)



tion out of that crude, peculiar, bickering, heterogeneous, unpromising human mass. Taft did not want to go, and said so frankly, adding that he had not believed in holding the Philippines, and that his ambition was for judicial, not executive, work. "But here is one of the most difficult tasks now confronting our nation," said McKinley. "You are the man to do it. You must help me out. It is your duty." And because he, too, saw that it was his duty, and for no other reason, Taft at length assented. In this way Taft started upon the real work of his life, giving up his ambition, his congenial post, taking on a responsibility in which no one could see aught but killing work and vexation and possibly failure at the end of it. Just because it was duty.

#### HOW THE LAUGHING, WORKING GIANT CARRIED THE WHITE MAN'S BURDEN.

That was only eight years ago. The story of Taft's achievements in these eight years reads more like the narrative of some hero of fiction than the sober chronicle of actual experience. In three and a half centuries Spanish rule had given the people of the Philippines one institution,—the church. In three and a half years Taft molded them into a nation,—a rudimentary nation, true, but equipped with all the institutions of modern civilization. He smiled upon those people, and won their liking; he laughed with them, and won their good humor; he worked for them, and won their confidence; he made "the Philippines for the Filipinos" his guiding star, and in the end won not only the people of the islands but all those who would exploit those people and those islands; the strong human side of him impelled him to make the Filipinos his children, his wards, and for them he worked and fought, not only at Manila, but at Washington, in defiance of prejudice, and politics, and tariff narrowness, and now the Filipinos affectionately call him "Santo Taft." To them he must indeed appear as something like a saint. To the observing world his work out there in the islands of the Pacific takes rank among the greatest achievements of constructive statesmanship shining upon the pages which tell the story how the white man has carried his burden. It was Taft who convinced a skeptical world that the Americans not only had the power successfully to administer a colonial trust, but to administer it beneficently, unselfishly. And we all know that during a certain period of national doubt, uncertainty,

even reaction in vexation as to the future of that trust, it was the will, the purposefulness, the tenacity, the success of this administrator,—working like a human steam engine at Manila and appealing to the American people at home for justice and help and patience,—that protected the national conscience and preserved the national honor. That we did not make the failure in the Philippines which the world had expected we should make was due to the skill and genius of this young man who had stepped from the bench to the most difficult administrative task in the world. The smiling, laughing, working giant carried with full success his large share of the white man's burden.

#### A QUICK-FOOTED, WORKING, FIGHTING, LAUGHING ELEPHANT.

All along the path of this man from boyhood to now, from the hulking youth who out-wrestled every one at Yale to the "quick-footed fighting elephant of our modern politics," ready to step into the Presidency if his party can carry the country, we gather incidents which speak of his courage, his strength, his self-sacrifice, his endurance, his justice, his patience, his humor, his wholesomeness, his firmness, his intense humanness. He affords us a convincing example that a man may smile and smile and still be strong as a giant and firm as a rock. He shows us how true was that word of the late Senator Hoar "that the best boy has something manly about him, and the best man has much of the boy in him." Taft is a man many of whose ways are those of a boy, a big, husky, rollicking boy, ever ready for a laugh or a joke or a prank, yet never overstepping the bounds of dignity, mixing jest and laughter with work, always bright and sunny, yet always a marvel of industry and achievement.

At college we see him declining to accept a class post of honor because some one had questioned the regularity of his election, only to be unanimously chosen to the same place immediately afterward. At Cincinnati we see him giving a sound and well-deserved thrashing to the editor of a scurrilous sheet who had slandered his father. As judge on the federal bench we see him declining an offer to go to New York as member of a law firm, with a guaranty of \$50,000 a year, saying "there are bigger things in this world than money." In the Philippines we see him taking advantage of every possible means of winning the affection and confidence of his wards, even going so far as to have a native

prepare for him a diagram of the native rigodon, or Spanish quadrille, that he might study its movements and be able to lead the wives of the presidentes through its mazes in a manner creditable to the governor of the islands and builder of a new nation,—in forty days attending no fewer than a score of state balls, and literally dancing and smiling his way into the hearts of the people. We see him, at the end of a long, hard ride in the hot sun upon the back of a mule, keeping his own dinner waiting an hour while he goes in person to make sure that the weary beast of burden had his supper. We see him at his summer home in Quebec, at midnight, clad in the robes of repose, walking barefoot through the dewy grass with a mosquito-bitten and sleepless babe on either arm that tired womenfolk might sleep. This giant is as gentle as he is strong.

THE DYNAMIC VALUE OF SUNSHINE.

The laugh of Taft, deep, rumbling, laugh-compelling, the laugh of a whole-souled, wholesome, buoyant, boyish man, full of love of life and his fellows and of confidence in himself, has been heard around the world. It is as well known in Asia and Europe as in America. It has been heard in Cuba and at Panama and at Rome and St. Petersburg and Tokio and Peking. This man who laughs while he works, and who makes others work and laugh, has diffused the warmth of his nature in many places while engaged in many difficult tasks. Probably the laugh is an effective part of his equipment; after Taft, who can deny the dictum of physics that there is wonderful dynamic force in sunshine? Even the Taft jokes are of world-wide fame, such as Root's cabled reply to Taft's message from the Philippines that he had that day ridden forty miles on horseback: "Fine, but how is the horse?" Such as the quip that "Secretary Taft is the most gallant man in Washington; he got up in a street-car the other day and gave his seat to two ladies." And the story of the torn trousers which could not be mended for an hour and kept the Czar of all the Russias waiting for the untrousered American statesman. The humor of Taft and the humor about Taft fit the humor of the American people. The people love the human side of their big men. They like to know that their high official servants are "just like the rest of us." They like Taft all the better for the trousers that were torn at St. Petersburg, all the better because he and Mrs. Taft were good

enough Americans to make a famous tour of the world, meeting mikados and emperors and kings and kaisers, without taking with them either maid or valet.

A GIANT POSSESSED OF THE MISSIONARY SPIRIT.

We see him working so hard at Manila that he exhausts the strength of all his aides, one after another, and at last his own health breaks down and his doctor tells him he must rest and return to the United States or his life will be in danger. Just at this time comes an offer from the President of the United States to give him the seat on the Supreme bench which his lawyer's heart had always craved; but he fears that if he leaves the islands at that juncture his work and his wards may suffer, and he cables Washington: "Thanks, but impossible to leave here now." Again, within a year, the same temptation is placed before him, and again it is resisted. We see him many times appearing before Congressional committees, pleading for justice for his people, for help in the great task of making a free and progressive nation of them. One of these campaigns of education continued almost every day for six weeks and gave to the records a history and description of the Filipino people, their condition and needs, without a parallel in colonial history for mastery of details, for sympathetic insight, for thorough understanding. And during one of these sessions we are not surprised to hear him say, laughingly, "I believe I must be possessed of a little of the missionary spirit."

AN APOSTLE OF PLAIN, BLUNT FRANKNESS.

Taft is a missionary, in his work, but not much of a preacher in words. He is not as handy with homilies as are those born pedagogues and preachers, President Roosevelt and Mr. Bryan. Yet his blunt frankness, his abhorrence of indirection, his detestation of cowardice or "trimming," lead him often to say disagreeable things in a most agreeable way,—to tell people that which they do not like to hear. Thus we hear him making a speech in Ohio denouncing a local boss without whose aid the Republicans could not carry the State, and without whose enforced support Taft himself would have had trouble in getting the delegates from his home city. We hear him making a speech in the capital city of a Western State, where the Governor was idolized by a great majority of the people, and criticising that Governor by name, out of

sheer intellectual courage,—some might call it recklessness,—because there was not great need of it; that Governor, now a Senator, is a “favorite son” candidate against Taft. He goes to Boston and tells the “anti-imperialists” who would give the Filipinos their complete independence the plain, blunt truth about the Philippines. He goes to Cooper Union in New York City to make a speech, and when he learns that the local managers have sought to protect him by ordering that the custom of asking questions shall be dispensed with for this occasion brings his big fist down, saying: “No, no; they shall ask as many questions as they like, and I shall try to answer them.” He faced a hall full of questioners, met every inquiry with the utmost frankness, and won the admiration and confidence of the very men who had come to hear him with hostile feelings and a wish to annoy him. When he speaks before an audience of laborers he condemns strike violence and judicially tells them how far the courts should go, or should not go, in issuing injunctions. He tells 2000 colored men and women at Tuskegee that the “reconstruction era” was a disgrace to our nation, and approves the constitutional limitations of suffrage recently fixed by Southern States. To an audience of business men and financiers he points out that the recent panic was in large part precipitated by evil practices of business and finance.

#### AN EPISODE WHICH SHOWS TAFT AS A “POOR POLITICIAN.”

Because of this invariable frankness, of this scorn of treacle and love of plain-speaking, it long ago became a tradition at the national capital that “Taft was a mighty poor politician,” that he might reach the Presidency if he had more political sense. But he has gone his way, and he seems to be going far. Sometimes the man who appears the poorest politician is the best; and it seems certain there is nothing the American people so much love as frank openness in their public men, especially if high ideals and moral courage go with them. The rise of Roosevelt, Bryan, and Taft is proof of that. Those who thought Taft a great administrator but a poor politician were sure of it last year when he rejected overtures for peace in Ohio. Not for its historic value, but for the flood of light it throws upon the character of Taft, is this episode of interest. Senator Crane, of Massachusetts, with a genius for compromises and peace-making, and with the best

intentions in the world, sought to still the storm of party strife in Ohio. His plan was simple,—Ohio for Taft for President, for Foraker for another term in the Senate. Crane saw Foraker; he was willing. He saw President Roosevelt; the President thought it a fine idea. “Go and tell Taft I like it and think it should go through.”

Thus encouraged, the friend of peace sought Taft. To his amazement, Taft would have none of it. He was told what President Roosevelt had said, but that did not change his own opinion. That there might be no misunderstanding, he made plain his attitude in words like these: “What you virtually ask me to do is to enter into a compact that in consideration of Senator Foraker’s support of me for President I am to ask my friends in Ohio to support him for Senator. Now, I have no objection to the re-election of Senator Foraker. I have for him none but the kindest feelings. If I were asked to give him my individual support, that I could do. But it is not my individual support that is asked for. It happens that many of my friends in Ohio are opposed to the return of Mr. Foraker to the Senate. They had determined to oppose him long before I was thought of for the Presidency. If I make a pledge with you it is for them. I shall be expected to control them. In other words, to help myself I must limit their freedom of action, induce them to do something which they do not wish to do, which is against their convictions. In plain English, to secure harmony in Ohio I must sell out my friends. This I absolutely refuse to do. This is my answer,—once and for all, no. A man might pay too high a price for the Presidency.”

#### AND YET THE “POOR POLITICIAN” TRAVELS FAST AND FAR.

For this Taft was denounced as a stubborn, brutal man, without any political sense. Probably if he had been a clever, adroit politician he would have found the way to secure Foraker’s support by asking his friends to support Foraker, though not guaranteeing that they would comply with his request. Taft was a poor enough politician to scorn any such indirection, and the result was war instead of harmony in Ohio. If Taft had entered this compact his nomination would have been assured months ago. Not only would all opposition have disappeared in Ohio, but the “allies” or field candidates would not have had the encouragement of Senator Crane and other leaders who thought

Foraker had been badly treated. There would not have been much trouble over the Brownsville affair, and the so-called "negro revolt" would never have threatened Taft's success. And yet, in the end, in the larger working out of things, it does not appear that Taft was such a poor politician, after all. It is never poor politics to be honest, straightforward, honorable to friend and foe.

**"THE BIGGEST GOING CONCERN IN THE COUNTRY."**

It has become axiomatic at Washington that whenever trouble occurs anywhere in the world beyond the power of the ordinary agencies to deal with, Taft is the man who must be sent to straighten it out. Not only did he bring order out of chaos in the Philippines, but he averted civil war and anarchy in Cuba, settled the difficult problem of the friars' lands by a visit to the Vatican, started the vast activity at Panama in effective fashion, and then went back again to adjust a threatened struggle between two jarring States. Though the Secretary of Peace, he carried on the War Department with a strong grip upon its details, helped reorganize the army and create a general staff, and incidentally found time to make a tour of the world and to travel all over the country as a fast-rising favorite for the Presidency. It is not surprising, in view of his achievements, his record as a getter of results, as a doer, that President Roosevelt should say of him: "Taft is the biggest going concern in the country." He keeps going all the time. He works from eight in the morning till midnight. He not only works hard, but plays hard, laughs hard, sleeps hard, eats hard, and sometimes hits hard when roused, as Bowen and Stevens would be willing to certify. If he keeps going with luck this giant of a boy will reach the post for which destiny has been training him through these busy years.

The Presidency is without much doubt just what President Roosevelt has called it, "the hardest job on earth." To achieve success in it much more than intellectual equipment is required. Indeed, it may be doubted if a genius of the first rank could, under present conditions, make a success of it at all. Given a fairly strong mind and will, which pertain without question to any man who reaches the White House, beyond that success or failure is largely a matter of temperament. Chief of the temperamental qualities is tact, pa-

tience, good humor,—in the last analysis the ability to work well and smoothly with men, to avoid friction, to attract loyalty, to get the best possible out of subordinates and out of the co-ordinate branch, the Congress. The Presidency is now so big a post, its duties are so complex, they ramify so extensively and intimately to all the activities of the Government and of the people, that the human-nature side of the occupant of the high chair is of far greater importance than the intellectual side. President McKinley was a good example: Not intellectually great, but well-balanced, a good judge of men, wonderfully clever in extracting from men the best they had, whether of thought or work, he became known as an adroit, smooth, eminently successful managing director of the Government. Mr. Roosevelt, more intellectual and original, more courageous, more the reformer, with a broader grasp of things and a far greater desire to initiate and complete, a leader, not an opportunist, gets on fairly well with men, too,—most men.

**NOT ONLY THOROUGH TRAINING, BUT A PERFECT TEMPERAMENT.**

Not only has Taft had the training that fits him to be President; he has the temperament. It would be difficult to imagine a temperament better adapted than his to this difficult task. He is a happy half-way between McKinley and Roosevelt, with most of the strength and few of the weaknesses of both. He has the training of the lawyer, of the judge, of the administrator, of the diplomat. He knows the American people, he knows the Government, he knows the affairs of the world. He has an almost unprecedented power of handling affairs and men. Serenity abides with him, and patience, and justice, and strength, and firmness. He may never fire the hearts of the people as Roosevelt has; he may never be looked upon by all as a paragon of unpicturesque goodness, as was McKinley. But if Taft becomes President he will get results. He will be master without carrying a whip. He will always strive, as we see he has always striven, to use infinite pains to get at all the facts, to clarify them, to form slow but sure judgments, and then to stand by them. At the White House, if Taft presides there, will be a great calm, great patience of listening and investigation, great energy of work, great good humor, great peace.

# SAN FRANCISCO TWO YEARS AFTER.

BY COLVIN B. BROWN.

**T**WO years have passed since the San Francisco disaster. On the 21st day of April, 1906, men looked at the smoldering ruins left by a three days' fire and declared that the city would never be rebuilt; others, more sanguine, thought otherwise, but were sure it would take three years to clear away the débris alone, and it would be at least ten, and probably fifteen, years before the city would bear even a faint resemblance to its former self. And those who made these predictions had no prescience of other calamities that were to follow hard on the heels of the great catastrophe which had crumbled the city into ashes; for there were to follow bribery and corruption on the part of city officials, strikes, financial panic, and a plague epidemic.

With these things in mind it is almost impossible to believe the evidence of what has been done toward the reconstruction of San Francisco in the past two years. The fire of April 18, 19, and 20, 1906, destroyed 512 blocks of buildings, valued at \$105,000,000. Within the two years since buildings to the value of \$102,186,517 have been erected, or are being erected, within this burned area, and the square feet of floor space is said to be now almost equal to, if not in excess of, what it was before the disaster. The total number of buildings burned was 28,188, by far the larger number being frame or low brick structures. These have been replaced by 14,270 modern structures, for the most part far better and larger than those destroyed. The best and most accurate statistics on the subject are those gathered by the California Promotion Committee and published in bulletin form on the second anniversary of the disaster. This bulletin shows that within the past two years the following buildings have been constructed or are in course of construction, it being assumed that work has been begun whenever a building permit has been granted: Sixty-three class "A" fireproof buildings, valued at \$16,452,000; ninety-five reinforced concrete, brick, or stone, with steel floor beams, practically fireproof, valued at \$7,036,671; 1907 concrete, brick, or stone, with wooden floor beams, valued at \$33,547,219; 8817 frame buildings, valued at \$37,139,694; changes

and alterations to the number of 4198 at a value of \$8,010,933.

Practically all of this work has been done without outside aid, the money, with the exception of \$3,000,000 or \$4,000,000, having been supplied by San Francisco capitalists and financial institutions; and notwithstanding this drain upon her resources, a financial panic that affected every community in the country, labor troubles, and graft, no San Francisco savings-bank has failed or shown the slightest element of weakness. The only failure of any moment was that of a trust company whose mismanagement was so flagrantly bad and dishonest that it would have failed in any event.

Notwithstanding the enormous expenditure of money in rebuilding a city within so short a time, San Francisco makes one of the best showings of any city of the first class in the United States in the percentage of mortgage indebtedness in relation to the actual value of real estate and improvements. In San Francisco this percentage is 17. In New York it is 39, in Philadelphia 54, in Pittsburg 20, and in Cleveland 27.

An idea of the volume of business transacted by San Francisco is given in her bank clearings, which, for the year ending April 18, 1907, were \$2,066,885,508. For the year ending April 18, 1908, the clearings were \$1,910,676,694. Eliminating the nearly \$200,000,000 of insurance money paid the preceding year, this would indicate an increase the second year of nearly \$100,000,000.

San Francisco's population, which was estimated at 500,000 before the fire, has almost reached that point again. According to calculations made on November 1, 1907, the population was then 479,635. As it has been increasing steadily ever since, it may now be safely estimated at close to what it was before the disaster. The four bay cities, —San Francisco, Oakland, Berkeley, and Alameda,—have increased their population 150,000 within two years, and the territory within a radius of fifteen miles of the San Francisco city hall is conservatively estimated to have a population of 850,000, with good reason to believe that it will pass the million mark before the close of 1910.



THE NEW PALACE HOTEL IN COURSE OF CONSTRUCTION.  
(The Spreckels Building in the background to the left.)

So much for the two years that have passed away; but how about the present? Figures also tell this story, and they show that there is no apparent diminution in the work of reconstruction and the volume of business transactions. During the month of April, last past, permits were issued for buildings to the value of \$2,786,696, and the month's bank clearings were \$140,304,498. The bank clearings for the past year were several millions in excess of the combined clearings of the five Pacific Coast cities next to San Francisco in population. A bank statement recently issued shows that the deposits in San Francisco savings-banks exceed the combined deposits in such banks in Kansas City, Minneapolis, Denver, St. Paul, and Omaha.

On Monday, May 11, last, the electors of San Francisco voted by almost ten to one in favor of the issuance of \$18,200,000 bonds for municipal improvements, \$5,200,000 of which will go into an auxiliary water system for fire protection. With this added to a previous debt of but \$3,436,000 the city still has

a borrowing capacity under the charter of \$46,000,000.

The remarkable recuperative power shown by the people of San Francisco is due to the continually increasing demands of sound business conditions existing in the interior of the State. It is not only the port of import and export and the clearing-house for the State's business, but it is the market to which the State goes to buy its supplies. Interior California could not get along without San Francisco, and it will demand an increasingly larger San Francisco to supply its growing requirements.

When the exact condition of affairs is more widely known Eastern capital will begin seeking investments in real-estate mortgages in the city by the Golden Gate, and when that time comes there will be an increased impetus to building transactions. Those on the ground, familiar with conditions, have no reservation in saying that 1908 will show a bigger building record than 1907 and that most of the work will be done with outside money.

# HOW SCIENCE FIGHTS THE INSECT ENEMIES OF OUR CROPS.

BY LOUIS E. VAN NORMAN.

**I**T will probably startle the average American citizen to learn that every year insect pests damage our live stock and the agricultural products of our soil to an amount exceeding the entire expenditures of the national Government, including the pension roll and the maintenance of the army and navy. In no other country in the world do insects impose so heavy a tax on the products of the farm as in the United States. A scientific agricultural writer (C. L. Marlatt, assistant entomologist in the national Bureau of Entomology) estimated a few years ago that a total of more than \$700,000,000 annual loss due to insect pests in the United States is below rather than above the actual damage.

Despite the careful and thorough work done to eradicate these pests great damage is still inflicted by them. Before the cotton-worm was studied and the method of controlling it by the use of arsenic sprays had become common knowledge this plague had levied a tax of \$30,000,000 in bad years on the cotton crop. This estimate and those that follow are based on the official figures of the Department of Agriculture for the calendar year 1904,—the latest statistics available. Much saving has been effected since then by the methods of the Bureau of Entomology and the State Entomologists, but the aggregate loss is still enormous. A knowledge of the habits and the methods of controlling or avoiding the Hessian fly, including improved cultural methods, has resulted in the saving of wheat values to the farmer aggregating from \$100,000,000 to \$200,000,000 annually. The apple crop of the country is worth from \$6,000,000 to \$8,000,000 more since the as yet incomplete control of the codling moth has been generally understood. The root worm was almost baffled by the principle of rotation of corn with oats, thus saving the corn crop to the extent of many millions annually. The annual losses occasioned to forests and forest products by insect pests have been estimated at not less than \$100,000,000, of which \$70,000,000 is damage sustained by the growing timber. The tobacco crop suffers from in-

sects to the extent of more than \$5,000,000. The white scale would have completely destroyed the orange and lemon orchards of California but for the introduction of one of its natural enemies from Australia, while the control of the Mexican boll weevil has already saved the farmers of Texas an enormous sum, and has really made the continuance of cotton-growing possible.

Besides these direct losses enormous damage is done by insects to cattle and in the transmission of disease to man. The loss in the value of horse, sheep, and cattle products directly chargeable to insects (the ox warble, the buffalo gnat, and the various biting flies and ticks) would aggregate, Government statisticians figure, not less than \$175,000,000 annually. To this must be added the cost of protection from insect damage to stores' products and from the noxious mosquito, fly, and other disease-bearing insects. Undoubtedly mosquitoes as carriers of malaria and yellow fever, and flies as transmitters of typhoid, occasion the loss of another \$50,000,000 or \$60,000,000 in the form of lessened economic productivity.

The economic entomologist in this country has more than justified his work. It is over a decade since he forced an unwilling public to admit that he was not a cranky theorist or "bugologist," but a real scientific student whose advice is worth millions of dollars annually to the agricultural producers of the country. By American thoroughness the science of applied entomology has been developed until we are the most advanced people of the world in this respect. Our methods of controlling insect pests are being copied in foreign countries, and many trained experts from this country are being sent abroad to take charge of insect bureaus and campaigns.

How to eradicate the insect pests of the plant and animal, or how to so control their ravages as to reduce them to a minimum,—this is the problem of the economic entomologist. It may be said that the progress and achievements of this science in this country are almost identical with the work and organization of the Bureau of Entomology,



which has become one of the most important and useful sections of the national Department of Agriculture. Dr. L. O. Howard, who for the past fourteen years has been at the head of the bureau performing this big work of the economic control of insect pests, has seen his organization increase from a small division with an annual appropriation of some \$35,000, and with less than a dozen assistants, to a bureau with many distinct lines of investigation, expending during the present year nearly a half of a million dollars and engaging the full time and energies of more than 100 trained entomologists. The bureau issues a number of publications, covering the entire field of entomology in its relation to economics. An idea of the scope of its activities may be seen from the work actually done during the year ending June 30, 1907. One of the bulletins classifies this as follows:

(1) Work on the Mexican cotton boll weevil and other insects affecting cotton; (2) work on the gipsy moth and the brown-tail moth; (3) importations of useful insects; (4) exportations of useful insects; (5) investigations of insects damaging forests; (6) investigations of insects damaging deciduous fruit trees; (7) field-crop insect investigations; (8) work on insects injurious to vegetable crops; (9) white-fly investigations; (10) investigations of insects in their direct relation to the health of man and domestic animals; (11) work on scale insects; (12) work on insects injurious to stored products; (13) experimental work with insecticides; (14) investigations of insects affecting tobacco, and (15) inspection work.

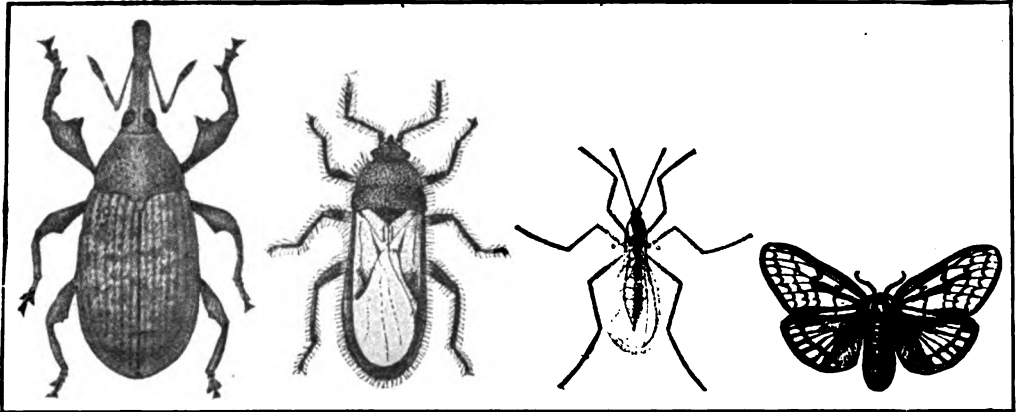
The Bureau of Entomology is an organization with a fixed center at Washington in the Agricultural Department and a number of experimental laboratories scattered throughout the country. In addition, the chief or some other members of the bureau are constantly traveling throughout the country and abroad for the purpose of studying insect pests in other countries or arranging for the importation into the United States of parasites to prey upon these destructive insects. During the past few months Mr. A. L. Quaintance, who has been in charge of the investigations of deciduous fruit insects, has succeeded in establishing experimental field stations at North East, Pa., in the grape region; in Ohio, where the peach orchards are being investigated; in Michigan and Wisconsin, in the cranberry district; at Ozark, Ark., in the apple section, and at San José, Cal., where the destructive pear thrips is being investigated. At these field stations expert entomologists are pa-



DR. L. O. HOWARD, CHIEF OF THE BUREAU OF ENTOMOLOGY AT WASHINGTON.

tiently investigating the special malady of the plant in that district.

While we are reading so much about the destruction of the forests for man's use and by fire, it is certainly startling to hear the Government scientist declare that every year forest insects destroy much more merchantable timber in the Rocky Mountain and Pacific Coast States of our country than do all the forest fires combined. There are about twenty distinct species of destructive bark beetles constantly at work in our various forest areas. In the last few years more than 2,000,000,000 feet of timber (board measure) in the Black Hills region in South Dakota was killed by insects. In one area of 75,000 square miles southern-pine timber was destroyed by bark beetles. The presence of these insects is a constant menace to the forest, particularly the evergreen forest. The Bureau of Entomology has proved that extensive losses of timber can be prevented with very little expense if the question is taken up in time and the action based on expert advice. Dr. A. D. Hopkins, who is in charge of the



FOUR OF THE MOST DESTRUCTIVE ENEMIES OF AMERICAN STAPLE CROPS.

(The cotton boll weevil, the chinch bug, the Hessian fly, and the gypsy moth.)

forest-insect investigations of the bureau, working in co-operation with the Forest Service, another branch of the Department of Agriculture, announces that at least an annual inspection should be made of all forests (in August or September). Any evidence of the presence of bark beetles should be reported at once to the Bureau of Entomology, which will give specific advice.

American agriculture has suffered greater loss from the ravages of four now well-known insects than from all other causes combined. These four insects, the campaign against which is representative of the work of the Bureau of Entomology, are: the Hessian fly, the gypsy moth, the cotton boll weevil, and the San José scale.

To the Hessian fly and the chinch bug must be charged 90 per cent. of the damage done to the wheat and other cereal crops of the United States. Probably the Hessian fly is the greatest offender of all. Hundreds of thousands of acres of wheat have been totally destroyed during one year by its ravages or so badly injured as to reduce the yield 50 to 75 per cent. The Bureau of Entomology has devoted a great deal of study and attention to this pest and issued a number of bulletins on the subject.

The gypsy moth, a prominent Boston merchant is reported to have said, is perhaps the worst enemy the State of Massachusetts ever had. This moth, which is an importation from Europe, was introduced into Massachusetts accidentally about forty years ago. An astronomical instructor at Harvard University, who was interested in insects as a side issue, had imported certain moths and caterpillars from Europe for experimental

purposes. A storm destroyed his netting inclosure and liberated some of the caterpillars. Twenty years afterward the moth was noticed in the town of Medford. It had gradually adapted itself to the climate and by the summer of 1889 had become a notorious pest. The gypsy moth feeds on the foliage of practically all orchard trees, all shade and ornamental trees, and indeed all forest trees and every known outdoor shrub. Very soon in a territory covering thirty or forty miles around Boston every fruit and shade tree had been infested and very many of them killed. The plague spread to Maine, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Connecticut. The State government of Massachusetts was soon aroused to the necessity of fighting the insect and for ten years waged a campaign against it. Appropriations of money were made, and finally a law, passed in the Legislature of 1905, declared the gypsy and browntail moths to be nuisances, appointed a superintendent and agents to engage in the work of suppressing them, and called upon all citizens under penalty of fine to assist whenever called upon. Early in 1906 the national Congress appropriated \$82,500 to be expended in an effort to prevent the further spread of these moths, and for the coming fiscal year \$250,000 has been appropriated.

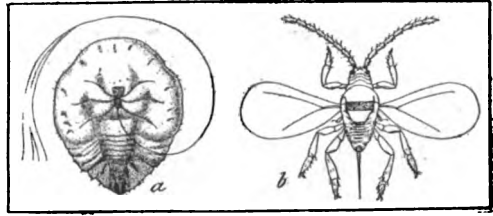
The appearance of the Mexican cotton boll weevil in Texas about fourteen years ago, just at the time and in the manner that had been predicted by the Bureau of Entomology, was a striking and dramatic demonstration of the usefulness of this division of the Department of Agriculture. The bureau warned the Texas State authorities that

this destructive insect had entered the State from Mexico and that the federal Government was powerless to aid other than by giving information and suggestions. The bureau even regarded the matter so serious that a special session of the Legislature to consider it was suggested. The people and authorities of the State of Texas, however, were inclined to ridicule the claims of the "bugologists" until almost too late. The boll weevil spread over the whole of southwest Texas. The *Galveston News* said in an editorial at the time (1901):

It wended its way upward and eastward. It found lodgment in the bottoms of the Trinity and Brazos rivers. It burned all cotton territory behind them as far as central Texas. The greatest cotton plantations in the world were laid waste and millions of dollars was lost to the Texas people. The rich cotton-planter was ruined. The poor cotton-picker was reduced to the most lamentable condition. Then, and not till then, did the people arouse to a realization of the greatness of the calamity. What the Department of Agriculture at Washington had prophesied had come to pass in an exaggerated way. The men who had made a study of the insect, who had foretold its depredations, if not prevented, and who had made what were called ridiculous suggestions, were called "bugologists" no longer. The clatrap politician, quick to know when to drop the humorous and assume the serious, called them entomologists, men of science, men of deep learning.

After much patient investigation the bureau has been able partially to control the ravages of this destructive insect through suggesting new cultural methods and the introduction of parasites, with the help of the now thoroughly awakened State authorities.

About thirty years ago deciduous fruit-growers of the San José region of California noticed that their orchards were suffering from the attacks of a small destructive insect which has since come to be known as the San José scale. In the early '90's it appeared in Eastern orchards and is now generally spread throughout the United States and parts of Canada. Its damage to deciduous fruits in California and other States has been almost beyond calculation. Several years' investigation by the Bureau of Entomology, including explorations in Japan and China, have resulted in the discovery, proved beyond doubt, that the native home of the San José scale is in China, in a region between Peking and the great wall. It was probably brought to America many years ago on imported Chinese flowering plants, since its first known appearance was in the gardens of a large importer of ornamental



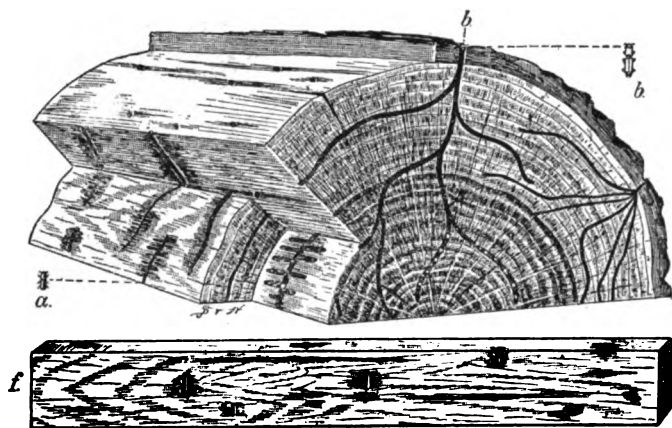
THE GREAT ENEMY OF ORANGE AND LEMON GROVES,  
—THE SAN JOSÉ SCALE.

(a, adult female; b, adult male. Both highly magnified. Reproduced from one of the bulletins of the Bureau of Entomology.)

plants. The Bureau of Entomology has discovered that a certain "lady bird" (scientifically known as the *Chilocorus similis*), a native of the same region, naturally feeds on the San José scale. A number of these "lady birds" were imported into this country, and after some acclimating it was found that they are of great assistance in keeping in check the destructive scale.

Among the other insect pests which have received special attention from the Bureau of Entomology, and which have been the subject of carefully prepared illustrated bulletins, are: The brown-tail moth, the army worm, the clothes moth, the cockroach, the house-fly, the potato bug, the white fly, the codling moth, the tobacco beetle, and the enemies of the silkworm. Dr. Howard's own investigations on the fever-carrying mosquitoes have appeared in book form and in a number of bulletins issued by the department. It is well known that malarial, typhoid, and yellow fever germs are carried by mosquitoes and flies. The Bureau of Entomology has proved that other well-known diseases are also transmitted by insects. In our Southern States the "pink eye" is carried by a certain fly, while in real tropical countries a disease closely akin to leprosy is transmitted to human beings by the mosquito. There is also reason to believe that the germs of the bubonic plague may be transferred from sick to healthy people by the bites of fleas. The so-called Texas fever of cattle is unquestionably transferable by the cattle tick, and for years it has been known that the germs of anthrax are carried by gad-flies. Dr. Howard's studies of the life, careers, and geographic distribution of these insects, particularly the yellow-fever bearing mosquito, have been the basis of recent quarantine work done in the United States.

The destruction or control of insect pests



A SECTION OF OAK, SHOWING THE RAVAGES OF THE AMBROSIA BEETLE.

(The letters *a* and *b* indicate the two varieties of beetle, *monarthrum mali* and *platypus compositus*, life size, and their work. The lower figure in the illustration, lettered *f*, shows how one of the logs cut from this timber looks. The illustration is by Dr. A. D. Hopkins, in charge of the forest insect investigations of the Bureau of Entomology.)

by the importation of their natural parasitic enemies, while an experiment still in its initial stages, promises, Dr. Howard believes, to furnish the key for a better solution of the problem than has yet been reached. Dr. Howard has personally been interested in the subject for years and has been connected with some of the important advances made in this direction, which in the systematic study of parasites and their biology he is one of the world's authorities. Within the past three years the State of Massachusetts has given him a large sum of money to spend in introducing from Europe the natural enemies of the gypsy and brown-tail moths. In Europe and Asia, the original home of these insects, they are far less destructive because they are kept in check by their forest enemies. Dr. Howard has made three trips to Europe to arrange for the collection of parasitic enemies of these moths in various portions of the continent extending as far as the Crimea, in Russia. Under his direction and preparation parasites of the gypsy moth and the brown-tail moth are being constantly shipped from various portions of Europe and Japan to the United States. These are imported under the most careful scientific supervision, in order to secure the most perfect results.

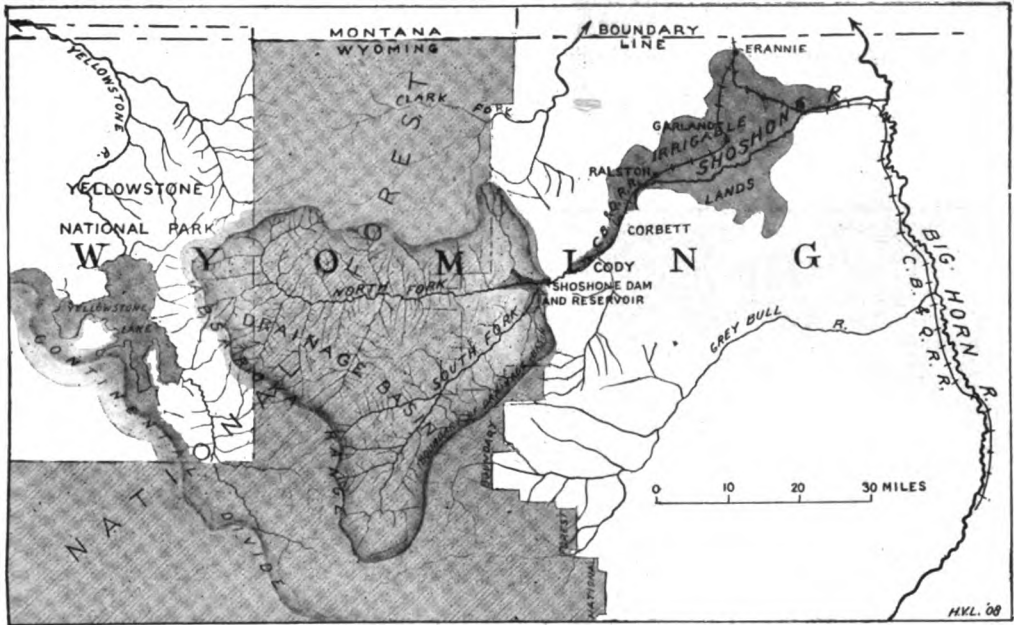
Dr. Leland O. Howard, chief of the Bureau of Entomology, is an excellent type of the American Government scientist. All of his life has been spent in the direct application of science to practical affairs. He is a Cornell man whose governmental career be-

gan with his appointment as assistant entomologist in 1878 in the Department of Agriculture, long before the work had attained its present proportions. In 1894 he was appointed chief of the division. Dr. Howard has received many honorary degrees and is an honorary member of many of the important scientific societies of the world. He is a lecturer and writer, having several books\* to his credit, as well as an ever-increasing list of magazine articles. He has also assisted in editing the Century and Standard dictionaries. While Dr. Howard's special field of investigation is insects that carry dis-

ease and the insect parasites of injurious insects, he has come to be an authority on many phases of entomology. He is permanent secretary of the American Association for the Advancement of Science and is the American representative of the International Agricultural Commission. He is, moreover, a man of rare executive ability, and has unusual capacity for inspiring his assistants to effective work.

Besides his contributions to purely scientific societies and causes, Dr. Howard is especially active in public and social life in Washington. He has been on the board of managers of the Washington Academy of Sciences since its incorporation, and, for many years, he has been secretary of the Cosmos Club, a unique social organization devoted to science, literature, and art. Probably what impresses one first and most with Dr. Howard is not his scientific achievements or his practical conduct of large affairs, but his personal qualities, which make for him the warmest friends. His gift of personal magnetism, geniality and companionableness has been of the greatest assistance to him throughout his career. This has doubtless had a large influence in bringing him the permanent secretaryship in the American Association for the Advancement of Science. It has also assisted in bringing to him a wide acquaintance and cordial friendship among scientific men in this country and in Europe.

\* "The Insect Book" (1901), and "Mosquitoes, How They Live" (1901).



SKETCH SHOWING THE LOCATION OF THE SHOSHONE DAM AND RESERVOIR, THE BASIN OF THE SHOSHONE RIVER, AND THE LANDS TO BE IRRIGATED UNDER THE SHOSHONE PROJECT.

## THE GOVERNMENT'S GREAT STORAGE DAMS

WHAT THEY WILL ACCOMPLISH TOWARD THE CONSERVATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE NATURAL RESOURCES OF THE WEST.

BY HENRI V. LEMÉNAGER.

(Chief Draftsman, United States Reclamation Service, Washington, D. C.)

**T**HE building of great dams to provide reservoirs for the storage of water must necessarily become a feature of primary importance in the development of any comprehensive scheme for the preservation of natural resources, including, as such a scheme must, the proper control of the rivers for the prevention of floods, for their development as waterways, and for the economical use of their waters for power and irrigation. In the Western States, in connection with the latter purposes, interesting and extensive developments have been taking place since the passing of the Reclamation act in 1902, several great storage dams being already under an advanced stage of construction by the Reclamation Service as essential features of some of the larger irrigation projects.

The building of these great structures, on account of the importance of the functions which they perform, the large financial expenditures involved, and the peculiar difficulties encountered in dealing with rivers of

the arid and semi-arid regions, which are subject to very high and very sudden floods, calls for engineering ability and constructive skill of the highest order.

It is not uncommon for some of the Western rivers where storage works are now under construction to be transformed within a few hours from trickling rivulets into raging torrents of uncontrollable power and proportions. These sudden floods may rise to a height of twenty-five feet or more in a single night, sweeping away in an incredibly short time the results of months of carefully planned and conscientious work, and perhaps burying out of sight and beyond recovery massive machinery and costly equipment that may have taken still longer to place in position and get into working order. Climatic conditions, moreover, as might be expected in the desert or at the high altitudes where such works are necessarily located, are usually marked by uncomfortable extremes of temperature, while transportation facilities are often entirely wanting until established



as an operation preliminary to the beginning of actual work. These, however, being precisely the conditions that give rise to the work of reclamation, such as can be are skilfully provided for, while others are

philosophically accepted as part of the game the engineer must play with Nature and with the elements.

Of several great storage dams at present under construction by the Reclamation Service perhaps the most strikingly interesting are the three high masonry dams known as the Shoshone, the Pathfinder, and the Roosevelt. The highest of these, the one in fact that will be distinguished as the highest dam in the world, is being built in the canyon of the Shoshone River in northwestern Wyoming, six miles west of the town of Cody, so named after Col. W. F. Cody, better known as "Buffalo Bill."

The Shoshone, or the Stinking Water River, as it was originally named, because of the occurrence along its course of springs giving off noxious gases, rises in northwestern Wyoming in the spurs of the eastern slope of the Great Continental Divide, known as the Absoraka and Shoshone ranges. The drainage basin of the river above the Shoshone dam is about 1300 square miles in extent, varies in altitude from 5000 to 12,000 feet, includes many high peaks within the Yellowstone National Park, and is remarkable for its wild and rugged scenery. The region is one of heavy snowfall, is well timbered, and, pursuant to the wise national policy of forest preservation, is included almost entirely within the great Yellowstone National Forest.

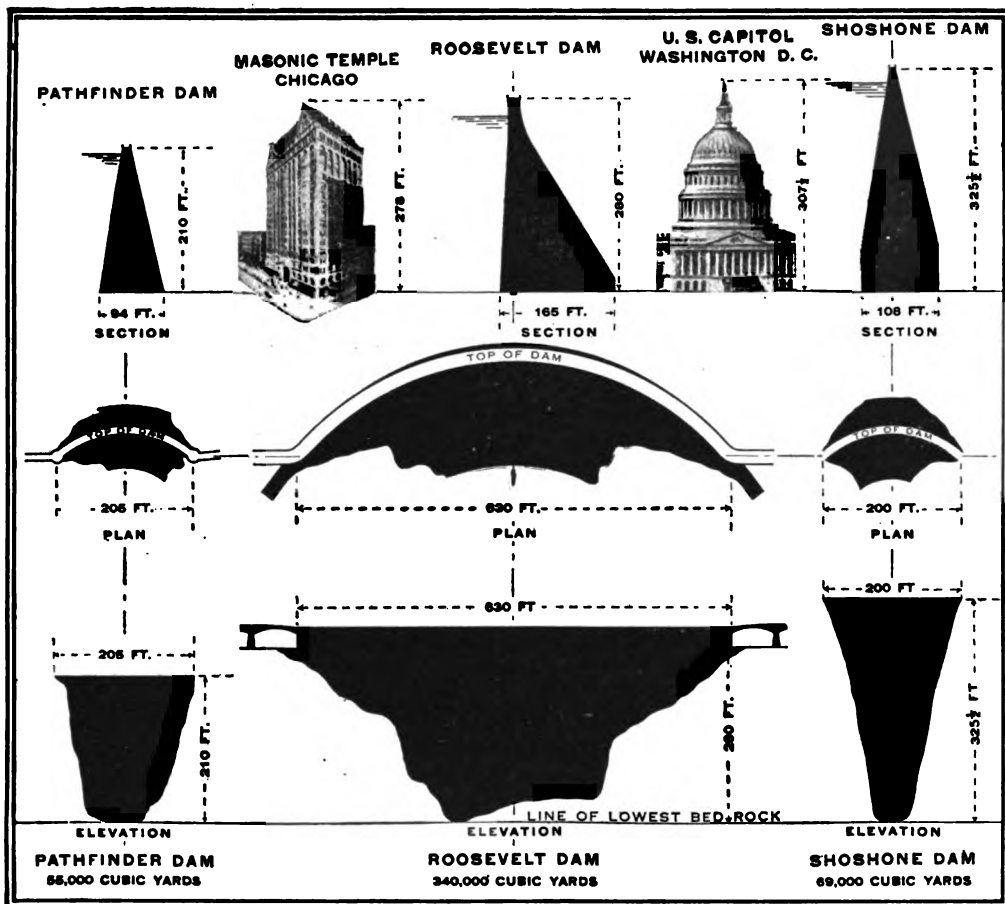
Just below where the two main forks of the river join is a narrow and deep canyon, the almost perpendicular granite walls of which rise to a height of several hundred feet. Through this gigantic crack in the solid rock the melting snows of the entire watershed just described find their only exit, carrying to waste during the annual flood season of a few weeks sufficient water to reclaim many thousands of acres of the desert lands of lower altitudes. Within this canyon, at a point of almost ideal natural advantages, is being molded the solid wedge of concrete which is to be known as the Shoshone dam.

The height of this towering structure when completed will be  $325\frac{1}{2}$  feet from lowest foundation to crest, its length at the top from wall to wall of the canyon about 200 feet, and its thickness at the base 108 feet. In plan the dam is of the arched type, wherein stability is secured by means of the form as well as the volume of the structure. The apex of the arch being turned up stream to resist the pressure of the im-



AT WORK ON THE RIGHT WALL OF THE CANYON OF THE SHOSHONE DAM SITES.

(This picture illustrates the difficult and hazardous nature of the work in preparing the walls of the canyon for the abutments of the dam. The workmen are conveyed to and from the point of operations in carriers swung from cables suspended across the canyon. The depth of the canyon at this point is about 300 feet.)



GRAPHIC DIAGRAM SHOWING THE RELATIVE HEIGHT, LENGTH, AND CUBIC CONTENTS OF THE PATHFINDER, ROOSEVELT, AND SHOSHONE DAMS; ALSO THEIR HEIGHTS COMPARED WITH THE UNITED STATES CAPITOL AND THE MASONIC TEMPLE AT CHICAGO.

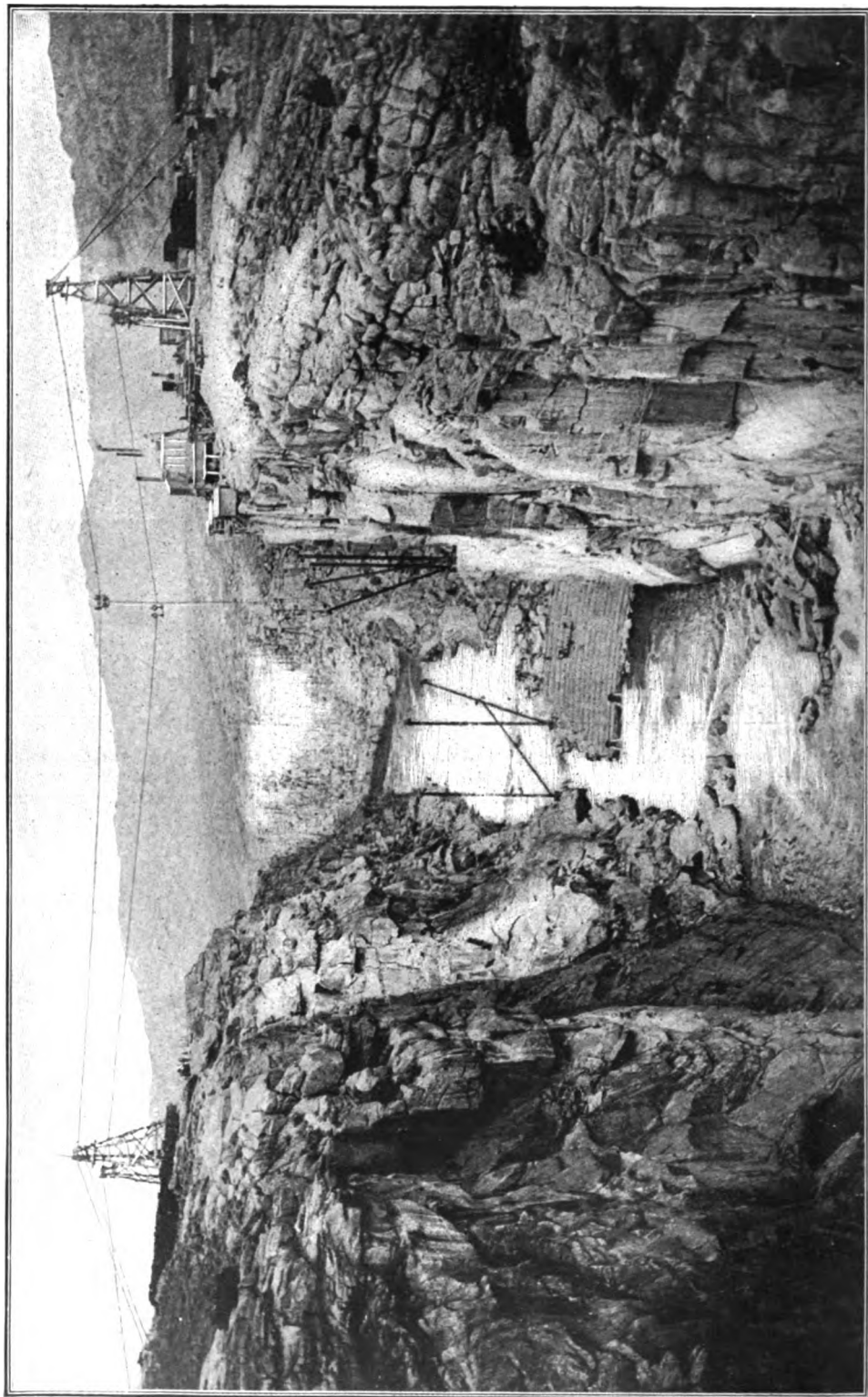
(The Shoshone dam, from lowest foundation to crest, not including the parapet wall, will be eighteen feet higher than the Capitol from the east-front street level to the crest of the statue. The Roosevelt dam, from foundation to crest, will be two feet higher than the Masonic Temple from street level to roof line.)

pounded waters, and the foundation and abutments literally dovetailed into the solid granite, the completed structure will form a concrete monolith of imposing proportions as well as tremendous strength and stability.

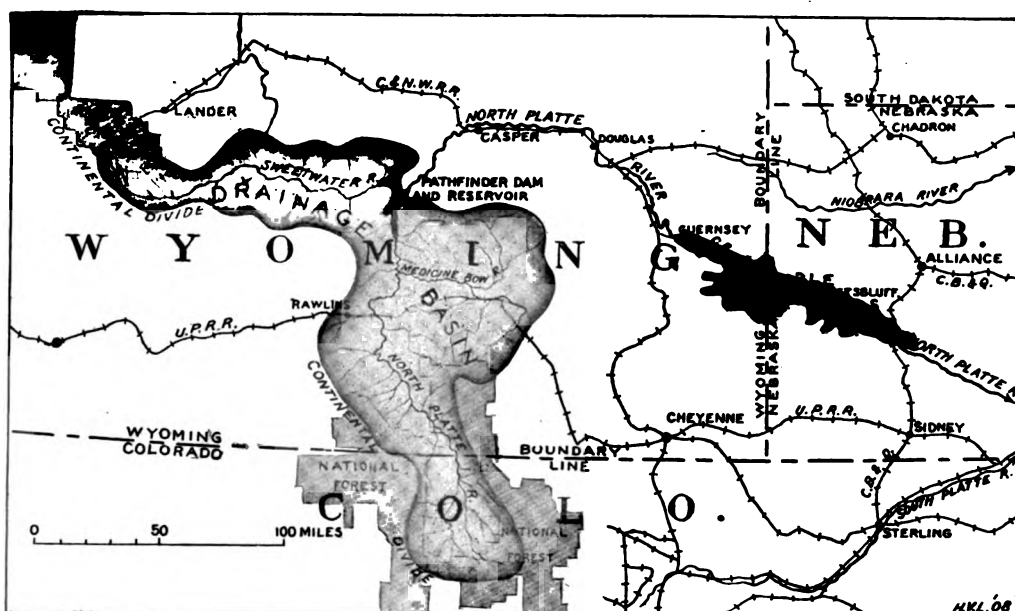
Passing around to the right of the dam at an elevation of about ten feet above the natural stream bed is the outlet tunnel, ten feet by ten feet in diameter. This tunnel was driven preliminary to beginning work on the dam in order that the normal flow of the river might be diverted through it during construction. After the dam is completed, the outlet tunnel, equipped with massive hydraulic gates, will serve to regulate the outflow of the stored water from the reservoir. Immediately upon the completion of the di-

version the work of clearing the dam site was undertaken, and this consisted in removing about seventy feet of loose rock and debris from the bed of the stream in order that the dam might rest upon the solid bedrock. Passing around the dam to the left, from a point within the reservoir at an elevation only a few feet below the top of the dam, will be the spillway tunnel, twenty feet by twenty feet in diameter, having a fall of ten feet in a hundred. At times of high water, or when otherwise the reservoir would fill up and overflow the top of the dam, the waters which collect in excess of the storage capacity of the reservoir will escape through this outlet with tremendous velocity, discharging into the canyon of the





GENERAL VIEW OF THE PATHFINDER DAM LOOKING UP THE CANYON OF THE NORTH PLATTE RIVER.  
(The dam when completed will reach to the top of the canyon.)



SKETCH SHOWING THE LOCATION OF THE PATHFINDER DAM AND RESERVOIR, THE AREA INCLUDED WITHIN THE BASIN, AND THE IRRIGABLE LANDS IN WYOMING AND NEBRASKA UNDER THE NORTH PLATTE PROJECT.

river below the dam and forming a magnificent waterfall of over 150 feet.

The purpose of the Shoshone dam is to provide a reservoir within which the floodwaters of the river will be stored for the irrigation of a tract of land of some 125,000 acres, extending about fifty miles farther down the river. The Shoshone reservoir will be twelve miles in length, have a surface area of over ten square miles, a storage capacity of 456,000 acre-feet, and a maximum depth of 230 feet.

The Pathfinder, a structure similar in type to the Shoshone dam, is being built in central Wyoming, on the North Platte River, three miles below its junction with the Sweetwater, and will provide an immense storage reservoir for the waters of both streams. The North Platte River rises on the eastern slope of the Continental Divide, in northern Colorado, and flows northward until joined by its main tributary, the Sweetwater, the drainage basin of 11,000 square miles above the dam being included mainly in central and southern Wyoming. The annual discharge of the river is large, but, as with the majority of Western rivers, its flow is very irregular, sudden high floods alternating with long periods of extreme low water.

The site of the Pathfinder dam is an

ideal one, being within a narrow granite box canyon, about 200 feet in depth, which affords the best conditions both for the stability of the dam and a relatively large capacity for the reservoir. The dam, which is already well under way, will be 215 feet high from foundation, 205 feet long on top between abutments, and 100 feet thick at the base, in plan being also of the arched type. The material composing it is known as cyclopean rubble, consisting of massive masonry blocks laid in concrete. The regulation of the stored waters is provided for by means of pipes through the dam, as well as by an outlet tunnel equipped with hydraulic gates, while surplus waters will have ample outlet over a spillway cut in the solid rock. The Pathfinder reservoir will be thirty-five miles long, with a maximum width of four miles and a storage capacity of 1,000,000 acre-feet. The dam and reservoir are essential features of the North Platte project, in connection with which it is interesting to note that while the waters used rise in part in Colorado, they are stored in central Wyoming, to be finally distributed upon lands in Nebraska, 1500 to 2000 feet lower in altitude and distant as far as 200 miles from the point of storage.

The Roosevelt dam will eclipse in magnitude of cubic contents all of the dams at

present under construction by the Reclamation Service. It will contain 330,000 cubic yards of masonry, or over six times more than the Pathfinder, and nearly five times as much as the Shoshone dam. Its height will be 280 feet from foundation, length on top 630 feet (or, including spillway bridges, 1080 feet), and its thickness at the base 165 feet. In plan, although built in the form of an arch, this structure differs from the Shoshone and Pathfinder dams in being of the gravity type, wherein mass alone is sufficient to secure stability.

The resulting reservoir will be the largest artificially formed lake in the world, a body of water twenty-five miles long, in places over two miles wide, with a storage capacity of 1,300,000 acre-feet and a maximum depth of over 220 feet.

The dam and reservoir are the main features of the Salt River project for the irrigation of lands in the Salt River valley, in the vicinity of Phoenix, Ariz.

The method of handling the river during construction is in essential points similar to that already described in the cases of the

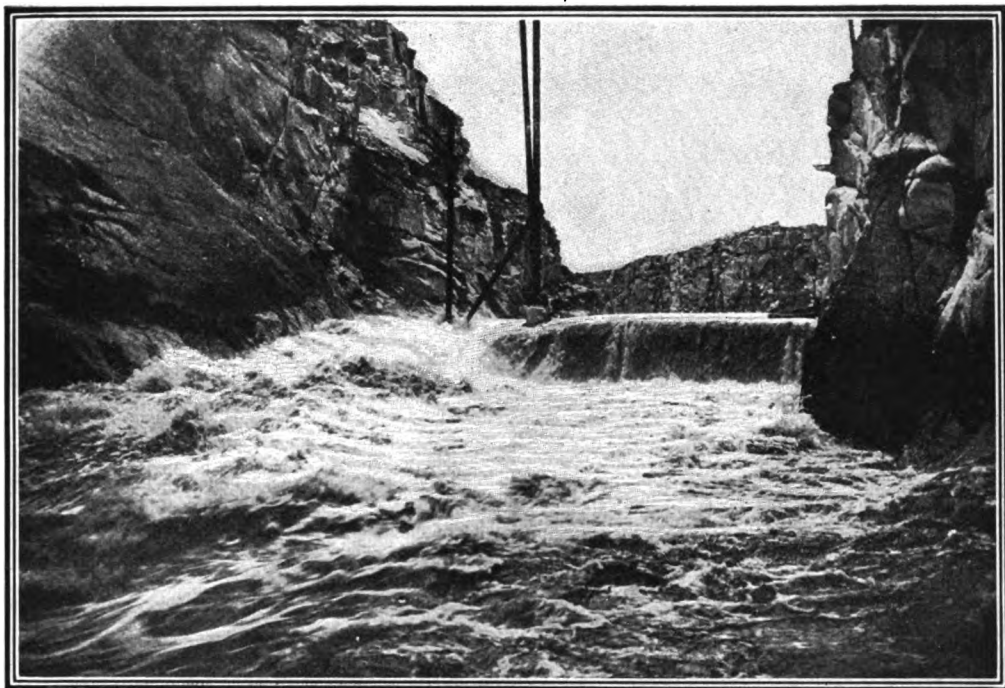
Pathfinder and the Shoshone dams, a tunnel having been first built around the dam-site, through which the river is diverted, and which after the completion of the dam is to serve as the regulator for the flow of water from the reservoir.

The site of the dam at the upper end of the Salt River canyon, just below the junction of Tonto Creek, in the eastern central portion of the Territory, was at the inception of the project almost inaccessible and wholly remote from all forms of communication. The stretch of about fifty miles between the dam-site and the nearest railroad point in the lower Salt River valley is generally conceded to be one of the roughest pieces of country on earth; so that the first problem to be solved was that of opening up communication. Accordingly, in 1904, a wagon road was built, following along the general course of the river, skirting the edge of the deep canyon within which it flows for several miles of this distance, and incidentally picking its way through some of the grandest scenery on the continent. It is eloquent of the character of this line of road that some



LOOKING UP THE NORTH PLATTE RIVER FROM THE TOP OF THE CANYON AT THE PATHFINDER DAM, SHOWING THE RESERVOIR.

(The Pathfinder dam is the most effective of the three dams in point of relative storage capacity, the height of the dam being only 210 feet, while the storage capacity of the reservoir is over 1,000,000 acre-feet.)

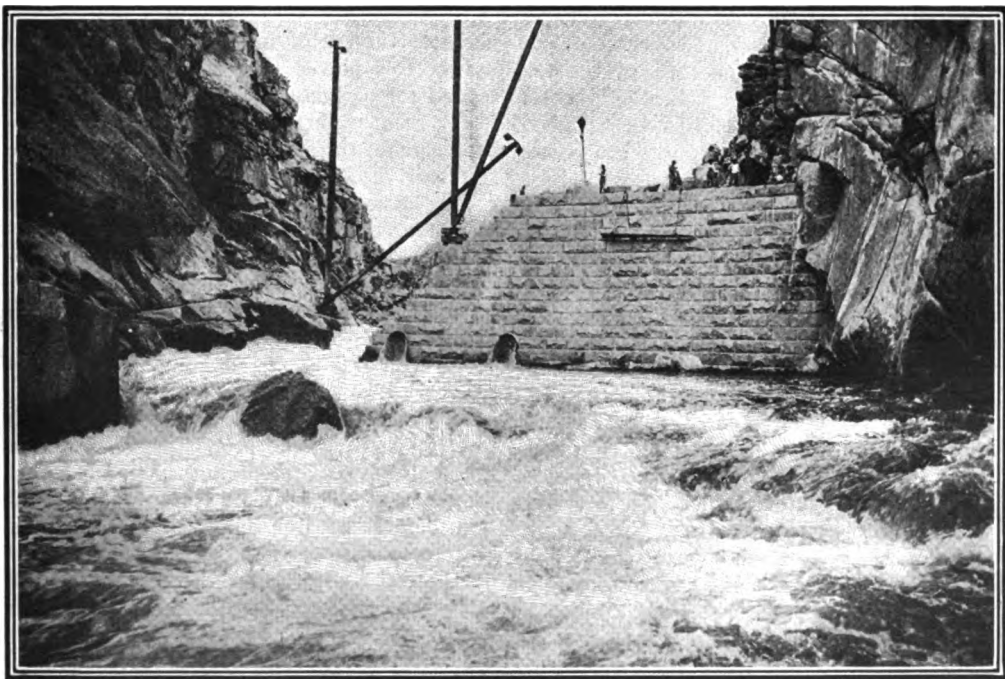


FLOOD PASSING OVER THE PATHFINDER DAM.

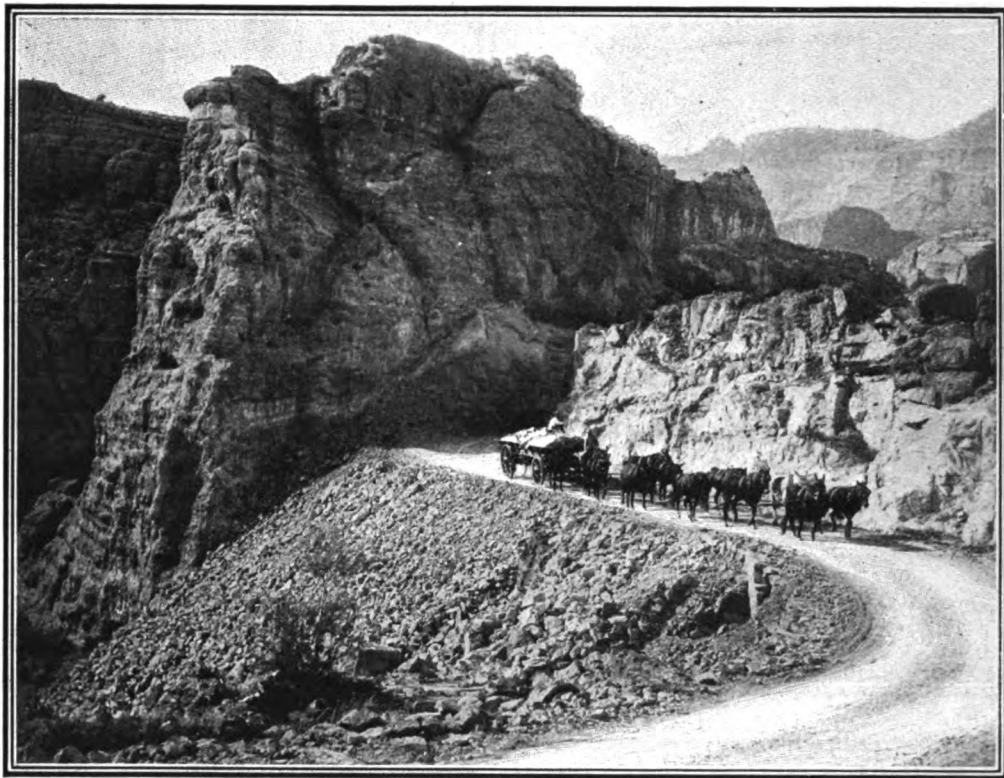
stretches were cut through the solid rock at a cost of \$25,000 a mile.

struction, operations on this project have extended to the building and equipment of sawmills, machine shops, general stores, and

From such preliminary work as road con-



NEAR VIEW OF THE PATHFINDER DAM, SHOWING THE MASSIVE CHARACTER OF ITS MASONRY.



A PORTION OF THE GOVERNMENT ROAD ALONG THE CANYON OF THE SALT RIVER FROM THE MESA TO THE ROOSEVELT DAM.

(Portions of this road cost \$25,000 per mile to build.)

telephone lines, and even to the building of municipal water-works and the manufacture of brick and ice. Other subsidiary works have included the construction of a power canal for the development of electrical power at the dam-site, and the building of a completely equipped cement-mill for the manufacture of the cement to be used in the dam. The power canal is in itself a very interesting piece of engineering work, and performs a most important function in the construction of the great dam. Water is diverted at a point farther up stream by means of a concrete weir built across the Salt River, and after being conducted in the canal and through numerous tunnels and enormous pipes over the intervening nineteen miles is finally delivered under a head of over 200 feet at the hydro-electric power-house located in the bed of the river at the foot of the dam. From this plant electric power is furnished for all the operations connected with the project, and thus is the river made to furnish the motive force for building its own controlling works. The Arizona desert

being a country of unquenchable thirst, the use of this power will be still further extended for permanent use in the pumping of water from wells in the Salt River valley to supplement the supply secured from the reservoir.

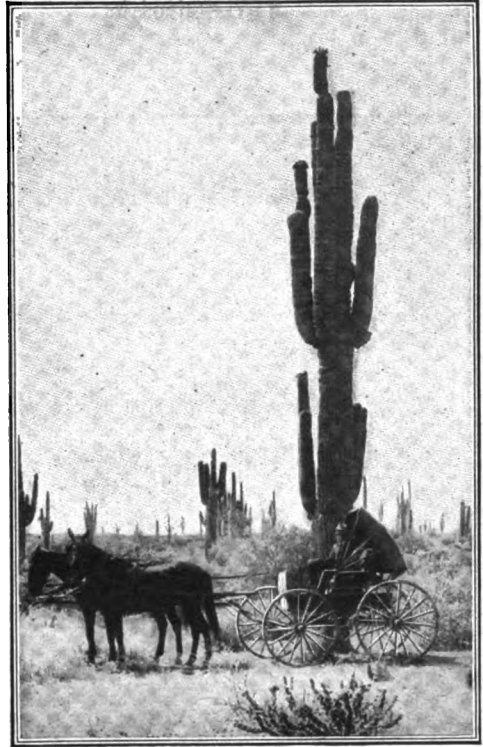
The cement-mill is another interesting and important feature of the project, particularly as this is one of the enterprises that have amply demonstrated the ability of the Government to do business on its own account when necessary, and incidentally turn out products of superior quality at an immense saving in cost.

Consequent upon all these activities a town of considerable proportions has grown up at Roosevelt, involving such additional problems as the providing of proper sanitation, domestic water supply, hospital service, etc., looking toward the preservation of the health and comfort of the community. All of these needs have been promptly and wisely dealt with as they developed, thus securing a high degree of health and efficiency among the workers. Roosevelt is to-day a hustling

and flourishing community, "dry" as the most ardent Prohibitionist could wish, and with every prospect of remaining so until the completion of the great structure which called it into being, and the consequent filling of the reservoir will put its main street under some 200 feet of water.

Interesting as it is to study these great masterpieces of engineering in process of construction, still more gratifying is it to consider the far-reaching practical benefits that are being brought about thereby toward the conservation and development of natural resources.

The Roosevelt dam will insure an un-failing supply of water for the irrigation of the fertile Salt River valley, where in recent years orchards worth hundreds of dollars per acre have dried up and perished for lack of water when it was most needed. At the same time, with the completion of the immense storage basin provided by the Salt River reservoir, the floods that periodically descended the river to create havoc with lands and property will become a thing of the past. Already the practical results of the building of the Pathfinder dam are being realized in the opening up of some 400 irrigable homesteads in the North Platte valley in Wyoming and Nebraska, while for every



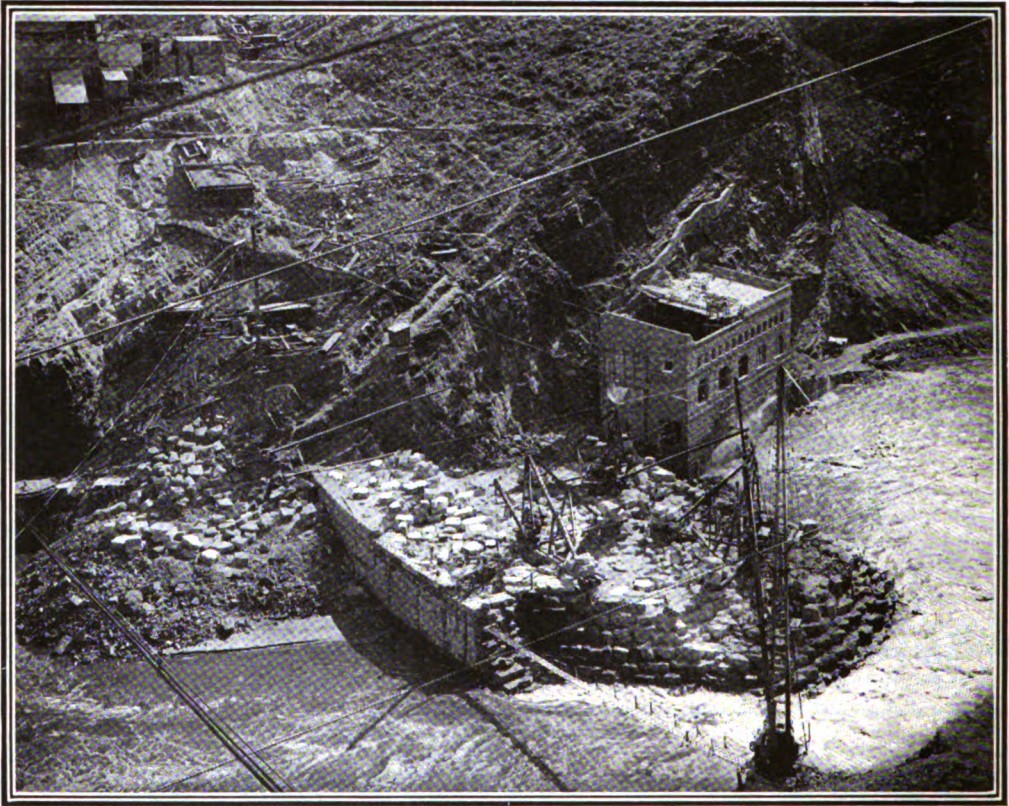
GIANT CACTUS GROWING IN THE REGION OF THE SALT RIVER PROJECT, ARIZONA.



SKETCH SHOWING THE LOCATION OF THE ROOSEVELT DAM, SALT RIVER RESERVOIR AND BASIN, AND THE IRRIGABLE AREA IN THE SALT RIVER VALLEY TO BE SUPPLIED WITH WATER FROM THE RESERVOIR.



cubic yard of masonry contained in the Shoshone dam at least two acres of desert land will be assured of an ample supply of water for irrigation and thus made available for settlement and cultivation in the years to come.



BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF THE ROOSEVELT DAM AT MEDIUM HIGH WATER.

(The massive character of the masonry and methods of construction are well shown in this picture. The entrance to the diversion tunnel can be just seen at extreme left; the river being too high for its entire flow to pass through the tunnel, part of it is passing over the lower portion of the dam.)

## SECURING A NEW WATER SUPPLY FOR AN AUSTRALIAN CAPITAL.

THE completion of the Cataract River Dam will relieve the citizens of Sydney, New South Wales, from any fears of a water famine for many hundred years to come. This magnificent work, which is the largest of its kind carried out in the Southern Hemisphere, occupied about five years, and was prosecuted day and night during that period. The total cost of the construction was approximately \$1,616,500.

The water supply of the city of Sydney is derived from the Nepean and Cataract

ivers. The catchment area of over 350 square miles is ample for the requirements of the city, but the existing storage at Prospect is quite inadequate, its capacity being only 5,446,000,000 gallons, by gravitation. Occasionally severe droughts occur, and more than once the Prospect reservoir has been drawn on to such an extent as to cause anxiety regarding the supply. Owing to this, and to the concurrent steady increase in the population of the city, serious shortage of water was feared, and therefore in the beginning of



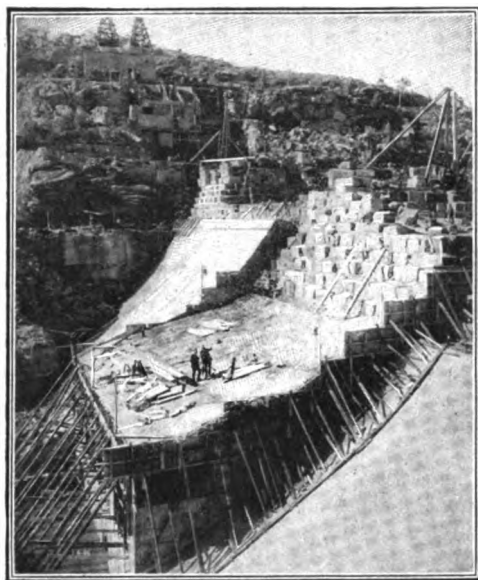
1902 the construction of a masonry and concrete dam was decided on, and the preparatory work, such as road-making, opening out quarries, laying tramways, excavation, etc., was begun at the end of the same year.

The body of the cataract dam is composed of cyclopean rubble masonry, consisting of blocks of sandstone weighing from two to four and one-half tons each. The foundations of the dam have been carried to a depth of thirty-five feet below the bed of the river, in solid sandstone rock. Reinforced concrete is used in the construction of the valve chambers at the base of the dam.

The following figures give a good idea of the importance of the work:

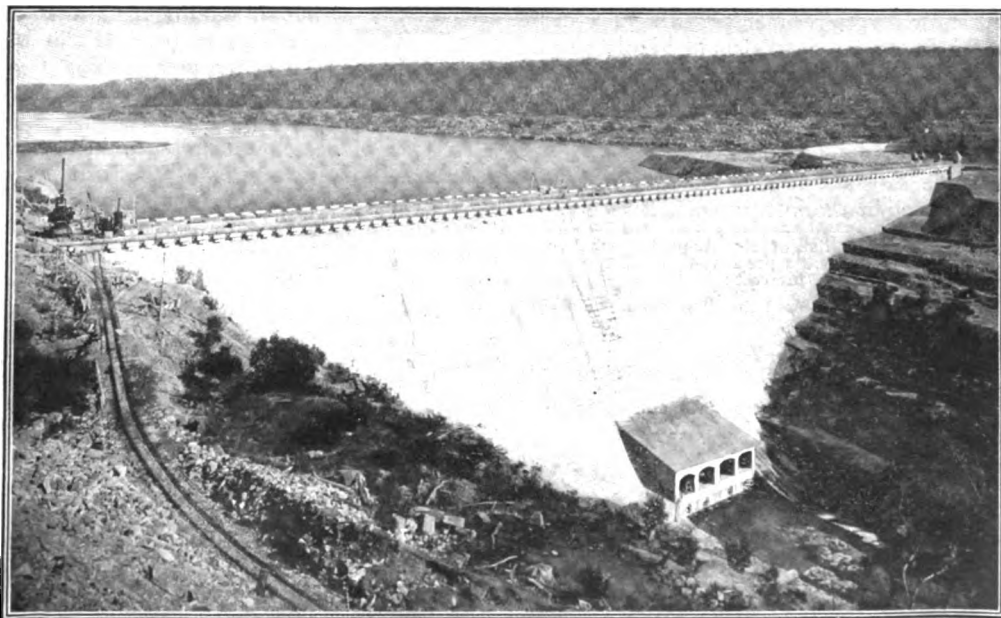
Length of dam, feet.....	811
Height of dam, feet.....	157
Depth above river bed, feet.....	35
Total height from base to top maximum, feet.....	192
Top width, feet.....	16 $\frac{1}{4}$
Bottom width, feet.....	158
Maximum depth of the water stored, feet.....	150
Total storage capacity, gallons.....	21,411,500,000
Area covered by water, acres (approx.)...	2,400

A temporary village was established for the people engaged on the works, and the tradespeople and others associated with them; and as this was unavoidably situated within the catchment area of the Sydney water supply, special precautions had to be taken to provide against surface pollution, such as the conveyance of all refuse outside the catchment area. The camp was divided into two sections, for married and unmarried men,



CATARACT DAM IN COURSE OF CONSTRUCTION.

respectively. For the latter large barrack buildings were erected and partly furnished, a charge being made by the government for the accommodation, while married men had to erect their own dwellings under supervision. The sanitary arrangements and health of the people were under the supervision of a resident medical officer approved by the government.



THE CATARACT RIVER DAM, NEAR SYDNEY, N. S. W.

# THE REAL MR. ASQUITH.

## A CHARACTER SKETCH OF ENGLAND'S NEW PREMIER.

BY W. T. STEAD.

**H**ERBERT HENRY ASQUITH was born of Puritan stock in the West Riding of Yorkshire.

Of his early youth we gain stray glimpses. When four years old he carried a flag in a Sunday-school procession which walked through the streets of Morley, singing patriotic songs to commemorate the close of the Crimean War,—a curiously early initiation into international politics, the four-year-old thus taking an active part in a festival of peace. His father died when he was eight. After a couple of years at a Moravian boarding-school,—which, perhaps, helped to give a graver tinge to the boy's character,—he came up to the City of London School. It is said he would rather spend an hour in reading the *Times* at a convenient bookstall than spend his time in football or cricket. But he also was a devoted admirer of Dickens, and developed so early the oratorical gift that Dr. Abbott could not correct the exercises of his scholars when "Asquith was up." He was in his teens an earnest Liberal, and even then,—the young misogynist,—obsessed by an antipathy to woman's suffrage, a cause which in the later '60's could hardly be said to have come within the pale even of speculative schoolboy politics. He delighted his masters by his painstaking study, and when he became captain of the school he was an invaluable assistant to Dr. Abbott in keeping up the tone of the institution.\* Even at that

early age he never got tangled in his sentences; he saw the end from the beginning, and made his meaning clear to all who heard him.

### THE SCHOOL OF LONDON STREETS.

Here is a vivid little glimpse of the school-boy Asquith as the man remembers him:

For my part, when I look back upon my old school life I think not only, and perhaps not so much, of the hours which I spent in the classroom, or in preparing the lessons at night; I think rather of the daily walk through the crowded, noisy, jostling street; I think of the river, with its barges and its steamers, and its manifold active life; I think of St. Paul's Cathedral and Westminster Abbey and of the National Gallery; I think even sometimes of the houses of Parliament, where I remember we used occasionally to watch with a sense of awe-struck solemnity the members disappearing into the inner recesses which we were not allowed to cross.

The winning of the Balliol scholarship was to him, as late as 1906, "the happiest, the most stimulating, and the most satisfactory moment of his life." It was "a pure, an unalloyed, and an unmitigated satisfaction." That is perhaps more than can be said of his accession to the premiership.

### ASQUITH AND JOWETT.

At Oxford he fell under the influence of Jowett. Those who know the real Mr. Asquith declare that in the following description of the Master of Balliol the Prime Minister unconsciously described his own character:

He had none of the vulgar marks of a successful leader, either of thought or of action. . . . But to us who knew him and saw him in daily life the secret of his power is no mystery. . . . We cannot hope to see again a character such as his,—a union of worldly sa-

John Carpenter Club English History Prize:  
"Smith's Dictionary of the Bible."

1870.—Captain of the school.  
Declaimed the praise of John Carpenter in English.

Dr. Conquest's gold medal for general proficiency and good conduct.

Sir James Shaw's classical medal.  
Mowlem prize for English.  
Scholarship Balliol College, Oxford, £75.  
Grocers' scholarship of the school.

The prize-books were of the pupil's own choosing.

\* The following list of Mr. Asquith's school and college achievements, as preserved in the records of the school, may be of interest:

January, 1864.—Entered the City of London School in the second class.

July, 1864.  
Divinity Prize: "Russell's Palestine."  
Latin Prize: Works of Washington Irving.

July, 1865.—Latin class.  
General Proficiency Prize: "Grimm's Household Stories."

July, 1866.—Fifth class.  
Classical Progress Prize: "Prescott's Conquest of Mexico."

July, 1867.—Fifth class.  
Second Sir William Tite scholarship.  
First Classical Prize: "Poetæ Scenici Graeci."

July, 1869.—Sixth form. Captain of the school.  
Declaimed the praise of John Carpenter (the founder) in Greek.

Phillip's Latin Verse Prize: "Mommsen's History of Rome."

Sixth form. English Prize: "Wordsworth's Poetical Works."

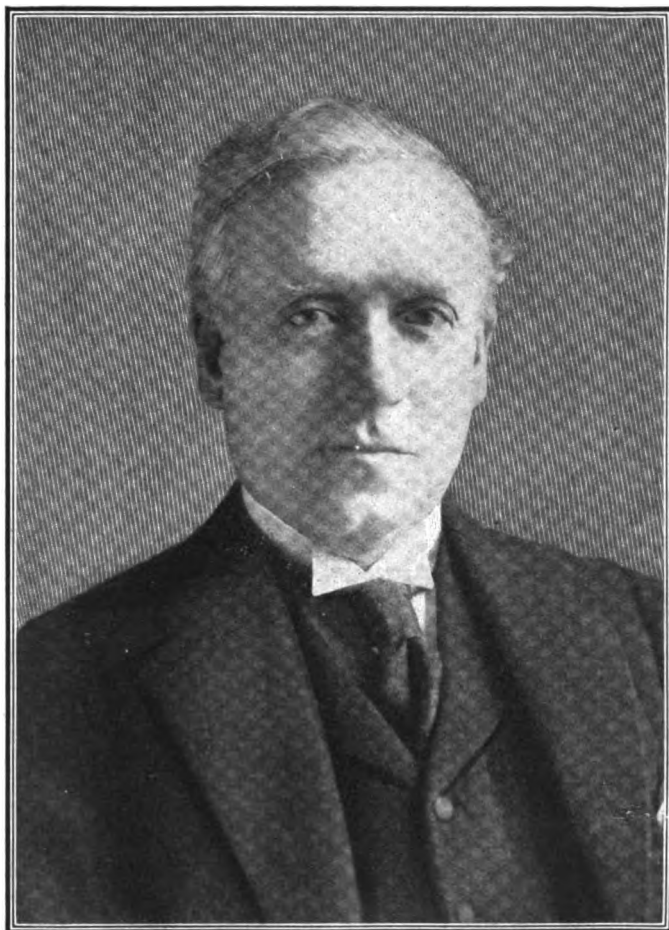
gacity with the most transparent simplicity of nature, ambition keen and unsleeping, but entirely detached from self, and wholly absorbed in the fortunes of a great institution and its members, a generosity upon which no call could be too heavy, and a delicate kindness which made the man himself, always busy in great and exciting studies, always ready to give the best hours either of the day or night to help and advise the humblest of those who appealed to him for aid.

At Balliol he had as fellow-students Bishop Gore, Lord Milner, Arnold Toynbee, Lord Elgin, Sir Alexander Acland Hood, and many another man destined to play a part in English history. At Oxford he left behind him the memory of a genial companion, more devoted to whist and chess than to boating, fond of smoking and of afternoon teas, the center of "the merry clique," a great reader, a thorough Liberal, and a most effective debater. At the Union, as afterward in the House of Commons, he distinguished himself by his imperturbable courage, his alert apprehension of the debating

point, his lucid exposition, and his somewhat unconciliatory manner. "He did not conciliate," writes the president of Magdalen, Dr. Warren; "perhaps he seemed sometimes to make too little effort to conciliate opponents. Critics said that his manner was dry and standoffish and slightly contemptuous." But if he was no MacSycophant, he compelled respect. "Asquith will get on," said Jowett in his squeaky falsetto voice, "he is so direct."

#### HIS SPEECHES AT THE UNION.

The child is father of the man. The political convictions of the statesman are sometimes foreshadowed in the dissertations of the undergraduate. I hope that this is not so, for the first resolution which he moved in the Union was, "That in the reorganization of the English army the principle of compulsion ought to be introduced." It



RT. HON. HERBERT H. ASQUITH.

may, however, be alleged in mitigation of judgment, that this was not his own resolution; he had to move it in the place of an absent leader, and, moreover, the moment was one when the smashing up of the French Empire by the German armies had predisposed the British public to contemplate conscription with some degree of favor.

From the list of speeches made in the Union it appears that Mr. Asquith made his maiden speech on a resolution demanding the ejection of the Bishops from the House of Lords. If the Licensing bill ever reaches that august assembly Mr. Asquith will probably rejoice that the lawnsleeves are still in their places. He also spoke in favor of disestablishment. In 1872 he appeared as a Little Englander of the most atrocious brand, for in November that year he carried by a majority of two a resolution affirming that "the disintegration of the empire is the

true solution of the colonial difficulty!" In those days Mr. Asquith had not become an imperialist. Even in 1874 he opposed Mr. Parkin's famous motion in favor of a closer union brought about by "such an imperial federation as will secure the representation of the more important colonies in the imperial councils." Milner and Hyndman,—the two Socialists,—were on the other side. On another occasion he spoke in support of the motion, "that this House neither believes in nor desires the Conservative reaction," a sentiment to which, unlike his earlier heresies about the colonies, Mr. Asquith would probably subscribe to-day more fervently than ever.

#### DOMESTIC LIFE.

After Mr. Asquith left Oxford he devoted himself to the law. He was called to the bar in 1876, and, when still an almost briefless barrister, he married his first wife at the age of twenty-five. The real Mr. Asquith did that. It was a triumph of the heart over the head of which the imaginary Mr. Asquith could never have been guilty. This early marriage and his later successful pursuit and capture of Miss Margot Tennant, his second wife, are outstanding facts utterly irreconcilable with the popular misconception of his character. He is a man capable of ardent affection, of romantic devotion to the woman he loves, an affectionate father, and a devoted husband.

#### HIS TRIUMPH BEFORE THE PARNELL COMMISSION.

Success came but slowly, as is not unusual with young barristers. But Sir George Lewis got his eye upon him, and recognized him as a coming man. Then he became junior to Sir Charles Russell, and his fortune was made. Of his career at the bar only one incident stands out in the popular memory. I never shall forget the day when Asquith had his chance. We were in the court where the Parnell Commission was sitting. Sir Charles Russell had tired himself in cross-examining Mr. Soames, the *Times* lawyer, and he handed over Mr. Macdonald, the manager, to his junior. When Mr. Asquith stood up to cross-examine he was comparatively unknown. When he sat down he was universally recognized as one of the most brilliant cross-examiners of his generation. Poor Macdonald, a pompous, self-complacent old Scotchman, puffed up with a fatal confidence as to the authenticity of the Pigott

forgeries, stumbled and floundered at the very first question. The matador was remorseless. He goaded the bull to fury, and then plunged his long glittering sword up to the hilt between his shoulders. I faith, it was a dexterous piece of work, and Asquith became the hero of the hour. But he looked so infernally cool and clever as he dealt the *coup de grâce* to his predestined victim that a certain reaction born of sympathy with poor Macdonald and the luckless *Times* was perceptible. Possibly this may have contributed to form the popular impression that Asquith was hard as flint and cold as steel. It was necessary to smite and spare not; but when we first make the acquaintance of a man as the instrument of the Lord's vengeance it is difficult afterward to realize that his heart is as human as that of his victim.

#### HIS DEFENSE OF JOHN BURNS.

There was one other occasion in which he did good service at the bar. He defended Cunninghame Graham and John Burns at the Old Bailey for their gallant attempt to vindicate the right of popular meeting in Trafalgar Square. It is an interesting reminiscence. John Burns in the dock, defended by Asquith at the bar, and defended in vain. For John Burns was packed off to prison. How little he dreamed in 1887, as Black Maria was carrying him off to Coldbath-in-the-Fields, that in twenty years' time he would be President of the Local Government Board and his talented young counsel Prime Minister of the King!

So much for Mr. Asquith as student and as barrister. We now turn to Mr. Asquith's political career.

#### HOME RULE M.P.

Mr. Asquith entered Parliament in 1886. The *raison d'être* of his candidature was Home Rule. He went down to East Fife to defend the Gladstonian cause "as a member of the advanced section of the Liberal party." That Mr. Asquith was a Radical and a Home Ruler from the start has been forgotten by so many Radicals and Home Rulers that it is worth while insisting upon the fact. He was certified as sound in the faith by Mr. Gladstone, and elected over his Liberal Unionist opponent in order to vote for Home Rule to Ireland. That was the mandate he asked for, that was the mandate he received. He began his Parliamentary career by attacking the Unionist method of governing Ireland as a hybrid system of political im-

posture. He followed this up by defending the expulsion of the Liberal Unionist members from the Eighty Club. "The choice lay," he wrote, "between the loss of valuable members and the complete paralysis of the club." These words should be registered. The formula will be applicable to the loss of members in the future of something more important than a club. "As we had to choose, I do not see how, having regard to the views of the majority and the objects of the club, we could have done otherwise than we did."

#### EARLY DAYS IN PARLIAMENT.

His first great success as a platform speaker was gained when, in 1887, at the Liberal caucus at Nottingham, he moved the resolution demanding an early settlement of the Irish question on the principles set forth by Mr. Gladstone and under his direction. He adjured his hearers, "lesser men of a later day, to obey Mr. Gladstone's summons to follow where he led." He had earlier in the year made a slashing Home Rule speech in the House in support of Mr. Morley's amendment. Two years later, in a speech on Home Rule and the Reform of the House of Lords, he proclaimed the policy of Home Rule all round, to which Mr. Gladstone subsequently gave his adhesion at St. Austell. He had previously spoken energetically in favor of the payment of members. The money needed to pay M.P.'s, he said, could be met by arranging official salaries upon a more moderate and reasonable scale, by reducing ornamental sinecures, and by curtailing the grossly unreasonable pension and superannuation system. It will be interesting to see if Mr. Asquith as Prime Minister will find this so easy a task as it seemed when he was speaking from the opposition benches in 1889.

#### RE-ELECTED IN 1892.

In 1892 he was re-elected for East Fife. His election address has a genuine Radical ring. He was still a convinced Home Ruler.

The supposed difficulties in the way of reconciling local autonomy with imperial supremacy are academic cobwebs which do not trouble practical men, and which will yield to good sense and good faith.

On the question of social reform he was equally outspoken:

New wants, of which the people have long been half conscious, but which are now for the first time finding articulate expression, have to



MRS. ASQUITH.\*

be faced and dealt with. I am one of those who believe that the collective action of the community may and ought to be employed positively as well as negatively, to raise as well as to level, to equalize opportunities no less than to curtail privileges, to make the freedom of the individual a reality and not a pretence.

#### HOME SECRETARY.

The electors responded once more to his appeal, and Mr. Asquith, returned a second time to Parliament, was selected to move the amendment to the address on which the Unionist administration was turned out. When Mr. Gladstone came in he appointed Mr. Asquith Home Secretary, and the *Spec-*

\* The *National Review* (London) for May, 1908, prints the following verses, which were addressed by Mr. Gladstone in 1889 to Miss Margot Tennant (now Mrs. Asquith):

When Parliament ceases, and comes the recess,  
And we seek, in the country, rest after distress,  
As a rule, upon visitors place an embargo,  
But make an exception in favor of Margot.

For she brings such a treasure of movement and life,  
Fun, spirit, and stir, to folk weary with strife;  
Though young and though fair, who can hold such a  
cargo

Of all the good qualities going, as Margot?

Up hill and down dale, 'tis a capital name  
To blossom in friendship, to sparkle in fame;  
There's but one objection can light upon Margot,  
Its likeness in rhyming, not meaning, to *Argot*.

Never mind, never mind; we will give it the slip;  
'Tis not *Argot* the language, but *Argo* the ship;  
And, by sea or by land, I will swear you may far go  
Before you can hit on a double for Margot.

tator ruefully declared that he was selected because he was "the chief mover in the agitation for Home Rule all round, and as the leader of the advanced Liberals."

Up till now Mr. Asquith's Radicalism was unimpeached. As a Home Ruler he was second only to Mr. Morley in his zeal for the cause. This was the real Mr. Asquith. How was it, then, that after his accession to office the real Mr. Asquith began to be obscured?

It is not difficult to answer this question. He preserved in the House the downthumpness and directness of speech and unconciliatory attitude toward opponents already noted as his characteristics at Oxford. Three questions came up during his tenure of office which tempted him to indulge in this uncompromising vein.

#### TRAFALGAR SQUARE.

The London Radicals asked him to restore Trafalgar Square to the people as their meeting ground. He had defended Graham and Burns at the Old Bailey for asserting this right. He replied that the state of things that grew up in 1887 constituted an intolerable public nuisance, and "so long as I am responsible for the peace and good order of the metropolis it shall not be permitted to recur." Only on Saturdays, Sundays, and bank holidays, and only then after fitting notice had been given to the police, might meetings be held in the square. The compromise might not be the best possible, but it was a compromise. Asquith's fault at Oxford, said a young Balliol don, "was that he would never do a thing at all better than would just suffice: he had no uncalculating idealism."

#### THE DYNAMITARDS.

The second question was the release of the dynamitards. They were regarded by the Irish as political prisoners, and Mr. Redmond asked for their liberation. Mr. Asquith refused, and not only refused, but declared with uncompromising severity that dynamitards were outside the pale of mercy. They "are persons who deserve and will receive no consideration or indulgence from any British government."

#### FEATHERSTONE COLLIERY RIOTS.

The third and most abiding cause of the disappearance of the real Mr. Asquith was the action which he took with regard to the strike riots at Featherstone Colliery. The

facts are now almost forgotten. The idea prevails in some quarters that Mr. Asquith called out the troops, and ordered them to shoot down the men on strike. What really happened was this. There was a strike at Featherstone pit. The strikers, instead of contenting themselves with refusing to work, attacked the pit, destroyed property, and attempted to burn down the colliery buildings. The local authorities telegraphed the Home Office that they could not answer for law and order unless they were allowed to call out the troops. If Keir Hardie had been at the Home Office he could not have refused his assent. The troops were called out. They were a small company, and they stood on the defensive. A savage mob pelted them with stones and refused to disperse. The Riot Act was read, full and fair warning was given, and at last a volley was fired. Two men who had no part in the disturbance were killed, and the riot was at an end. Mr. Asquith ordered a searching inquiry into all the circumstances. The commission unanimously decided that no blame attached to the local authorities or to the troops. *A fortiori* Mr. Asquith could not be blamed. I do not believe that any honest man, be he Socialist or Anarchist, who examines the facts for himself, can say anything else but that Mr. Asquith not only acted as he ought to have done, but that no one in his position could possibly have acted otherwise without failing in the first duty he owed to society.

#### A GREAT ADMINISTRATOR.

These incidents, however, somewhat caused the good in Mr. Asquith to be evil spoken of. They would, however, have been speedily forgotten in the enthusiasm aroused by his administration of the Home Office. He was the first great Home Secretary of modern times. He made the Secretary of State the tribune of the sweated workman. By legislation reforming the Factory Acts and by administration he exhausted every available resource for improving the conditions of labor. He appointed women factory inspectors,—notwithstanding his prejudice against women who leave the sphere of the home. He introduced an Employers' Liability bill which was wrecked by the Lords; he improved the prisons, and, in short, revealed himself as a beneficent reformer. Those who saw him at work,—like Mr. Massingham, for instance,—were almost ecstatic in their admiration and devotion.

It is impossible in this brief sketch to at-

tempt anything approaching to an exhaustive account of Mr. Asquith's political career. Mr. Alderson, however, in his volume entitled "Mr. Asquith" (published by Methuen), has compiled all the materials necessary for following the political evolution of our new Prime Minister.

As Home Secretary in the Gladstone-Rosebery administration of 1892 he admittedly enjoyed the affectionate confidence of his chief, Mr. Gladstone, and was so much appreciated by his colleagues that on Mr. Gladstone's retirement at least one of them, the present Lord Tweedmouth, was strongly in favor of making him Prime Minister instead of Lord Rosebery. As Mr. Asquith had served Mr. Gladstone loyally, so he was not less faithful to Lord Rosebery, although frequently the exercise of this fidelity led him to withstand his chief to the face, and repeatedly to overbear by sheer cogency of earnest argument the fitful and capricious moods of his brilliant but uncertain chief.

As an administrator Mr. Asquith was admittedly the most successful Home Secretary of our time. Himself supremely loyal to his chief, he succeeded in inspiring equal loyalty on the part of those who served him. His advent was the signal for a revolution in the whole spirit of the Home Office administration. His quiet, resistant, but resolute personality infused a new enthusiasm into the ranks of the government inspectors.

#### THE PATENT OF LEADERSHIP.

Nothing is more common than to hear it said of Mr. Asquith that he is not a magnetic man. That may be true to a certain extent as regards those who are only brought into temporary contact with him. Nothing can be further from the truth in the case of those who are brought into close personal relation with him. At the Home Office in 1896, and again at the Treasury in the present administration, Mr. Asquith has shown that he possesses in no ordinary degree the faculty of kindling the loyalty and dominating the wills of those who have served under him. It remains to be seen whether the same faculty will stand him in equally good stead when brought to bear upon a cabinet which he has in large part inherited from his predecessor.

#### IN OPPOSITION.

When Lord Rosebery resigned, and Mr. Asquith, with the rest of his colleagues, took his seat on the front opposition bench, he

went back to the bar for the necessary but prosaic object of earning his living. It is difficult to combine a large practice at the bar with active attendance in the House of Commons; but Mr. Asquith, thanks to his robust physique, his great power of work, and his almost uncanny quickness of appreciation of questions under discussion, either in the law courts or in the legislature, was one of the two ex-ministers who improved rather than impaired their position. Lord Rosebery resigned, and shortly afterward his example was followed by Sir W. Harcourt and Mr. Morley. Sir Edward Grey, who had not the excuses of Mr. Asquith for slackness in the discharge of his Parliamentary duties, almost disappeared from public life. Hence, when the Liberal party met to choose its leader, there were only two possible candidates, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman and Mr. Asquith. The party rallied round the older man, and Sir Henry became leader of the opposition, with a title to the next premiership. Mr. Asquith showed no trace of disappointment or resentment, but served his new leader as loyally as he had served all his predecessors.

#### CAMPBELL-BANNERMAN'S FIRST COLLEAGUE.

When Sir Henry formed his administration, the first man to whom he offered office was Mr. Asquith, and it was Mr. Asquith's prompt acceptance of the post of Chancellor of the Exchequer which paralyzed an abortive cabal which it was attempted to organize on behalf of the Liberal-Leaguers. Nor did Mr. Asquith do anything by halves; he became, as Sir Henry afterward said, "the most loyal colleague a minister ever had," and their personal relations were characterized down to the very last by the most affectionate intimacy. If anything could have reconciled Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman to the resignation of his high post, it was the knowledge that he was to be succeeded by Mr. Asquith.

#### A FREE-TRADE CHAMPION.

Even the most cursory survey of Mr. Asquith's services to the party must include some reference, however brief, to the splendid service he rendered in combating the fiscal heresies of Mr. Chamberlain. Many Liberals did well on the platform, but Mr. Asquith excelled them all. Whenever Mr. Chamberlain spoke, Mr. Asquith was on his trail, and his speeches, compact of thought, ruthless in logic, and inspired by the fervor



of intense conviction, contributed more than any other spoken words to the disaster which overwhelmed the tariff reformers at the last election.

#### AS MINISTER.

As Chancellor of the Exchequer he had not much to do in the shape of preparing bills for the legislature until this session, when, in a noble speech addressed to the intellect and conscience of the nation, he introduced the Licensing bill, a measure which, whatever may be thought of its details, admittedly raised political strife to a heroic plane. During the last months of "C.B.'s" premiership Mr. Asquith represented him in the House of Commons, and it was in that capacity that he made a declaration in favor of the maintenance of the two-power standard in terms which gave more satisfaction at the moment than a close examination quite justified. There is, however, no fear that Mr. Asquith will allow the first line of defense to fall below the standard necessary for our imperial safety.

#### HIS AMERICAN SYMPATHIES.

On foreign affairs Mr. Asquith has always been on the right lines. He has confessed, more strongly than many English statesmen, his anxiety to maintain the closest and friendliest of relations with the United States. Speaking during the Spanish-American War, he said: "My sympathies are, and have been from the first, entirely and heartily with the United States." In liberating Cuba, he said, the American nation was responding to the demand of humanity and liberty, and was setting a worthy example to the great powers of the world. Speaking later in the same year, he rejoiced in the drawing together of the two great English-speaking races, "not in a mere gust of transient enthusiasm, but by a strong and durable bond." A better understanding between the two peoples, he rejoiced to believe, which had formerly been a dream, had been consolidated and crystallized by the pressure of events, until it was now a firm and vital reality.

#### HIS FOREIGN POLICY.

On another crucial question he has spoken with no uncertain sound. He has never pandered to Russophobia, and has always supported the efforts that have been made to establish good relations between St. Petersburg and London. On general principles of foreign policy his best-remembered speech is

that in which he asked "what the people of Great Britain had done or suffered that they were now to go touting for alliances in the highways and by-ways of Europe?" Mr. Asquith, we may depend upon it, will be true to the tradition of Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman's leadership. While holding by the *entente cordiale* with the French, he will regard it but as the first step toward a series of other *ententes* in which Germany will find her place. A Prime Minister as active, energetic, and resolute as Mr. Asquith can do a great deal toward promoting more friendly feelings between England and her neighboring nations than has yet been attempted by any government.

#### A MINISTER ON SUFFERANCE.

Of one thing we may be quite sure, and that is that Mr. Asquith will speak with no uncertain sound. He will endeavor to rule his cabinet as he ruled his Home Office, by rallying round him colleagues who are convinced of his selfless devotion to public duty, and his determination to sacrifice self at any cost.

He is in a very difficult position. The House of Lords has practically placed an imperative veto upon all legislation which does not commend itself to the judgment of Mr. Balfour. The determination expressed by the Liberal party to remain in office, no matter how the by-elections may go during the next three years, has practically delivered the House of Commons bound hand and foot into the hands of the House of Lords. No matter how zealous Mr. Asquith may be, or how arduously his cabinet and his majority may toil in the cause of reform, they are legislating, and will continue to legislate, on sufferance. Only in the realm of finance and administration can they act independently, but it is precisely in the realm of finance that the greatest dangers lurk. The necessity for meeting on one hand the challenge of the foreign navies, and on the other of providing old age pensions, to which both parties are deeply pledged, will tax to the uttermost the ingenuity and the resources of the new Chancellor of the Exchequer.

Sufficient unto the day is the evil thereof. We need not prolong our speculations into the dim and distant future. It is enough that the real Mr. Asquith is likely to be a much more powerful Minister than the pseudo Mr. Asquith, who unfortunately, has too much dominated the public imagination.

# RAILROAD FREIGHT RATES TOO LOW.

BY LUIS JACKSON.

(Industrial Commissioner of the Erie Railroad Company.)

**A**MERICAN railroad freight rates are the lowest in the world. American passenger fares are also the lowest, if American rates of wages are comparatively considered. Freight rates are impersonal, whereas passenger fares are a personal matter. I have never entirely agreed with the attitude assumed by the majority of my railroad *confrères* toward passenger fares. I have contended for the past twenty years that the railroads should make the greatest possible concessions to passenger traffic. When a man pays a passenger fare he has to put his hand in his pocket and take out the cash; but freight rates are paid in the end by the consumer in infinitesimal fractions. Passenger rates can be compared to an income tax, which, whatever its merits, will be objected to until the millennium, because it is a direct tax. Freight rates are like custom-house duties. The rail under the street-car is paid for in the nickel fare. The middleman, whether in the grain commission, wholesale jobbing, merchandise, or any other business, does not pay the freight, much as he will have it so. The consumer pays the freight in the price of the article. Provisions, woollens, cottons, leather, etc., have advanced enormously in price within the past few years, regardless of railroad rates, which have had a downward tendency. Manufacturers rarely, if ever, complain about rates; they are creators of wealth dealing with an ally in the expansion of their field for markets. Passenger fares directly appeal to the voters, whether they travel or not, and the anti-railroad orator knows this.

Rates, especially on the higher classes of freight, could be raised 100 per cent. without harm to commerce. I would, however, go very slow in making any suggestions as to what passenger rates should be, because, taking the railroads of the United States as a whole, the revenues are, roughly, 25 per cent. from passenger traffic and 75 per cent. from freight traffic. The percentage varies according to the territory and density of population. Taking the figures as 25 per cent., to reduce a passenger fare, say, from 3 cents to 2 cents, is an immediate reduction

of 33 per cent. of one-quarter of the total revenue of railroads. Any man, even in the smallest kind of business, taking in, say, \$1000 gross a year, knows that his profit is practically wiped out if he takes in only \$900. Therefore, to reduce a passenger fare before density or economic conditions warrant means the advancement of a freight rate. Capitalization does not affect this statement. If the passengers are carried free, the freight must make it up. As stated, I am in favor of the greatest concessions and the shifting of the burden of the passenger to the freight traffic. "Mind moves matter." But scientific principles, not haphazard legislative enactment, would have to be applied.

## AMERICAN RATES COMPARED WITH FOREIGN.

Freight rates were originally established on the relationship of charges by team or canal-boat; passenger rates were established on a supposition. Railroad freight rates, though since affected by a multitude of factors, had their real foundation in the price of horse-feed and wages of drivers. When the railroads first started, the teamster took the load at, say, \$2 a ton; and the pioneer railroad men, as they could not give the shipper and receiver door-to-door facilities, took the load for \$1. Passenger rates were made largely on the basis of guess. The two-cents-per-mile fare in Great Britain is frequently quoted in discussions on passenger fares. This is a fare for third-class accommodation. The railroads there charge about 2½ cents per mile second-class, and about 3½ cents per mile first-class. This two-cent rate in Great Britain is equivalent to a rate of 4 cents in the United States, because, if in Great Britain such large bodies of men as are represented by the policeman, the postman, and the railway porter, average from \$4.50 to \$7 per week wages, other large classes of labor are paid accordingly; 2 cents out of \$7 is more than 3 cents out of \$12. A similar comparison could also be made with fares on the Continent of Europe, where the third-class fares are in many instances somewhat lower than they are in

Great Britain, because continental wages are also lower. British third-class accommodations are fair and trains make speed. On the Continent third-class accommodations are bad, and few fast trains carry third-class passengers.

In the matter of European freight rates it is not necessary to make any wage comparison. Figures against figures, European freight rates average more than they do here. Through-freight facilities are practically undeveloped there. In exceptional cases only do freight cars pass into another country; transfer at the frontier is the general rule, plus transfer agents' charges.

The trend of commerce influences freight rates. When the Suez Canal was about to be opened tonnage dues had to be established. Assuming that it cost a steamer at the ratio of 100 to operate from London to Bombay *via* the Cape of Good Hope, it was calculated that a toll of 75 per cent. of this cost would probably draw the traffic through the Suez Canal. It did. If the Suez Canal dues,—at present \$1.50 per net ton of the vessel,—were reduced to \$1 per net ton, American railroad rates *via* San Francisco to Manila and Hongkong would be affected.

#### OUR ROADS NOT OVERCAPITALIZED.

A great movement for railroad expansion swept the country about 1878. In that year there were only about 80,000 miles of railroads in the United States. This movement was not inaugurated by cynics, nor by those who seek the division of wealth, nor by indiscriminating muck-rakers. It was inaugurated by captains of industry; men good, bad, and indifferent, but of tremendous constructive force. Railroads soon crossed every State, opening a vast area for settlement. There are now 225,000 miles of railroad in the United States, an increase in thirty years of 145,000 miles. This increase of 145,000 miles is equivalent to the construction of over forty new lines of railroad from the Atlantic seaboard to the Pacific Coast. Such construction meant enormous development of agriculture, mining, or manufacturing along every mile of trackage in all parts of the country,—a stupendous development to which some thought should be given. Railroad investment is a titanic underlying force engendering every kind of development. An investment of \$100 in a private enterprise may, in course of time, yield a good return to the investor, and

benefit the nation; \$100 put in railroad trackage means thousands of dollars of added wealth to the nation. Those who invested their money in the creation of this new mileage rank second to none as material up-builders of this country. They are entitled to fair treatment and fair returns. Too many railroads were built, so that for twenty-five years, or until about 1903, there were more railroads than there was traffic to carry. Consequently during that time there was a scramble for freight, and free passes, concessions, discriminations, rebates, midnight tariffs, fights for differentials, cut rates, and other evils were rampant in the struggle to secure funds for the pay-roll, which was continually being increased by claims for higher wages, regardless of receipts. Rate reductions at random by State commissions were also made. These conditions forced the present unprofitable rates.

Railroad freight rates are now out of alignment with charges for similar service in other parts of the world. They do not yield a reasonable return to the investor, and they provide nothing for necessary improvements.

The 225,000 miles of railroads in the United States, comprising over 900 independent companies, taken as a whole, are not over-capitalized; a few may be. In 1906 the average capitalization of the railroads in the United States (stocks, bonds, and other obligations) was \$68,000 per mile, made up of \$36,000 in bonds and \$32,000 in stock. One-third of the stock was paying no dividend, and nearly 4 per cent. of the bonds were paying no interest. The average return on the capitalization of \$68,000 per mile in that year of heavy traffic was a little less than 4 per cent. per annum.

A comparison of notes with the manager of a railroad in the northern part of England developed that his railroad was capitalized at £120,000 (\$600,000) per mile; and they were paying 4 per cent. dividend. On that basis there is still hope for the worst of us. The average capitalization of the railroads of the United Kingdom is \$273,000 per mile. Fifty-five per cent. of the railroads there are double-tracked, as against 8 per cent. here. With the fact of our average capitalization of \$68,000 per mile, the platitude of over-capitalization can be dismissed. Any intelligent man can readily see this.

A too hasty change in the rates on staples, such as grain, iron ore, etc., might be harmful, but on the higher classes of freight the

rates are inadequate, as will be seen by what follows.

#### THE PRESENT LOW TARIFFS.

Some years ago in Chicago the price of ice to householders was advanced from 25 cents to 35 cents per 100 pounds. The iceman, on being asked why, told his customers that the railroads had raised the rates. The railroad rates were then 3 cents per 100 pounds on ice, and had not been changed. This led me to compile some statistics on general commodities. Other railroad men have done some work in this direction, though not alone the public in general, but many railroad men themselves, do not know how very little the item of freight charges enters into their personal accounts. Take the matter of wearing apparel, for instance. The after-mentioned goods classify in the main as first-class. The first-class freight rate from New York to Chicago, a distance, in the rough, of 1000 miles, is 75 cents per 100 pounds, or three-fourths of a cent per pound.

#### WINTER WEIGHTS.

	Pounds.	Ounces.
1 pair socks.....	2	1½
1 pair shoes.....	6	6
1 pair drawers.....	13	13
1 undershirt.....	15	15
1 white shirt.....	11	11
1 collar.....	1½	1½
1 pair cuffs.....	1	1
1 four-in-hand tie.....	1	1
1 business suit.....	6	6
1 winter overcoat.....	8	8
1 derby hat.....	4½	4½
1 pair gloves.....	1	1
Totals.....	19	6½
With packing.....	22	..

The summer weight, including a spring overcoat, is about one-half the above, or eleven pounds. The freight on twenty-two pounds at three-quarters of a cent per pound is, therefore, 16½ cents; and on the summer weight, 8¼ cents. The value of the above outfit commercially runs from about \$35 to nearly \$200. The freight is no perceptible percentage. A \$5 hat is carried for less than one-third of a cent. If carried free, the hat would still be sold for \$5. The consumption of sugar per capita in the United States is seventy-six pounds per annum; the rate, New York to Chicago, is 26 cents per 100 pounds, or about 20 cents per capita per annum: the coffee consumption is ten pounds per capita, on which the freight, at 27 cents per 100 pounds, is less than 3 cents per annum: the tea consumption is about one pound per capita, on which the freight, at 75 cents per 100 pounds, is three-quarters of a cent per annum; and these figures could be continued indefinitely. These extraordinary low

rates on such commodities as sugar, coffee, etc., are due to the strong competition between the Atlantic seaboard and Gulf of Mexico railroads for Chicago business. This is really a one-way freight country,—crops moving eastward, and a large percentage of "empties" westward. Where the rates are slightly higher among Western communities, it is because there is no such volume of traffic. The rates in such communities are equally unremunerative.

A reasonable advance in freight rates would not affect commerce, but it would enable the railroads to better their lines, make them safer for travel, and lower the passenger rates. It is impossible to have safety devices and cut the revenue from which they are to be paid. Personally I hold that the rate reducer is responsible for the manslaughter. Railroading is a specific business and must be conducted on business lines.

Rates on staples, especially such as wheat and cotton for export, are far too low for the necessities of the present conditions. The total railroad tonnage of the United States is: from mines and minerals, 53 per cent.; from the forest, 11 per cent.; from agriculture and animals, 11 per cent., and from manufactures, merchandise, and miscellaneous, 25 per cent. As in the passenger-fare question, one must go slow in suggesting how much of an advance can be made, and on which of the commodities. The consumer abroad pays the entire freight on goods exported. The export rates on grain are largely influenced by the crops of Argentina and Russia, and other grain-growing countries. In cotton the United States exports about 60 per cent. of its entire crop, and nearly one-half of this goes to the United Kingdom. The railroad freight rate is not compensatory. The cost of transportation from the cotton farm in the United States to the United Kingdom averages \$17.60 per ton of 2000 pounds. Of this the team haul from the farm to the railroad station costs the farmer, partly because of bad highways, an average of \$3.20 per ton. The railroad freight from local stations to the seaports averages \$8 per ton; and the steamship freight from the United States to the United Kingdom averages \$6.40 per ton; total \$17.60. The price of cotton during the year 1907 fluctuated in New York from 10.70 to 13.55 cents per pound, or a fluctuation of \$57 per ton,—more than three times the entire freight cost.

Little or no consideration is given by the public to the enormous cost of city terminals.

The large city terminals of a railroad represent a cost equal to the cost of a road through the country; for instance, a road from Chicago to New York *via* the great commercial centers that might cost \$70,000 a mile through the country would have to add another \$70,000 per mile for terminal facilities.

#### ILL-CONSIDERED LEGISLATION.

As stated, for twenty-five years there were too many railroads for the traffic offering. It is true that discriminations were made. Every business interest knew it. A law was enacted twenty years ago to stop discrimination. The administration of it was lax and cumbersome; these conditions made custom almost law. Every fine against the railroads to-day for what happened some years ago is a reflection upon those whose business it was to enforce the laws. A private corporation insists that its employees shall thoroughly administer the work assigned to them, or, in default, resign. All business is subject to the laws of evolution. Our enforcement of the laws governing transportation has hitherto been lax. Every man in the public service should be as dutiful as is the fire brigade. Sudden zeal and ill-considered laws will do much harm to the stability of the commerce of the country. For instance, the newly admitted State of Oklahoma is indorsing measures against railroads in such a way as to outrage the average American citizen's sense of justice,—measures that approach the ridiculous.

Throughout the United States all kinds of drastic legislation is proposed. The railroads are being put to an immense expense by interstate and State commissions in gathering statistics and answering questions, some of which can have little or no bearing on real reforms. Many of the questions are so puerile that one readily discerns that they are instigated by theorists.

#### THE TRUE BASIS OF FREIGHT RATES.

It has been suggested that everything relative to freight rates should be figured on the ton-mile basis for the guidance of bureau officials. This is a fallacy. The earnings-per-ton-per-mile basis is of use only to those whose duty it is to keep the statistics of a railroad and directly superintend its affairs. A railroad near a great city, handling truck gardening and milk, is more concerned in expedition than in the ton-mile basis. It serves its stockholders and its shippers better by run-

ning its cars three-fourths full than if it figured tons to engine miles; whereas a railroad handling long-haul freight must figure tons to engine miles. The average earnings on all the railroads in the United States in 1906 were .748 cent., or not quite three-fourths of a cent, for hauling one ton one mile. Thirty years ago the average earnings were about 2 cents per ton per mile, and the railroads were making very little, owing to the sparsely settled condition of the country. Three-fourths of a cent in one part of the United States may be better than 1¼ cents in another. With the improved facilities and increased volume of traffic, the average of three-fourths of a cent in 1906 is better than 2 cents thirty years ago, provided the 1906 volume of traffic keeps up; but an average of three-fourths of a cent is proving insufficient to maintain good service. There is a limit,—at nothing per ton per mile the investment would be wiped out. Rates cannot be founded on an academic basis; they are created by commercial contingencies, are to a great extent correlated, and are sometimes influenced by world conditions that require special movement of food stuffs.

Statistics presented for the guidance of legislators, investors, and the public interested in earnings can best be understood in an annual summary of every railroad report made up, under governmental supervision, on the per-mile basis, including the following items: Total miles of the road; capitalization per mile, showing the stocks and bonds separately; gross earnings per mile,—passenger and freight; operating expenses per mile,—maintenance of way, maintenance of equipment, conducting transportation, and general; net earnings; interest; dividends; surplus. These figures, coupled with a knowledge of the topography, density of population, and commercial conditions of the section of the country through which the line runs, would give a more comprehensive grasp of the situation than volumes of theoretical compilations on valuations or abstruse statistics. To develop agriculture and manufacturing as fully as possible by inducing capital to go into railroad enterprise should be the basic factor for the guidance of the statesman.

In general, freight rates are too low. The slow movement of freight trains in 1906 and 1907, the congestion, the accidents, all tell the story. The making of rates can safely be left to economic forces. Questions of inequity, where the railroads and the parties aggrieved cannot agree, can be referred to

the Interstate Commerce Commission to be passed upon. If transportation costs were too high the sellers of it know that volume would be diminished.

The general public is little interested in freight rates. They constitute no appreciable burden upon the consumer; but it is interested in the integrity of the law of the common carrier,—common rates under similar circumstances and conditions,—and in obtaining greater facilities, increased safety, and better expedition. Thousands of manufacturers, agriculturalists, and others would

gladly have paid something more during the past few years to have been insured better and more expeditious service. The West and South are inadequately supplied with railroads: two-thirds of our country needs greater railroad facilities.

The use of steam in transportation created a factor entirely new in the history of man,—namely, the annihilation of distance. It is the greatest present force in the promotion of civilization. Everything should be done to develop every method of transportation. Industrial development must increase.

## RAILROAD CAPITALIZATION AND FEDERAL REGULATION.

BY FRANKLIN K. LANE.

(Member of the Interstate Commerce Commission.)

UPON no one phase of the general problem of railroad regulation is there greater unanimity among railroad officials to-day than as to the necessity for some method of controlling the stock and bond issues of interstate railroads. Be the cause whatever it may, no one can deny that railroad securities are not now regarded as favorably, either in the investment markets of Europe or in those of this country, as they formerly were; and for this reason, if for no other, railroad financiers themselves have been seeking for a method by which greater certainty of value may be given to such securities. A bounding speculative market may be artificially produced, or may result naturally in the not distant future from a revival in general business conditions; but conservative investors seem to be awaiting greater assurance of the stability and certainty of value of such securities.

### PROBLEM CONCERNS THE WHOLE PUBLIC.

It would superficially appear that this question is of chief interest to the banker, the capitalist, and the railroad promoter; but this is quite beside the fact. Those most interested in the proper financing of railroads are the farmers, the manufacturers, the workingmen, the merchants,—the general producing and traveling public; for without the selling of stocks and bonds railroads in these days can neither be built nor be very extensively improved. The first roads were

often private enterprises, in the sense that they were financed by one or two men; and there are still sporadic instances where one man, or a small syndicate, has undertaken a railroad enterprise of magnitude,—Mr. Rogers' Virginia road in the East and Mr. James' El Paso & Southwestern in the West being prominently in mind,—but 999 miles of road out of every 1000 which have been built in the last ten years in this country have been constructed with the money of the public, the proceeds from the sale of securities. Therefore, if we are to have new railroads, more laterals, adequate equipment, and larger terminals, we must have a market for railroad securities.

The curse of all this stock-jobbing, this overcapitalization, and consequent distrust, falls on the public,—the lumberman who wishes to extend his market but finds his effort balked by railroad incapacity, the jobber who cannot make his market in a reasonable time, the contractor whose work must stop awaiting material, the landowner whose property remains undeveloped from lack of transportation facilities, the mechanic for whose labor railroad construction creates demand, and all the millions in one way or another dependent on the extension and improvement of our railway system.

The problem of railroad capitalization becomes in this light a people's problem, one in which all have direct pecuniary interest; and if our premise is correct,—that we must find

some way by which greater faith in these securities can be established as a prerequisite to a full renewal of activity in this important and vital work,—it is at once apparent that the search for such a plan advances out of the realm of Wall Street finance into that of American statesmanship.

#### THE QUESTION OF CONSTITUTIONALITY.

At the outset let us admit that there are lawyers of no slight eminence who hold that it is not within the granted and specific power of Congress to provide and prescribe procedure as to the capitalization of railroads, even when they are interstate carriers. There will always be, no doubt, a division of opinion among students of our Constitution as to the full meaning of its commerce clause, and learned men will ever be heard to say that that thing cannot be done which we come to see later is the thing that is done and the only wise thing that could have been done. The Supreme Court of the United States, to whose judicial statesmanship the last appeal is made on all such matters, has in the past pointed the way to most of those reforms which have been successfully inaugurated; and we may not wisely hesitate in making practical effort to relieve the commerce between the states of any burden which retards its growth because of the fear that the tribunal which by its construction of the Constitution has made that growth possible will now intervene to prevent its further expansion. In the happy phrase of Senator Knox, "There is nothing affecting the external affairs of the nation, or such internal questions as are committed to its charge, that Congress cannot regulate; there is nothing that affects them injuriously that Congress should not regulate."

#### RECAPITALIZATION IMPRACTICABLE.

I shall assume, too, that it is not proposed to effect a recapitalization of present railroads,—an utterly impracticable task,—and one which could serve no purpose but to put in hazard the fortunes of those who in the main were innocent of wrongdoing. How altogether fanciful such a scheme would be is suggested by the slightest effort to draft another basis than that of the present upon which to reform and reissue the present issues of railroad stocks and bonds. If there were but 5 per cent. of its face value invested in a stock, would the whole of that stock be canceled, or what portion? And who shall say that a bond secured by mortgage may by

legislative fiat be denied its underlying right to a vested lien upon the mortgaged property?

All such facts as to the fictitious value of securities are pertinent and should be considered in the fixing of a schedule of rates of freights and fares. The road is not entitled to a return upon a value which it does not have. This sounds too apparent to be stated seriously. If it were not so, and rates must be made upon capitalization alone, it would follow that the railroad company would need no other defense for exorbitant charges than the need induced by a too generous capitalization. Fundamentally there is at present no interdependence of capitalization and rate,—the latter is not in law, nor in railroad policy, the child of the former,—though railroad men have sometimes expediently urged the claim, and courts have sometimes too kindly given it their nod of sanction. Whatever of over-issue there is to-day in the railroad securities of the United States cannot, we will assume, be made way with; it is for the future we must plan,—that the things of evil that have been done shall not recur to blight the development of our commerce by arousing distrust.

#### A PLAN TO SECURE PUBLICITY.

The most potent kind of regulation is that which casts the burden upon the individual to do the regulating himself and makes him responsible to the law for dereliction; and the plan for the regulation of capitalization here presented is founded upon that theory,—to require the directors of the railroad companies to make public announcement of their security issues, to publish the objects for which such issues are made, and be responsible for the use of the proceeds in the precise and limited manner announced. This is far too modest a program to please those who delight in elaborate methods of procedure involving much filing of forms and petitions and many hearings, appraisements, viewings, and solemn givings of consent; and without question it is not nearly as thoroughgoing a plan as others which have been devised,—that, for instance, of Texas. But the simpler the plan the better, if it may effect its purpose; and, after all, whatever law may be adopted by Congress, as to this or other matters, can be nothing more than an experiment.

#### SUGGESTED LIMITATIONS.

The Congress by positive enactment should declare its policy as to certain definite rules of railroad corporation conduct. It might,



for instance, prohibit the acquisition, ownership, or control, directly or indirectly, of one road by a parallel or competing road; the acquisition or holding of railroad stock beyond, perhaps, a very small amount for purposes of investment; the increase of capitalization because of the merger of two corporations beyond the total capitalization already issued at the time of consolidation by each of the corporations consolidated; the issuance of stock or bonds for any other than certain designated purposes, including, let us say, in the language of the New York statute, "acquisition of property, construction, completion, extension, or improvement of facilities, the improvement or maintenance of service, and the discharge or lawful refunding of obligations." This is but a suggestive outline, and is not intended to be inclusive of all restrictions that may be desirable.

These, then, would be the limitations upon the capitalization of interstate railroads and the uses to which they may put the proceeds. There should be one further prohibition in the law: that no securities should issue without the express consent of a majority of the board of directors, who should set forth in full upon the minutes of the board meeting at which such securities were authorized the purpose of their issuance and the use to which their proceeds are to be applied. To this statement, made in such detail as the law might require, each member of the board voting for such securities should subscribe upon oath; and it should be a penal offense either to issue such securities without making the statement required in the minutes or without filing with the federal Government the properly authenticated and verified statement. The law should further make the directors liable criminally if the proceeds of such issues were used otherwise than as set forth in the statement made, either wholly or in part; and no change of the directorate should relieve from the obligations caused by the original action of the board of directors.

The duty should further be imposed upon the directors of reporting upon oath at the end of each fiscal year the number of securities sold, the net and gross proceeds of such sale, and the purposes to which the funds so acquired had been applied during the preceding year, all of which should be in detail as prescribed by the rules of the federal Government, and should be sworn to personally by a majority of the directors.

The authority which the Interstate Commerce Commission now enjoys to inspect all

railroad books, accounts, and memoranda provides a ready method by which a full and perfect check could be kept upon the truthfulness of such statements, and this investigation could be carried on at those times during the year when the special agents of the commission examine these books for other purposes. All these matters, from the original statement by the directors throughout each succeeding step, and including the reports of the expenditures made, should be matters of public record, open to stockholders and the public generally, and incorporated in an annual report to Congress.

#### WHAT THE PLAN WOULD ACCOMPLISH.

These ends, it appears, would be gained by such procedure: There would be full publicity of the purposes of all issues and the uses to which the proceeds of their sale were put; the responsibility for full compliance with the federal restrictions and exactions would be placed upon the men who are in law responsible, the directors of the corporations, who would be subject to imprisonment for breach of the law. It would be within the power, not only of the federal officials, but of any minority stockholder, or of any citizen, to inform himself of the full history of each transaction, and to enforce compliance with the provisions of the statute. (It might be wise, too, although this is not a part of the present plan, to authorize civil suit against the directors for damage caused to any investor by reason of false report or non-compliance with the law.)

Such a plan, as said before, is much less radical and drastic than most which have been proposed and some which are in force in the several States. But it seems probable that it would be adequate to its purpose; and it certainly requires the very slightest of governmental machinery and "red tape." To be sure, it does not undertake to restrict capitalization; instead, it restricts the purposes to which the capital raised is put, which seems the essential thing after all. It does not guarantee the prospective purchaser of the stock that the stock certificate which bears a printed par value upon its face (a statement which is theoretically unnecessary and practically misleading) does in fact represent property of the full value so designated; but this is not a duty which the Government for any reason is bound to assume, and I know of no motive arising out of national policy which compels the assumption of such responsibility,—certainly not at present.

The stock buyer and the banker, and the Government, if it is interested, may know how much money, or what property, the stock or bond issue actually represents, and draw their own conclusion as to whether the face value of the stock and the real value of the property are equivalent. There can be no such thing as the placing of railroad securities upon a full parity with Government bonds so long as the credit of the Government is not behind them. But they can be made to be, and will, I believe, gradually grow more and more to be, as safe an investment as the most conservative capital can reasonably expect.

I have no thought that all swindling in the name of high finance would be ended by this method of regulation, or by any other. There are certain men of "larger view" who prefer the quick cross-cuts to fortune and will accept some risk to reach the goal; but may it not be fairly said, and within the bounds of likelihood, that none of our railroad financiers would undertake or could carry through a scheme of organization for syndicate profit such as some which have become national scandals if such a proposal as this were enacted into law? The personal oath of the individual director, the imposition of the real duties and responsibilities of the management upon his shoulders, the liability to personal imprisonment for false reports, together with the widest possible publicity of each transaction from inception to close, would together prove as great a deterrent to fraud and as sure a safeguard to investors as could be had, in my judgment, short of a scheme requiring universal federal incorporation or license, estimation of cost of proposed improvement of service, approval of sale of securities, and investigation into the *bona fides* of such sale, valuation of the perfected work by engineers, and in general the adoption of machinery which would enable the Government authoritatively to state that the capitalization represented actual investment.

In the last analysis, however, all such methods depend on the character and ability of the men who employ them,—the Government engineer or commissioner. The suggestion here made is that the director of the railroad corporation, Mr. Vanderbilt or Mr. Gould, if you please, be substituted for these Government officials, and upon him cast the whole burden of seeing that the mandates and prohibitions of the law are observed, with

his personal liberty as a forfeit for negligence or fraud.

#### THE PROPOSITION IN OUTLINE.

The principle of the plan governing capitalization which is here suggested is analogous to that which has been devised for the destruction of preferential rates; and let me restate the procedure already outlined, it being understood that I am not presenting in detail the form of a proposed bill, but the skeleton, and perhaps the poorly articulated skeleton, of a possible bill:

*First.* The Government should express, affirmatively and negatively, the purposes for which an interstate carrier may issue stocks, bonds, or notes.

*Second.* The directors of the road proposing to issue such securities should make a record of such proposed issue on the minutes of the corporation, to which a majority of the directors shall subscribe.

*Third.* This statement, signed individually by each of the directors, and sworn to personally by each, should be sent to a designated official of the federal Government,—the Interstate Commerce Commission, perhaps.

*Fourth.* An annual report sworn to by a majority of the directors should be sent to the same body, stating with particularity how such securities were disposed of, the proceeds resulting, and their use.

*Fifth.* The Government should through its special agents, having direct access to all books and accounts of the railroads,—and by law they may keep only such books, accounts, or memoranda as the Interstate Commerce Commission shall authorize, and are permitted to destroy none,—make investigation of these issues, expenditures, etc., as often as may be deemed advisable.

*Sixth.* The deviation in any particular from the original declaration of intention made at the time of the issuance of the securities, either in their form, character, rate of interest, or otherwise, or from the uses expressly stated at such time as to which the proceeds of such securities were to be put, or the issuance of any securities for any purpose which the law does not authorize, or the failure to report accurately and fully whatever the law requires, or otherwise to comply with the provisions of the law, should subject the directors personally to such term of imprisonment as the law may prescribe.

# BUSINESS CONDITIONS IN THE WEST AND SOUTHWEST.

BY CHARLES F. SPEARE.

ON the eve of last October's panic I happened to be traveling through the Northwest. In every city and town and in remote country districts I found the same story of unexampled prosperity which years of good crops and the season's high prices had produced. The people of Minnesota and the Dakotas were about as well satisfied with their position in life as any body of Americans could be. The same situation prevailed further south,—in Iowa, Nebraska, Kansas, and Missouri,—where an enormous corn crop was just yielding its golden flood to those who had planted and nursed it to maturity. The one fact that impressed me then was the rather overstrained air of independence that the West assumed toward the East, the aloofness that the money centers of Minneapolis, St. Paul, Omaha, Lincoln, and Kansas City displayed toward New York and Boston.

This was the spirit of the whole Western country. One could find it then anywhere west of the Mississippi River. It was as conspicuous in the Southwest as in other sections. It was based on sound enough grounds so long as normal conditions prevailed; but it was a bubble that burst in a night when the crash finally came.

Recently I have again traveled beyond the Mississippi. The journey covered 10,000 miles and took me into about a dozen States in the Southwest, the Middle West, and the Rocky Mountain region. Everywhere a chastened feeling prevails. There is a little less of local bumpiness. The financial relation of the West to the East is remolded on more sensible lines. I do not deprecate the pride that glories in local development and local independence in material things. The fact that the surplus wealth of the West eight months ago permitted the investment by her banks in something like \$250,000,000 of Eastern commercial paper that could not find a market at home justified some strutting among those who had the liquid capital available for this quarter-billion-dollar loan. But no part of this vast country can be for a very long time self-sufficient and self-sustaining. The statement made in parts of the

Northwest and Southwest that "we could build a wall about ourselves and prosper" is extremely foolish. Every State in the Union does to-day, and always will, need some part of the product and wealth of every other State to round out its own development. In a crisis financial or commercial sectionalism is as dangerous as political or social sectionalism.

## RAPID RECOVERY FROM PANIC.

The panic has run its course through every State and every community, and it is not too much to say that practically every human unit of production has felt it in some way or another. Evidences of it are visible enough and do not have to be sought out. Except for the fact that in the fifteen years since the panic of 1893 this country had added to her foreign population something like 9,000,000 people who depend on the day's work for a living, of whom perhaps 30 per cent. may have emigrated, died or in some way dropped from the ranks of the army of the employed, the general conditions of the country are much more satisfactory for meeting the present emergency than they have ever been before. Moreover, the substantial growth of sections that a decade ago were unpromising and dependent lifts a great load from those more prosperous communities that, previously, have had not only to bear their own burdens, but to try to find a means of escape for the difficulties of others. Panic sets much lighter on a people whose farms and homes are free of mortgage and whose bank account is worth soliciting than where it brings the climax to a long chapter of hard struggle against adversity and means the postponement for years of even moderate ambitions. Any one who makes a circuit of the productive States must feel that the depression that exists to-day cannot be long continued in the light of the relatively small burdens of the people and their general freedom from debt. The purchasing power of the country has only been crippled temporarily, and this as much from a desire to economize after years of lavish expenditures as from a shrinkage in the actual funds to buy with.

The best index of the well-being of the people at large is the present volume of bank deposits, while the most accurate test of the ability of the new Western and Southwestern country to stand such a strain as the panic imposed on it is the small number of bank failures that have occurred. In 1893 banking wreckage was strewn all over the country. One of the chief reasons why recovery from that year's panic was so slow was the loss that the sections just beginning to get a hold on themselves sustained in the collapse of national and State banks, private banking-houses, mortgage and loan companies, and building and loan associations. This is a situation that has, in only very moderate degree, entered into the problems of to-day. Another great difference, and an extremely favorable one, is that of land values. So far as I was able to observe, the money stringency and the loss of employment and income have had but little effect on values of improved real estate or farm lands. Liquidation in them has been slight, and prices have been maintained. There is now a number of communities in the Middle West where land booms are at their height.

#### TOO MUCH LAW-MAKING.

No one living in the East can appreciate the positive handicap that States like Kansas, Missouri, Texas, Arkansas, and Nebraska have been under since the anti-corporation slogan went forth. The particular butt of this new generation of lawmakers has been the railroads. These are, of course, well established in Kansas, Nebraska, and Missouri, States with probably enough mileage for the tonnage at hand and in sight. The burden, therefore, has been on existing lines rather than on the people of the State, as in Texas and Arkansas, where orders of railroad commissions have checked new building and consequently postponed the development of territory that would add very materially to the wealth of the commonwealth and to the present population. It is estimated that, in the three Middle Western States mentioned, the number of bills introduced in the past two years, having for their purpose some new line of authority or control of the railroads or commanding changes in methods, forbidding this and demanding that, has reached 500. Two hundred were introduced in Missouri alone at the last session of the Legislature. Only a small percentage were enacted into law. Supplementing these were the daily orders of the

railroad commissioners. The Western board of railway espionage is a body of perpetual action. It does not sit in council, as have some of the Eastern commissioners of the past, to see how completely it can please its patron, the railroads. It hears with much patience the complaints of individuals, communities, and traffic organizations. Most always it takes sides against the railroad. It has been good politics to fight the latter. The railroad commission of the West and Southwest is pre-eminently a political body, with the office of commissioner about as powerful as any in existence and a stepping-stone to high political preferment.

That these commissioners have gone too far and exacted of the transportation companies more than they could stand is now appreciated. One of the most striking proofs of it is the number of mandatory orders that have been annulled since the effect of the panic began to show and the voters started to take account of the influences that brought it about. There is much hard sense in the "Let Us Alone" motto, and while the East may smile at it and reply that prosperity cannot be forced in this way, the application of the phrase to the politician cannot but have a decidedly good effect. He began some weeks ago to trim his sails to a breeze of this sort.

The Southwestern States, in particular Texas and Arkansas, have been exceedingly patient with their lawmakers and commissioners. They have not, until just now, begun to appreciate what this patience has cost them in State reputation and progressiveness. No laws can hold back the ultimate development of either State. They have too much wealth in sight and easily produced to be sidetracked by interference, however paternal and restraining. But the yearly percentage of development is small compared with what it should be, and every decade, a State so hampered loses two or three years out of its life. Foreign capital is intimidated and grudgingly associates itself with enterprises within those States. When it does so attach itself it has very often been badly treated.

Politics demands an issue. You will almost always find the severest battle against corporations in States where one party is dominant. The Republican party organization in the South and Southwest is largely a matter of form. Northerners who were Republicans go to Texas and become Demo-

crats. The State is, year after year, without a strictly party issue. Therefore, the party in absolute power makes an issue and splits itself up into many dissenting parts, over Bailey, or the railroads, Standard Oil, or what not. There is not the balance-wheel of public sentiment down there that a fairly even division of vote on party lines gives in the North. It almost seems as though eventually a party of conservatism and of conservation of State interests would rise out of the present jangling and inharmonious political faction.

#### HOLDING COTTON OFF THE MARKET.

Politics,—and the socialistic strain of politics,—enters into the commercial life of the Southwest. Its embodiment is the Farmers' Union, which is a twin of the Society of Equity of the Northwest, the one bent on controlling the price of the staple product of the South,—cotton,—as the other has worked toward the ideal of making its own price for its staples,—wheat, barley, and oats. This season's experience of the Farmers' Union in trying to conquer economic laws has not been a very good advertisement for the organization. One can readily observe signs of disturbed mind among those pledged to hold cotton for 15 cents a pound with the market price falling to 8 cents a pound, and demand poor, at that, whereas demand was abundant when futures were quoted at 12 cents or better, soon after the crop had been marketed. There have probably been 1,500,000 bales in Texas and Arkansas alone held off the market and in the warehouses of the Farmers' Union on which the depreciation is \$15 to \$25 a bale, or from \$22,500,000 to \$37,500,000 for the amount withheld. This means a great loss to the cotton-growing sections, and it gets back directly into national money affairs, for the cotton unsold is directly responsible for the heavy falling off in American exports in March and April. This shrinkage, in turn, reduced our foreign credit and demanded shipments of gold to Europe. The cotton is not permanently lost, and it will finally figure in exports. The unfortunate features of the attempt to hold the staple from the market until a fixed price was realized is that advantage was not taken of high price while it prevailed. The union's method of meeting this condition will be to reduce acreage, but that has never been a practical success. Every planter gets the idea that his neighbor will sow a little less cotton seed, and therefore the addition he

makes to his own acreage will not be noticeable. The result is a larger acreage than ever.

#### ABUNDANCE OF LABOR.

Another reason why the area of cultivation, not only of cotton but of grain, will be extensive this year is the ability of the planter and the farmer to get sufficient labor. Wages have been so high that the negroes of the South, who are depended on to pick cotton, have, in late years, gone into the lumber camps and on construction work. This year these remunerative avenues are largely closed to them, as the most stagnant industry is lumber and railroads, and municipalities are doing only a small percentage of new work that they were engaged in before the panic. Cotton will be picked for 90 cents and \$1, compared with \$1.50 to \$1.75 a year ago. In Kansas and Nebraska there is not the worry over help for the June and October harvests that has prevailed in years gone by, and the ranchers of Colorado and Wyoming are, for once, free of the labor problem. This means a great deal for the bulk of all crops, as they will be more thoroughly harvested than for a long time.

The nation's prosperity really rests on farm products. So long as these reach up to the value of former years,—approximately \$7,500,000,000 in 1907,—this must continue to be so. There has probably never been a time in this generation when such splendid general crop prospects existed as at the beginning of May, and which have continued up to the middle of the month. The empty cars of to-day will all be enlisted to move the wheat, corn, oats, and cotton now seeded.

One strong impression on the traveler in the trans-Mississippi country is the utilization of the waste places of past years. The unsightly desert of to-day is the blossoming orchard of to-morrow, and the irrigation ditch the advance agent of prosperity in manifold forms. Some of the results of irrigation in Texas, which promises to rival Louisiana as a rice-producing State, and in Colorado, where land newly watered commands from \$500 to \$1000 an acre, and that in bearing orchards from \$3000 to \$4000 an acre, are marvelous to behold. Western Texas, cleared of mesquite and cultivated for cotton, has witnessed an increase in her annual rainfall of nearly ten inches. The change of climate in the new portions of the country is a study by itself. Nature adapts herself to new conditions and helps those who help themselves.

## THE COMING CONVENTIONS AND OTHER GREAT GATHERINGS.

THE thousands of American citizens who make up the throngs in attendance at the Presidential nominating conventions held every four years in this country have but a faint conception of the long and careful preparation that is required to secure the housing and comfort of these unique gatherings. Twenty years and more ago, it is true, comparatively little attention was given to these matters, and the result was that the conventions of both the great parties developed into veritable "bear-gardens," as they were in fact described by the press. But experience has taught the more astute political managers of both parties that orderliness and system are as much to be desired in a political convention as in any other assemblage designed to achieve a useful purpose. Of late years, as the facilities for travel have increased and the people of this country have become accustomed to long journeys from their homes to the various centrally located convention cities, the demand has grown more and more insistent that seating accommodations be provided for the greatest possible number of spectators who can be gathered under a single roof and within the sound of the human voice. This growing demand has resulted in the erection of great buildings designed especially for national convention purposes. The Coliseum, at Chicago, is such a building. The Republican National Convention met in that structure four years ago and will assemble there on June 16 of this year.

The Chicago committee on arrangements, of which Mr. Fred W. Upham is chairman, has undertaken practically a complete rearrangement of the interior of the Coliseum and the installation of many special appointments required by such a convention. There will be in all 11,167 seats, including those for the officers and members of the Republican National Committee, who will be seated on the platform proper; 1800 so-called platform seats, which extend from the platform proper back to the south end of the hall, each row slightly elevated above the one in front of it; 416 seats for the working newspaper representatives; 1000 seats for the delegates, and an equivalent number for the alternates; and the remainder for guest seats, both on the

main floor and in the balcony. In the amphitheater arrangement of the hall practically every seat in it commands a good view of the entire auditorium. In the annex there will be the offices of the National Committee, as well as rooms for the telegraph companies, the special press wires, telephones, and messengers. Another feature of this annex will be a thoroughly equipped hospital, in charge of a physician and trained nurse. All this equipment is said to be a great improvement on the accommodations provided in the same building four years ago.

When Denver was selected as the meeting place of the Democratic National Convention on July 7, next, many Eastern Democrats were inclined to think that a serious mistake had been made, since it seemed highly improbable that a young city in the Rocky Mountain region, even apart from the question of accessibility, could provide the facilities for so great a gathering. Such critics, however, could not have known Denver. The sum of \$100,000 was raised by her citizens to bring the convention to Colorado's capital city, and men of every political faith contributed to this fund. Perhaps it is not generally known in the East that Denver has already acquired considerable experience and reputation as a convention city. There is a permanent organization, known as the Denver Convention League, the object of which is to secure conventions for Denver; and it was a committee from this organization that induced the Democratic National Committee to select Denver as the meeting place for this year's nominating convention. The chairman of the local committee of arrangements, co-operating with the Democratic National Committee, is Mr. Charles W. Franklin.

It was necessary to build a convention hall especially for this occasion. The new building is now nearly completed, and it is said that the entire structure will be finished by the expiration of the contract time, on June 5. There will be a total of 11,521 seats, but it is said that at least 600 more people can be accommodated in an emergency. No season tickets will be issued, and it is believed by the convention managers that all of the visitors will have an opportunity to attend at least

one session of the convention. The auditorium is constructed without pillars or posts to obstruct the view, and the best of acoustic properties are promised. There is a huge stage near the center of the building, and in preparation for the convention the rostrum and platform will be erected at the west side of the auditorium, with the seats for the delegates and alternates extending along the floor of the stage proper. Upon the platform will be 445 seats, which will be reserved for the members of the National Committee and for the guests of honor. The number of seats on the rostrum will be 101. Desks and seats for the newspaper correspondents and special writers will be arranged in a half-circle about the rostrum in such a manner as to give each writer an unobstructed view of the speaker and within easy hearing distance. There will be 303 seats in this section. The 2000 seats for the delegates and alternates are arranged in front of the rostrum, nearly in the center of the building. The remainder of the floor-space will be given up to the general public, the total seating capacity of the main floor being 6006. The front rows in the balcony and gallery will be reserved for the families of the delegates, alternates, and the convention officers. The actual seating capacity of the balcony will be 3626, and of the gallery 1889. In the construction of the auditorium special precaution has been taken to guard against accident. It is said that the exits provided will permit 12,000 people to reach the streets within two minutes. The auditorium is a permanent structure, built of brick, stone, concrete, and steel. Denver expects 100,000 visitors to the convention, and is making every preparation to entertain them royally.

Of the minor national parties, the Populists have already nominated Thomas E. Watson for the Presidency, and the Socialists have again put in the field Mr. Eugene V. Debs. The Prohibition party will hold its convention at Columbus, Ohio, on July 15, after all the other parties have completed their nominations. It may be expected that the Prohibition convention will be more than usually interesting this year in view of the fact that the cause of local and State prohibition has made greater strides during the past four years than at any previous period in the history of the national organization. It is expected that some time during July the Independence party will hold its national convention at Chicago, but the date has not at this writing been definitely fixed.

## EDUCATIONAL CONFERENCES.

Next to the national political conventions the gatherings that are likely to interest the greatest number of Americans during the coming months will be those devoted to educational matters. The National Educational Association, which will meet this year at Cleveland, on June 29, remaining in session for five days, has a membership in every State and Territory, and brings to its annual meetings such a body of teachers in both the higher and lower schools as no other nation in the world could assemble. It happens that in the week preceding the Cleveland meeting there will be held at Oberlin, Ohio, only an hour's ride from Cleveland, an important series of conferences relating to higher and secondary education in connection with the celebration of the seventy-fifth anniversary of Oberlin College, an institution truly national in its constituency, since more than 50 per cent. of its students come from beyond the borders of the State of Ohio. The principal address of Oberlin's anniversary week will be delivered by Secretary Taft, on Thursday, June 25. In the week following the close of the Cleveland meeting the American Institute of Instruction, the oldest educational organization in the country, will hold its annual convention at Burlington, Vt.

An International Moral Educational Congress is to be held in London, September 23-26. Prof. Michael Sadler, of Manchester, who is well known in the United States, is chairman of the executive committee of this congress, which includes in its membership some of the most noted educational leaders in the world.

In connection with the celebration of the 225th anniversary of the city of Philadelphia, October 4-10, there will be several important conventions of educational and professional leaders. A special effort will be made to secure the attendance of eminent medical men.

The International Congress on Tuberculosis, which will meet at Washington, D. C., from September 21 to October 12, will bring to this country a great number of European specialists and leaders in the anti-tuberculosis movement in England and on the Continent. Germany, especially, will be represented by some of her most eminent investigators in this field of preventive medicine.

Several other important scientific congresses will be held during the summer and autumn, including the various section meetings of the American Association.



# LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

## REPUBLICAN CANDIDATES FOR THE PRESIDENCY.

ON whomsoever the choice of the people may fall, the new President may well be excused for wishing that he succeeded one less popular, one less strenuous, one less radical than the present Executive. Never before in the nation's history has its first citizen been called upon to occupy such a prominent position in world politics, and seldom have the home problems requiring careful attention to insure successful solution been so complicated and of such wide ramifications.

The *North American Review* for May has an interesting series of articles on the claims of the eight Republican candidates, and in each case the writer maintains, as every good advocate should, that his client is the logical nominee, and should be the people's choice.

### SPEAKER CANNON.

The claims of Speaker Joseph Gurney Cannon are set forth by Representative H. S. Boutell, who says that the Republican National Convention at Chicago will, in selecting its nominee, consider four qualities in the candidates: character, ability, attitude toward the policies of the Administration, and popularity. Considered from either of these standpoints, the Speaker's claims to the nomination are, Mr. Boutell thinks, pre-eminent. Further:

In public life, courage and perseverance are his striking characteristics. He has fought his way to the top. All the world is interested in a fighter. If he fights fair, we admire him. If he comes to the front smiling after defeat, we love him. With McKinley and Reed, Mr. Cannon was a candidate for the Speakership in the Fifty-first Congress and was beaten. He was beaten again in the Fifty-sixth. But in him defeat developed no resentment nor bitterness. And at the age of sixty-eight he achieved the ambition of his life. No wonder that his friends call him "Uncle Joe."

Objection to Mr. Cannon's candidature has been made by some on the ground of his age,—he was born May 8, 1836. To this Mr. Boutell rejoins:

Why should we in this country lose the services of the best years of our ablest men? Years bring experience, and experience wisdom. Palmerston, Gladstone, Thiers, Grévy, von Moltke did some of their best work for the state when

over seventy-five. If Speaker Cannon should be elected President this year, and should be re-elected in 1912, he would at the end of his second term still be four years younger than Gladstone was when he made his last speech as Prime Minister. Let us too have our Grand Old Man!

### SECRETARY CORTELYOU.

Mr. George Bruce Cortelyou is the youngest of those whose names have been associated with the Presidential candidacy, and his sponsor in the *North American Review* is Mr. J. D. Whelpley, the well-known journalist, who has made a special study of American national politics.

This is essentially a business age, and "the unscrupulous and wasteful 'graft' of the years succeeding the Civil War has given place to a political system as methodical, as systematic, and as logical as the manner of conducting the best type of modern business organization." A talent for organization and system is Mr. Cortelyou's peculiar strength.

He is absolutely honest; his controlling idea seems to be that of grasping whatever problems may be at hand, in all their ramifications, details, and sequences, and solving them with the least possible noise and friction. In any condition of society such a man is a power; at this time and under present conditions he becomes a very great power.

Mr. Cortelyou's public career is so recent and so well known that it will suffice to cite here a single comprehensive paragraph of Mr. Whelpley's:

He presented the peculiar spectacle of a man risen from a stenographer's desk to a cabinet position within ten years, without any electioneering or any political influence except manifest fitness for each succeeding place. There is absolutely no reason to suppose that Cortelyou ever pushed himself for any one of these promotions, but he was always available.

It was Mr. Cortelyou's action in the recent disturbance in Wall Street, more than any other incident in his career, that suggested his availability as a Presidential candidate.

Great emergencies must inevitably confront the Republic in future years. In these what is needed is

a far-seeing man who will do the right thing at the right time, without noise, and without

creating unnecessary antagonisms. He (Cortelyou) has full faith and trust in the American people, as they have in him, and with good reason.

#### VICE-PRESIDENT FAIRBANKS.

Of Vice-President Charles Warren Fairbanks Mr. Addison C. Harris says: "That he would make a popular candidate who would be equal to every responsibility, and a safe and patriotic President, no one can doubt who has a real knowledge of the man."

• Scrupulous fidelity to duty has been the keynote of Mr. Fairbanks's public and private record since his boyhood on the pioneer farm in Union County, Ohio, where he was born in a log house in 1852.

He would be a firm supporter of those policies of McKinley and Roosevelt that have commanded the public confidence. "Those policies with regard to the control of combinations of capital would be intelligently, fearlessly, and with certainty carried out by the new Administration."

He would maintain a foreign policy dignified, just, and firm. There would be no fear that collision with other powers would unnecessarily be provoked.

He belongs to no faction. He is upon good terms with all members of the party everywhere.

#### SENATOR FORAKER, OF OHIO.

Senator Joseph Benson Foraker has an able advocate in the person of his colleague, Senator Charles Dick, who writes of him: "There is perhaps no figure filling so large a place in the public mind at present who is so much misunderstood." His very absorption in the more serious duties of life has made it impossible for him to cultivate to the extent he has desired the acquaintance of the masses. But he has had many followers, and he has always been able to awaken the widest enthusiasm among his adherents. Devotion to principle and duty is the Senator's chief characteristic. Though he may be mistaken, no one can doubt his sincerity.

He would rather be right than be President. He never yielded his individuality and convictions for fear or favor. In a recent address in Ohio he said: "I have never understood that any one was to decide for me how to vote. If I am not to have that right, then you take all the honor away from the office, and so far as I am concerned you can take the office with it."

Senator Foraker has never corruptly influenced legislation; he owns no railway stocks or bonds, and has no personal interest in railway legislation.

His ability as a public speaker is well known and his fairness in debate is proverbial. Speaker Cannon once said of him: "Of all the brilliant statesmen in our political history there is no abler or squarer man, no better or fairer fighter, no man who honors the State and nation more or renders them better service than Senator Foraker, of Ohio."

In Senator Dick's words,

He is clean, forceful, courageous, a man who will not hesitate to stand by his convictions, whether such a course may be popular or not.

No one who knows the man well doubts that he would fill with honor and surpassing distinction the great office of President.

#### GOVERNOR HUGHES, OF NEW YORK.

Governor Charles Evans Hughes' claims to Presidential honors are analyzed by Mr. Frank H. Simonds, legislative correspondent of the *New York Evening Post*, who holds that there are two questions of real and substantial importance which go to the root of the candidacy of any man for a Presidential nomination, and upon the answer to which depends the question whether the Governor's candidacy is deserving of consideration. One concerns his ability to bring to the Republican ticket electoral votes not otherwise available; the other relates to the record he has made upon the issues of greater national significance, about which the next campaign and the next Administration must be centered. Now, in an off year Governor Hughes carried the State of New York by an unprecedented majority, and during the sixteen months in which he has been Governor Mr. Hughes, whenever he has appealed to the people directly, has invariably received an unmistakable verdict of popular approval. The belief is widespread that "Governor Hughes, if named for the Presidency, would carry the State."

Governor Hughes has given frequent proof of personal strength with the voters, which alone, in the minds of many trained observers, can serve to stem the trend toward Democratic victory in New York. Nor is there any evidence yet adduced which indicates a similar strength for any other Republican whose name has been suggested for the Republican nomination. In the eyes of the wisest politicians, Governor Hughes is the only candidate with whom New York may be recognized as safely Republican.

The New York Governor has other claims:

As the chief executive of a great State, in other fields besides his insurance legislation, he has shown a broad grasp of large questions.

The record of Governor Hughes is written in existing laws, not in interviews nor in fruitless agitation. And on this record his final claim to the Republican Presidential nomination must rest.

#### SENATOR KNOX, OF PENNSYLVANIA.

The claims of Senator Philander Chase Knox are presented by Edwin S. Stuart, Governor of Pennsylvania, who says that should the Senator become President the country will secure one of the clearest intellects and one of the most courageous characters ever called to preside over its destinies.

The new President will be heir to the Roosevelt policies, which are supported by the American people as a whole. The Republican candidate ought to be equal to the duty of recommending to Congress comprehensive legislation which will give settled conditions to all the vast and varied business interests of the country.

Senator Knox has special qualifications for this task. It was he who won for the Roosevelt policies their first great judicial triumph. He has framed the legislation upon them in Congress. In Pennsylvania, we who know the Senator believe that his nomination and election are demanded by and would promote the best interests of the American people.

Poise, careful reflection, and sound judgment are, in the opinion of Governor Stuart, among the notable characteristics of Senator Knox.

A man of brilliant mind, of broad views, of strong mental grasp, of sturdy, inflexible integrity, of indomitable courage, and of energetic patriotism, is the one whom the country needs to-day to carry on the war of the Government for the people. Such a man is Philander C. Knox.

#### SENATOR LA FOLLETTE, OF WISCONSIN.

In dilating upon the claims of Senator Robert Marion La Follette, Prof. John R. Commons points to the work of the Senator in Wisconsin, where his methods of campaigning have had a purifying effect. Wisconsin's, it has been stated, is the only Legislature that takes up economic questions on their merits, without reference to personal or party advantage. La Follette brought a new kind of lawmakers into public life, and consequently lawmaking in Wisconsin has become scientific. His whole political career has been devoted to the one great movement of restoring government to the people and establishing equal opportunity for all. A great political leader, says Professor Commons, in the struggle now on to redeem representative government, is one who pro-

foundly understands the economic and political principles involved, and is endowed with the power to point the way out.

He must have determination and aggressiveness, and the resourcefulness that comes from a long campaign in fighting for what the awakened intelligence of the people demands. . . . He must refuse compromise. . . . He must have confidence in democratic institutions and willingness to subordinate himself to those institutions. La Follette is that kind of a leader.

#### SECRETARY TAFT.

Last, but not least, comes Secretary of War William Howard Taft. Writing of him, Representative Theodore E. Burton says he has been aptly termed "the busiest man in a busy government." Noteworthy proof of his ability is shown in the early recognition he received after his admission to the bar. When less than thirty years old he was appointed judge of the Superior Court of Cincinnati, a bench which has been noted for the high standard of its judges. His work on the bench was characterized by singular fairness, and many of his decisions have since assumed considerable significance. He has shown ability as a diplomat and a special aptitude as a pacificator. In the Philippines his work was such that he "is honored and beloved by the varied millions of the islands." In Cuba, also, after the insurrection, "he brought the warring elements together, and outlined a solution for the resumption of self-government which was accepted by all the Cubans." The multiplicity and importance of his tasks, not only in his capacity of Secretary of War, but also, in effect, as Colonial Secretary and director of the public works of the Government, and more particularly in connection with the Panama Canal, are fully recognized by the American people.

Among Mr. Taft's especial qualifications for the Presidency Mr. Burton enumerates the following:

He has the rare union of a judicial temperament with a remarkable gift for administrative management. . . . His capacity for work is something enormous. . . . He would bring to the Presidency a practical experience surpassed by that of no one of his predecessors. . . . The people would have an assured hope for the secure development and progress of the country, and would rest safe in the reliance that a Chief Executive was at the helm who, in peace or in war, would guide the destinies of the nation with a strong hand and a gentle heart.

Mr. Walter Wellman's estimate of Secretary Taft appears elsewhere in this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

## HAS THE DEMOCRATIC PARTY A FUTURE?

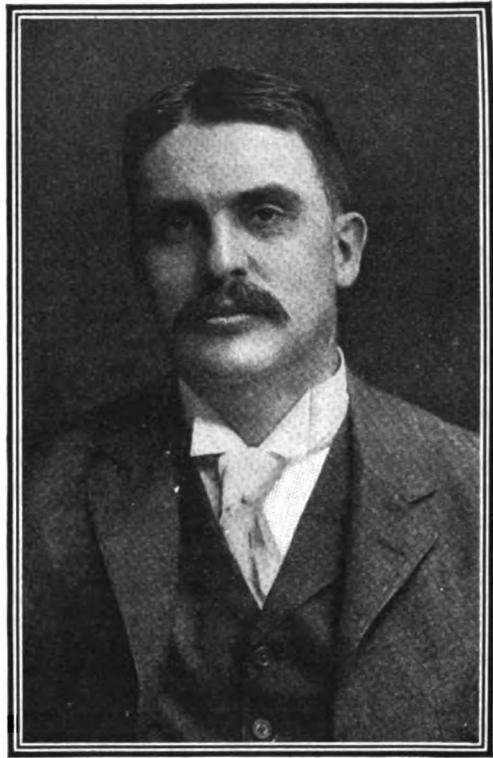
**B**EFORE answering this question, Mr.

Thomas Mott Osborne, writing in the *Atlantic Monthly* for May, thinks it may be well to inquire whether any such thing as a Democratic party really exists. Many men obtain their politics through environment or inheritance, just as, it is said, many children become criminals. Many Republicans belong to their party because their fathers were Republicans before them, or "because as youths they 'tagged on' after the quadrennial procession, cheering for Blaine, Harrison, McKinley, or Roosevelt, or because they have absorbed the arguments advanced by their own party orators and newspapers, carefully avoiding all others." Some; too, who were formerly Democrats, finding that more political preferment and favors were to be gained in the other camp, "saw the error of their ways and were converted." For the most part, the ranks of the Democrats are, says Mr. Osborne, recruited in just the same way. "Inheritance, environment, heeding the arguments of only one side, will account for most of them also." Then there are those who profess to see no real choice between parties: They both want to get in when they're out, you know; and to keep the other fellows out when they're in."

Though admitting that his method may be deemed a trifle fantastic, Mr. Osborne, in dealing with the question he has propounded, goes back to the dawn of history; for, he says, "to understand the Democratic party one must understand democracy; and to understand democracy one must understand what produced it,—what it was brought into the world to replace."

Mr. Osborne, beginning with the oldest political relation of mankind, that of master and slave, traces the erection and decay of the four successive great organized systems of human government,—imperialism, feudalism, paternalism, and aristocracy. Tested by the Golden Rule, these four systems had been tried and found wanting. At last in the New World the fifth great experiment in human government was inaugurated.

"Borne over the Atlantic," cries Carlyle, "to the closing ear of Louis, King by the grace of God, what sounds are these; muffled,—ominous, new in our centuries? Boston Harbor is black with unexpected tea; behold a Pennsylvanian Congress gather; and ere long, on Bunker Hill, *Democracy* announcing, in rifle-volleys death-winged, under her Star Banner, to the tune of



HON. THOMAS M. OSBORNE.

(A representative New York Democrat.)

Yankee-doodle-doo, that she is born and, whirlwind-like, will envelop the whole world!"

It was the hope of Washington and other great men of the Revolution that differences of opinion would not divide men into political parties. In other systems of government the formation of such parties tends to breed revolution; but in a democracy the "healthy differences of parties form the very firmest basis upon which the state can rest." The division into two political parties in the new Republic was natural; and it was "also natural that the people should look to Hamilton and Jefferson, the great conservative and the great democrat, for leadership."

After tracing the development of the Democratic party from the Democratic-Republic one, Mr. Osborne refers to the slavery question thus:

Both Whigs and Democrats tried hard to postpone the inevitable struggle; but straight in the path of progress lay the foul obstruction, and no advance was possible until slavery was removed. It was not the proper task of the Whigs, for they formed the conservative party; it was therefore inevitable that the Democratic

party, failing in its duty, should find its place taken by a new party pledged to carry on the fight for true democratic principles. The Republican party was formed for that purpose; and those who recognize in Lincoln a great democratic leader in the broad sense judge truly of his career and his personality.

Momentum is the strongest power in politics; and the Republican party, formed for the purpose of fighting slavery, flourished many years after slavery had ceased to exist. In turn it became a party of reaction, and after the war was over fell into the hands of "protected interests." The Democratic party now came to be regarded as the means of progress; but it was numerically weak in the North and morally weak in the South, and it included numbers of men who were not Democratic on principle.

The election of President Cleveland in 1884 changed the whole situation and rejuvenated the Democratic party. His tariff message "was a great act of statesmanship; it cleared the air and created once more a rational and logical division between the parties." The Democrats now had hopes of a long lease of power; but these hopes were not to be realized.

Never since Jefferson drove away from Washington has a President left office with louder voices of condemnation than Grover Cleveland; yet no President ever earned a more solid and lasting respect from mature and reasonable men. Cleveland has earned something better than popularity. The leader who after thirty years of political turmoil and confusion could bring a great party back to the recognition of genuine political principles will not be overlooked by history. He will take his place among the great Democratic leaders of the nation, and one of its few great Presidents.

The panic of 1893 was followed by "the failure of the Democratic party to redeem its promises of tariff reform; the years of hard times, and, finally, the free-silver madness."

At this time arose a commercial aristocracy, "the most greedy, domineering, unscrupulous form of aristocracy the world has ever seen." The tariff beneficiaries, the manufacturers of iron, steel, etc., and others who saw the advantages of artificial monopoly, set about to make the general public pay tribute to the privileged few, exploiting our railways and other public utilities.

The Democratic outbreak of 1896 was a justifiable revolt against existing conditions; a large number of Democrats of high character and wide influence left the party, and the victory went to the Republicans on the issue of the gold standard. The election of 1900 resulted in another Democratic defeat,

the party being still split asunder; and in 1904 the candidate chosen "failed to receive the support of the radical element, which showed its displeasure by remaining away from the polls, or voting for the Republican candidate, whose remarkable popularity blinded them to the fact that he represented nearly everything that as Democrats they ought to detest."

Now, asks Mr. Osborn, what is to be the outcome? He considers that to doubt of a Democratic party would be to despair of the Republic.

Until every man receives justice at the hands of his fellow men; until our cities are purged of corruption and our States are guided by righteous intelligence . . . until every man and woman gains that equal chance which the great Declaration holds is their right . . . the work of the Democrat is not finished.

Some progressive party there must be in the future; but will the present Democratic organization be that party? Throughout the North there is still a deep-seated distrust of it, founded on its pro-slavery record and its failure to back up Cleveland in his fight for reform. This forced many young voters into the other party, and deprived the Democrats of much-needed new blood. Also, the loss sustained by the party in 1896 has not been made good.

Mr. Osborn deplores the tendency among Democrats to make of a single leader a "boss." Equally does he regret the unhappy condition in the party that if the judgment of one section is followed as to platform and candidate, the other section will not support the ticket. "Unless there can be found some common ground it seems as if this seesaw might keep on forever and the party be kept from flying because its two wings are not willing to flap in unison." If the leaders would forget their quarrels and unite against existing abuses, if they would put aside their personal ambition and act only for the best interests of the party, there would be no doubt of the result.

If Democrats remain indifferent and discouraged, how can they hope to succeed? But if they will arouse themselves to the struggle, realize their responsibilities, forget former defeats and divisions, and think only of the future,—of the chance to make their party once more what it was formed to be, has been, and can be made, the great party of progress, the party of democracy,—if they will do this, not only can they again place their President in the White House . . . but they can start a new wave of genuine and orderly progress which will uplift the people of this democratic Republic to a higher place than has ever yet been reached.

## HOW A NATIONAL CONVENTION IS REPORTED.

THE acme of news-gathering is perhaps the reporting of a national convention, the "inside" story of which is given by Mr. Trumbull White in *Appleton's Magazine*.

Immediately after it has been decided where the convention shall be held,

the managing editors of important daily papers and, of course, of the Associated Press and the other co-operative news-gathering institutions, begin to send rush telegrams reserving accommodations for the staff of correspondents who will be assigned to cover the great event.

As the convention hall nears completion the chairman of the press committee, or some other official, determines the precise arrangements that shall be made for the accommodation of the army of reporters and the installation of scores of telegraph instruments. In the days immediately preceding the opening of the convention there seems to be about three weeks' work to be done.

Carpenters are still hammering, electricians are installing wires, and a few visitors are poking their heads about. If they are interested in the newspaper end, this is what they will see: Almost directly surrounding the chairman's rostrum is a group of chairs facing temporary pine-board desks in the most favored point of vantage for catching every word that may fall from the lips of a speaker. . . . At right and left are platoons of chairs and plank writing-tables, numbered and separated for assignment to individual newspapers, usually hundreds of them altogether.

As convenient as possible to the press seats are the private rooms for the telegraph companies, the press associations, and the more important daily papers. Here it is that most of the writing, other than that done in the convention itself, is turned out. In due time come the newspaper men, prominent among whom are the Washington correspondents,—men who do their regular work at the Capitol, who know all the statesmen and politicians and are known to them all. Also the "signed specials," many of whom carry reminiscences of conventions of thirty, or even forty, years ago, and who are regarded with interest by the younger reporters and by a large section of the public. Then there are the reporters from the small cities and villages, and last of all the new reporters who have come into the profession since the last convention.

Most papers have what is called the "running account" prepared by their own staff, a succession of men writing it in longhand and making it as interesting as possible. A

star reporter with certain gifts writes the descriptive account. Besides the speeches themselves, which have been furnished to every paper in advance, there are the humors of the convention, the street scenes, the wire-pulling, the fights over credentials, and the dramatic episodes,—the greatest when the nomination of the candidate is accomplished,—all of which have to be chronicled.

The applause is actually timed: for every convention has its one occasion when this is longest, and every candidate hopes to be the object of that distinction. It is a matter of common knowledge that much of the protracted enthusiasm is the result of definite organization, on the lines of the French *claque*.

Rest and sleep form no part of the scheme of the newspaper man during convention week. There was never a convention "where the time was sufficient or the staff large enough to get all the news that was wanted."

While the press staff is writing the news, telegraph operators rush it off to its destination at the other end of the wire.

Here another force, just as important and just as alert, is working under the same high pressure, to place it in the hands of the waiting public. Copy-readers and headline writers put the incoming story into shape for composition. . . . Typesetting machines turn the manuscript into metal slugs, to be transmuted by the stereotypers into "turtles" ready for the waiting presses. These are clamped on the cylinders, the league-long ribbons of white paper are threaded into the wonderful machines, and the wheels begin their clamor. From the other end of the presses the folded papers flow in a continuous stream, elevators hoist them to the room above, there is a cavalry charge of distributing wagons in every direction to catch the early mails or to supply waiting news-stands throughout the city, and within an hour from the moment of some great convention event a man a thousand miles away may be reading the account of it without a thought of the amazing organization that has been enlisted in his service, all at his command for a bit of copper.

Mr. White adds that he has discovered one thing in connection with convention reporting, and that is that Presidents, governors, and judges, Senators and Representatives, generals and admirals, every one of them, all require and wish advertising,—preferably, of course, advertising based on fair recognition of their worthy achievements, but, at any rate, advertising. The newspaper man may be pardoned his conceit that every public man feeds on publicity.

## FOUR DOMINANT PERSONALITIES IN THE COAL TRADE.

OUR coal supply is a subject of vital interest to every citizen, determining as it does not only the location of the great business centers, but also the position of the country itself in the commercial world. As the international strife for commercial supremacy increases, the supply of coal becomes more and more the center of industrial attention. The men who control coal deposits will be the great men in the business of tomorrow, writes Mr. George H. Cushing in the current number of *System*; and he enumerates four such "captains of coal": Josiah V. Thompson, of Uniontown, Pa.; Walter R. Woodford, vice-president of the Pittsburg Coal Company; J. K. Dering, ruler of the coal industry in Illinois and Indiana, and John H. Winder, who is just beginning the task of organizing the coal industry of the South.

Mr. Thompson, "who holds the future of the iron and steel industry of the Pittsburg districts in the palm of his hand," is a banker. In stature he is a giant, but "with the good-natured face of an overgrown boy."

It had been supposed that the entire deposit of coal that would make good coke was contained within two counties in Pennsylvania. Mr. Thompson thought otherwise, and began to buy land on the opposite side of the river.

To-day his acres are numbered by the thousands and there are in Uniontown twenty millionaires who acknowledge that their wealth came from following Mr. Thompson's advice and example.

This purchase of coking-coal lands has been proceeding for some years. Some of the lands of the Frick and Rainey companies have become exhausted, and the Thompson lands will become the future source of the coke supply of the Pittsburg iron and steel industry. Purchased originally at from \$50 to \$200 an acre, these lands are now worth from \$400 to \$1,000. Mr. Thompson has thus become "the one personality with which the iron and steel industry must come to an accounting."

Mr. Woodford was general superintendent of the Baltimore & Ohio Railway at Pittsburg, and afterward became president of the Pittsburg Coal Company. By consolidating his company with the Monongahela Consolidated Coal & Coke Company he gained the control of the "combine" on the Ohio River; and now one of those two big

organizations is devoted to the lake trade and the other to traffic down the Ohio and Mississippi rivers. On the completion of other consolidations which are in progress Mr. Woodford "will dictate to coal consumers of the entire section around Pittsburg, and, in fact, over the whole of Ohio and western Pennsylvania."

He departs himself in a quiet, almost diffident, way, and yet his is the iron hand which is coming to control the steam coal situation of one of the greatest industrial centers in the world. . . . He has taught the coal-producing interests that it is bad business not to set aside a certain amount of money against the depreciation of property . . . that since transportation is the biggest factor in the price of coal, the best results come from a careful choosing of equipment, from the speed of movement, and from a reduction to the minimum in the amount of handling.

Mr. Dering is a believer in the need for centralization, for the consolidation of coal-mines, "eliminating competition that makes for ruinous price cutting." In Illinois there are many coal-producing districts, each with conditions peculiar to the territory. He believed it possible to have a central holding company with a separate subsidiary operating company in each district. The Dering Coal Company is the result of his operations.

Mr. Dering recognizes the need of combination before organization can be possible, and consequently stands for the centralization of coal-land control. He also stands for the community of control without corporate recognition of interests, and then gives the expression to another element in the coal trade,—the use of modern appliances for the prevention of waste.

## ORGANIZING THE SOUTHERN COAL TRADE.

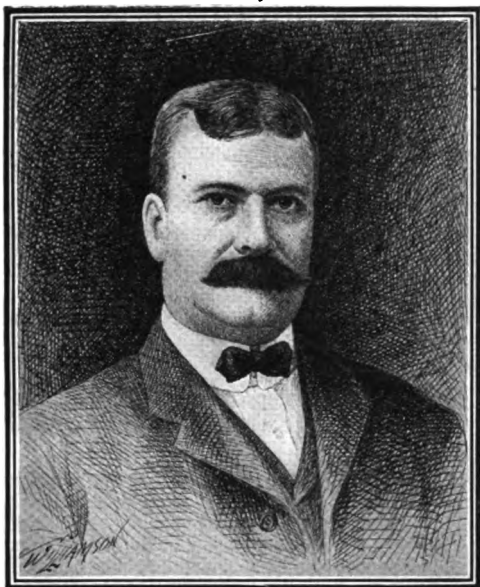
Mr. Winder is in the South "the personification of hope. He has rapidly forged to the front."

When president of the Sunday Creek Company he was once held up by a blizzard in a little mining town.

Sitting with two department heads by a big stove in a little country hotel, the situation in the Hocking Valley was discussed, and it was decided that the demands were for a more centralized organization to control the properties. As a result there was presented to August Belmont and J. P. Morgan a plan for comprehensive organization of the Hocking district.

Mr. Winder left the Hocking district to become president of the Clinchfield Coal Corporation, which owns about 300,000 acres of coal lands in West Virginia, Kentucky, and Tennessee.

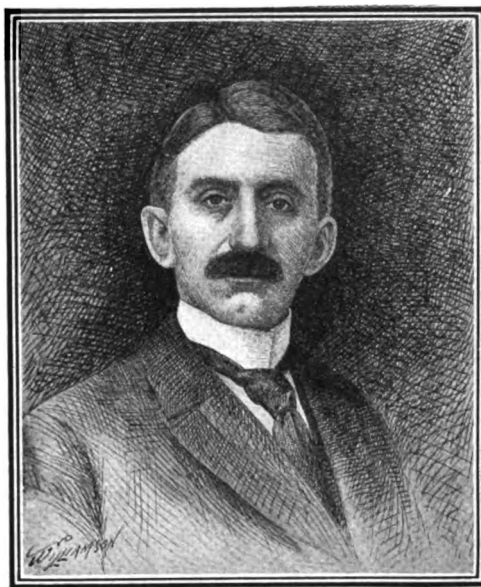




**JOHN H. WINDER,**  
(Who is organizing the coal business of the South.)

Mr. Winder is a man under fifty years of age. . . . Combined with genius for organization he has unusual qualities as a salesman, and is bringing all these powers to bear directly upon the solution of the tangled question of the South's fuel supply.

He is to be reckoned as a master of the coal consumer of the future. His syndicate controls the South & Western Railroad,

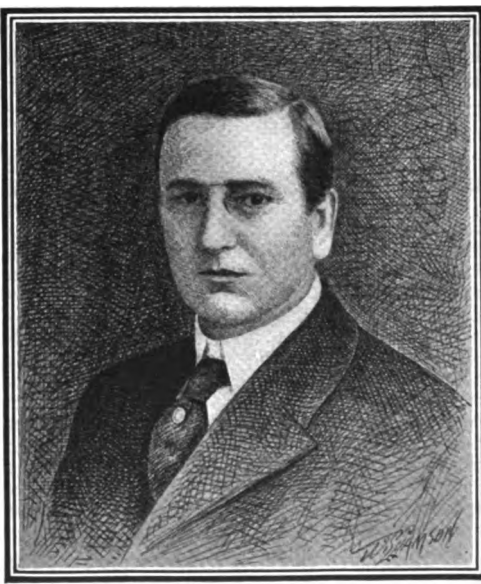


**WALTER R. WOODFORD,**  
(Vice-president of the Pittsburg Coal Company.)

which is now building a line from its fields to tidewater. General manufacturing in the district is dependent upon the coal-fields of his corporation or on those of Kentucky. As he is in control of the thickest and most persistent veins of the best quality of coal, it will readily be seen that his position is a dominant one in the future of the South.



**JOSIAH V. THOMPSON.**  
(The Unlontown, Pa., banker, who is a power in the Pennsylvania coal trade.)



**JACKSON K. DERING.**  
(“Ruler of the coal industry in Illinois and Indiana.”)

## THE REDSKIN AS LABORER AND AGRICULTURIST.

THE future historian of the North American continent will have no more interesting chapter to write than that describing the transformation of the redskin from his native state into full-fledged citizenship. And he will have to record the successful efforts of a Government in dealing with one of the most difficult problems of its time. The material out of which the authorities charged with the administration of our new Indian policy had to fashion their redskin citizen, writes Mr. C. H. Forbes-Lindsay in the *May Craftsman*, was of the crudest.

They had to deal with a being for whom ambition, independence, responsibility, and continuity of effort had no meaning,—one who had no conception of the duties and privileges of citizenship, and who felt no gratification in having the one imposed upon him and the other extended to him.

The reservation system had the effect of stunting endeavor to the extent of suppressing the chief motive of human effort,—self-preservation. Moreover, bitter experience had led the Indian to conceive a racial dislike of the white man, whose good faith he suspected. By nature the redskin is averse to manual labor, he has no bent for mechanical pursuits, and he abhors restraint and discipline.

When, in 1887, Congress passed an act "to provide for the allotment of lands in severalty to Indians," and extending citizenship to every aborigine who should separate himself from his tribe and adopt civilized life, the redskins evinced a general repugnance to the whole program of the Government.

They objected to the disruption of the old tribal ties, to the distribution of their lands, and to the demand that they should work. In many cases the greatest difficulty was experienced in inducing members of bands to take up their allotments. . . . The White River Utes stubbornly refused to accede to the order, and decamped, bag and baggage. . . . Where reservations were broken up and the allotted lands accepted, no disposition was displayed by the Indians to compass the essential object of supporting themselves. . . . They simply sat down and let things drift, or gave themselves up to indulgence in their old-time diversions of pony racing and dancing. In most cases the Government found it necessary to continue the accustomed distribution of rations for a greater or less period.

According to the *Craftsman* writer, it has to be admitted that, except in the case of the Five Nations,—the Cherokees, Choctaws, Chickasaws, Creeks, and Seminoles, number-

ing about one-third of the 267,000 Indians in the United States,—the redskin has made but slow advance in civilization. Strange to say, even the schools do not appear to have operated strongly in the suppression of racial proclivities.

Many of the Indians, now employed in pick-and-shovel gangs and their wives are college graduates who have returned to the tepees of their tribes and the customs of their ancestors, discarding the habits acquired at Carlisle and Haskell, even to the extent of eschewing the use of English.

It is not to be supposed, however, that the redskin is entirely without redeeming qualities.

The strain of childishness in his composition is mixed with virility. He possesses stamina.

He has the finest sense of an obligation, and performance will surely follow his promise.

His dislike for discipline is probably superficial, and certainly readily overcome, for employers find him tractable and amenable to training. Contrary to the general belief, he is naturally peaceable and mild in disposition. In short, the greatest antithesis exists between the Indian as we have imagined him and the Indian as we are learning to know him.

As a laborer the redskin has to-day passed the experimental stage. In operation it was found that the "Severalty act," to which reference has been made above, provided many Indians with more land than they could possibly work, and gave to others less than was sufficient to enable them to make a living. It was therefore deemed desirable to induce as many as possible to seek a livelihood away from their old homes,—this on account

of the greater prospect of earning money in the open labor field, but also because of the developing influence to be derived from contact with the workaday world.

The redskins were not persuaded to leave their reservation homes without difficulty. Then it was found impossible, at first, to keep any number of them to their work for more than a few weeks at a stretch. At the end of this period they would go off and spend their earnings or return home.

It was hard for the Indian to accustom himself to take up a pick promptly at the whistle of the gang foreman. . . . But he went manfully about overcoming his disinclination, until to-day he is universally acknowledged to be the best laborer in the West. Employers unite in the statement that the Indian is the most reliable and efficient laborer they can find.

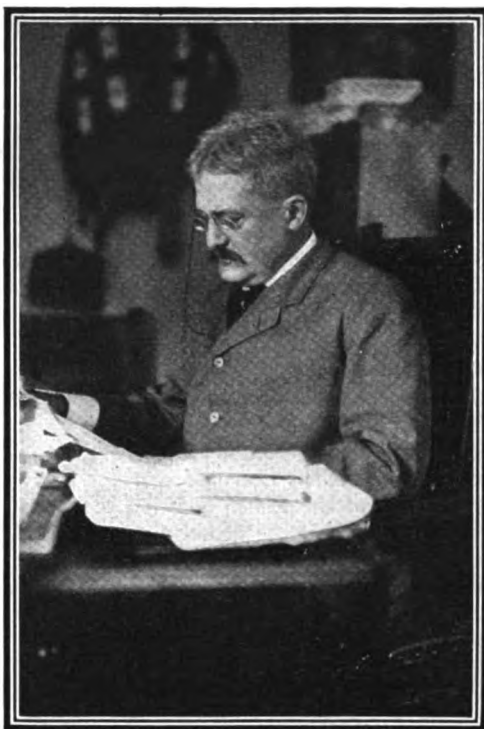
The redskin will attend to his work without watching; and, having accustomed him-

self to sustained effort, he will labor for a period of six months or more at a stretch. As many as 3000 Indians were employed on the repairs to the break in the lower Colorado River, and the engineer in charge has stated that without their aid the work could not have been brought to a successful completion. Through the long, hot summer days they labored steadily, when the thermometer stood at 120 degrees in the shade.

As an agriculturist the Indian has not been altogether a success. While excelling in stock-farming and herding, he cares little for tilling the soil. A few exceptional cases, however, encourage the hope that under suitable guidance the reservation Indian of even the most unpromising type may develop into an excellent farmer. The Crows of Montana furnish a notable illustration: Five years ago the Government was supplying all the needs of this tribe, and the members were spending their time in loafing, sports, and ceremonial. In 1902 their reservation was opened to settlement and agricultural allotments were made. Last autumn the Crows held their fourth industrial fair, at which stock, poultry, and farm produce were exhibited; and now all their allotments are being profitably cultivated.

The proposal has been made that certain of the Indian lands should be leased to beet cultivators and sugar manufacturers. This would insure the Indians a revenue from what might be otherwise unproductive areas, and, by affording employment to women and children, would enable the redskin to have his family about him while he works,—a consideration which appeals to him strongly.

Indian affairs are in able hands. Both Commissioner Frank E. Leupp and Secre-



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HON. FRANCIS E. LEUPP.  
(Commissioner of Indian Affairs.)

tary Garfield combine with an intimate knowledge of the redskin and his needs a strong sympathy for him and an earnest desire to better his condition. Mr. Leupp is even endeavoring to secure a revival of the Indian arts and native products. Children evincing any special talent for native handicrafts are given every facility in the schools for developing it.

## RUSSIA'S "RETURN TO EUROPE."

"**G**REAT Russia," an article in the *Russkaya Mysl* (*Russian Thought*), by Peter Struve, the editor of the *Osvobozhdenie* (*Liberation*), has not only aroused Russian opinion, but has even called forth discussion in the foreign press. In this discussion a prominent part has been taken by Professor Schiemann, the leading critic in Germany of Russian affairs and an adviser of Emperor William. This German authority devoted the whole of his review of international politics, in a recent number of the *Kreuz Zeitung* to a controversy with the deductions of Struve.

This controversy is unusually interesting, observes the *Warsaw Gazeta Wieczorna* (*Evening Gazette*), as it throws a double light on the foreign policy of Russia,—one from a truly Russian point of view, the other from the German viewpoint. Struve's and Schiemann's articles represent the two currents at present contending with each other in the Russian life,—the one aiming at a broad external policy, based on entirely new foundations resting on a real understanding of the national tasks of Russia; the other, a German product, earnestly fostered by Germany, would like Russia "ever to revolve in

the orbit of the old formulas that make of her merely a satellite of Germany."

Struve declares categorically that a "violent shift" in Russian policy is necessary.

From the policy of the Far East Russia must turn to a more active Russian work in Europe; and in order to do this it is necessary to know how to draw all the consequences issuing from the new condition of things. In this view Struve is not alone. With each day more and more Russian publicists recognize that, in view of the conditions created by the Japanese War, the political grouping and the concerted work of the Slavonic world are at the present moment an immediate question of existence, a question of life and death for Russia above all.

But here, as all these publicists having at heart the best interests of Russia agree, there arises the Polish question as the first, basic, problem of Russia's Slavonic work. A new formulation of the Polish question is the unavoidable result of the demolition of the old Russia; it constitutes the first link of the resurgent Slavonic cause. "The Polish question," says Struve, "from the point of view from which we are surveying the problems of Russian politics in general, is a political question or an international-political question *par excellence*."

The retention of the Kingdom of Poland is, in Struve's opinion, a question of political power for Russia. Hence, it is necessary that the local population should be satisfied with its lot in order that the union with Russia should become precious to the Poles and in order that that population should be morally united with Russia. . . . The idea of a Russification of Poland in the sense in which Germany is Germanizing (or rather striving to Germanize) her Polish provinces is an absolutely unrealizable Utopia. The denationalization of Russian Poland is attainable neither by the Russian nation nor by the Russian state. There cannot be a cultural or a national struggle on the territory of the Kingdom of Poland between the Russians and the Poles: the Russian element in the kingdom is composed solely of officials and troops. . . . We ought to avail ourselves of the fact that a part of Poland belongs to Russia, in order through her to fortify the natural ties with the Slavonic world in general, and especially with the western Slavonians. . . . The Polish policy should serve us as a means of drawing closer to Austria, which is now a pre-dominantly Slavonic state.

Having in view the interest of Russia, Struve declares:

"The retention of the Kingdom of Poland under the Russian scepter is indispensable to the political power of Russia." But this retention of the kingdom can be attained solely by the removal of the causes of the dissatisfaction of the Poles through far-reaching reforms. Here there usually is held forth



ALEXIS, THE HEIR TO THE RUSSIAN THRONE.

(The little Czarewich, who will be four years old in August, is a strong, healthy lad. Moderate Russians look forward to his accession as the golden age of the empire.)

the German bogey,—“Germany will never allow a liberal solution of the Polish question.” To be guided by such a fear would lead, observes Struve indignantly, to “Russia’s voluntarily becoming a vassal or a satellite of Germany, offering up a sacrifice of her historic mission, her power, and her dignity.”

These deductions of the distinguished Russian publicist have caused anxiety in Germany, even in the official spheres, and have resulted in the polemical answer of Emperor William’s adviser, Professor Schiemann.

Schiemann assails Struve for believing in a “German danger for Russia.” To be a Russian patriot and believe in a “German danger” seem incomprehensible to Schiemann. To believe in the “German danger” implies, he declares, that the believers are liable to historical hallucinations.

## JAPAN'S NAVAL PROGRESS AFTER THE WAR.

IN a vigorous, spirited article in the *Pacific Era* (Detroit) Tani Tatsuo, beginning a consideration of the progress made by Japan in navy building since her war with Russia, declares that the launching of the armored cruiser *Ibuki* on November 21, 1907, was the declaration of independence of the Japanese navy. "Every plate of steel, every rivet, every tube, every pillar, every scrap of steel or iron which entered into the making of this great armored cruiser was the product of Nippon manufacture." The entire material for the construction of this ship was manufactured by the Kure Steel Works and the Edamitsu Iron Works.

The writer goes on to state that for some years the Japanese dockyards have been launching and constructing ships quite as pretentious as the *Ibuki*; in fact more so. These ships, however, were from 10 to 50 per cent. in material constructed by foreign works. "Not so with the *Ibuki*. The launching of this cruiser placed a white stone in the annals of the Nippon navy."

The writer of this article goes on to point out that not only because of the exclusively Japanese material which went into this ship, but because of the brief time in which it was actually built, will the *Ibuki* always remain a marked historic vessel in the Japanese navy. Six months only intervened between the laying of the keel and the launching. Our own battleship the *Connecticut*, he points out, took eighteen months to construct. "Remarkable, is it not, that the first armored ship constructed entirely of materials manufactured in Nippon should hold so happy a record that only the British yards can match it?"

The building of this new vessel, says Mr. Tatsuo further, places the Nippon navy in entirely a different world from the one Admiral Togo found in the early days of February, 1904.

Through the progress of the Russo-Nippon War it was quite true that if Nippon had lost a battleship she could not replace it under any circumstances as long as the war continued. Things have changed. From this day on we can build a new ship for every damaged or sunken battleship, and that within a year and a half.

How many people outside of Nippon, asks this writer, realize this simple fact: "The power of the imperial navy of Nippon, even

in the *materiel* pure and simple, is about three times as efficient as the combined fleet which Admiral Togo led out of Sasebo on February 6, 1904." Togo had six battleships then and six armored cruisers.

Within two years after the war we have added nine battleships and five armored cruisers. In short, the number of vessels which can take their station at the battle-line was raised from eleven under Admiral Togo's command on February 6 to twenty-six to-day. Within a year even this number will be made larger by the addition of the *Aki* and *Satsuma*.

After a detailed statistical study and comparison of the present Japanese navy with that of Russia, and after making the interesting statement that the Japanese navy did not repair the Russian ships captured during the conflict, but rebuilt them, this writer has the following to say about tonnage in sea-fighting:

And what, pray, has tonnage ever done for any one? Nothing; certainly never since the days of the Armada. The famous "Nelson touch" was never in the tonnage table. Togo annihilated the Baltic squadron at the Korean Strait,—not altogether because the total tonnage of the Nippon battle-line of twelve armored ships was 131,150, and the combined tonnage of the twelve Russian ships was 119,106. Perhaps the determining factor in the comparative efficiency of the navies of the world is the personnel. "The chief factor," says Captain Klado of the Russian Navy in reviewing the battle of the Nippon Sea, "for the fleet to be formidable is the personnel."

It is, after all, he says further, not the material but the ideal which determines victory or defeat in every war on land or sea. Of the Japanese ideals as fighters he has this to say:

The sailor of the Nippon navy may or may not have as much intelligence as the sailors of the British or French navies; the quality of his muscle may or may not be as good as the Danish; he certainly does not have as many pounds of flesh and bone as the Russian, but what little the Nippon sailor may have about him is dominated, transfigured, by this century-old ideal of his. With him the fight for his country is not a matter of ambition, neither is it for glory. It is not a question of reward, neither gain nor loss; as with his ancestors who have gone before him, the question of the defense of state is a simple matter with him. Before him is only two things,—either that he accomplish his duty and conquer the enemies of his state, or apologize for his failure with death. And it is in this immaterial, highly spiritual X that the Western critics and students of the last war should find the solution of the mystery.

## ELECTRICITY, THE RENEWER OF YOUTH.

IN addition to microbes, man carries in his body the perpetual menace of exhaustion, that ageing of the faculties which ends in death. A characteristic of old age, says a writer in the French magazine *Jesais Tout*, is the arterial hardening known to doctors as *arterio sclerosis*, which causes the artery to lose its elasticity and assume the rigidity medically termed "pipe-stem artery." If no one but the aged were so afflicted it would pass as a necessary evil,—the inevitable beginning of the expected end. But it is an ill common among men of middle age and even younger, and where it exists danger of death is imminent. Many in excellent health are attacked by a mysterious weakness of all the organs. The arteries have lost their elasticity. The pulse beats too fast and the circulation is bad because the channels are rigid. The name given to this disease is hypertension.

An artery, continues the writer already quoted, is comparable to a rubber tube for the circulation of illuminating gas. When

the tube is pressed too hard it cracks. Hypertension is the rigidity of the arteries which hinders the normal circulation of the blood, and in this condition the action is the same as in the case of an aged or sick artery. Now, the question is this: Is there any way to restore elasticity, or to renew the youth of an artery? Doctors are beginning to think that there is.

The arterial tension is gauged by special instruments which may be compared to the manometers of steam engines. Above the normal point there is persistent danger of *arterio sclerosis*; below it man is in a condition of weakness and his physical energy and resisting power diminish. After a two days' fast the arterial pressure is below the normal, but, unless great care is taken, if nourishment is given, the pressure rises above normal. That, too, is dangerous. Life exacts perfect equilibrium of all the organic functions, and such equilibrium can be determined only by mathematical measurement of the arterial pressure.

Science has long attempted to arrest hypertension by means of drugs and by systematic work of different kinds, but when any improvement has been effected it has been insignificant and of short duration.

D'Arsonval's discovery of high-tension currents of great frequency and the application of them to therapeutics seem to have solved the problem of rejuvenation. In industrial machines the current is reversed 100 and 200 times per second. D'Arsonval, the man who discovered the currents, and Mortier, the doctor who has applied them to hypertension, use a current reversed 400 and 500 times per second. The industrial, weak current kills. D'Arsonval's current was first made to traverse the physical body of man, which it did without causing the least unpleasant sensation. Passing through the body of a rabbit it caused diminution of the arterial tension. The reason for this difference is that human arterial tension is by far superior to that of a rabbit. Man's tension demanded the production of a machine giving more intensity than the machine in use. When experiments were made with the new machine, arteries so hypertense that they were supposed to be beyond help were seen slowly regaining their elasticity. However, results were exceptional and long in coming. Then other engines were made, powerful enough to convey the currents which conquer disease. In this form of treatment the patient to be cured is shut in a sort of cage and bathed with torrents of electric fluid. His body glitters with sparks which flash to the accompaniment of detonations. He is the center of a storm of fireworks, yet he feels nothing. Sitting at ease in a little armchair, he may talk or smoke, meditate, or look at his surroundings. After thirty minutes' sojourn in his electric bath he leaves the cage and finds that his arterial tension is much improved. Six sittings of thirty minutes



• A PATIENT IN THE D'ARSONVAL ELECTRIC BATH.

each in the cage will bring it to the normal, and the treatment may then cease until required again. The cure is not permanent, but the patient is out of immediate danger. He has not received a definite bill of health, but he has been rejuvenated for a time, and until the effect wears off he will work as he did when at his best, or perhaps even better.

Hypertension is found in diseases due to slow nutrition and where nutrition has been retarded by intoxication (alcoholic, tabagic, or any other), or where there is too much uric acid in the blood. High tension currents cure for the time because they increase the nutritive action and augment organic combustion. They are of great use in cases of hypertension, weak nerves, brain-fag, and all the ailments classed as "neurasthenia."

Examination of the arterial pressure of a person suffering from neurasthenia shows that, under certain conditions, the action is irregular.

Excitement brings the nervous tension to the normal and temporarily relieves the sufferer. His normal energy returns, but in a very short time his tension diminishes, his energy disappears, and he relapses into depression. He is called "weak," "irritable," and "a crank," because he does not perpetually maintain the energy given him by his galvanized nerves during one moment of false strength out of twenty-

four hours of nervous exhaustion. The treatment of neurasthenia by electricity is nothing more than a judicious recharging of nerves by a mechanical contrivance which yields electric energy. There are two different methods of treatment: In one the subject is seated on an isolating stool and subjected to the sparks and inhalations of ozone obtained by placing a special brush in his mouth. In the other method a vibrator is used, which is moved along the vertebral column, the patient being dressed. The effect produced depends upon the intensity of the current, the length of the application, and the degree of excitability of the nervous system to which the application is made. Care is taken to avoid imprudence. Excess in action would result in artificial overtension. The two methods start from the same principle and invariably improve the condition of the subject of the experiment, and in some cases a complete cure has been effected. The degree of improvement depends upon the patient. Remarkable results have been obtained by different specialists who annually endow the science of electric application with perfected and appropriate methods and instruments.

Electricity will be the good fairy of the twentieth century if, in addition to light, heat, and other marvels of contemporary science, it cures the two redoubtable ills: old age as the result of the wear and tear of time on the physical body, and premature old age.

## ECONOMIC ADVANCE OF THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

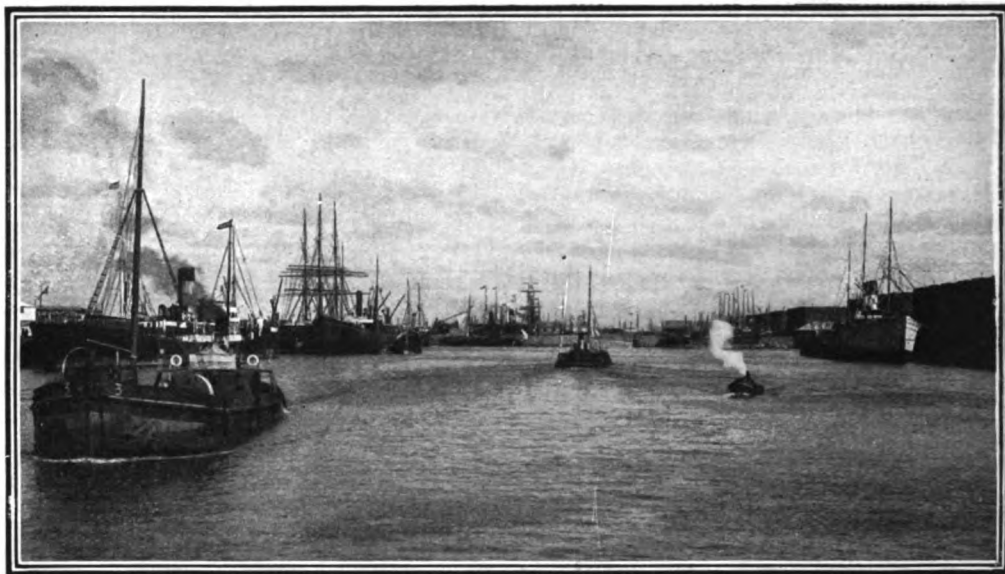
IT is now nearly 400 years since a small body of Spanish explorers, in search of a southwest passage to the East Indies, entered the mouth of the chief river of the country afterward known as Argentina. Eleven years later (1527) Sebastian Cabot, following De Solis' lead, sailed into the same embouchure, and, noticing the profusion of silver ornaments worn by the Indians in the vicinity, named the river "Rio de la Plata" (Silver River). On February 2, 1553, Del Campo stepped ashore where now stands the chief city of the Argentine Republic, and there founded the Settlement of Santa Maria de Buenos Aires.

The country which from these beginnings passed under the dominion of Spain represented an area equal to that of all central and western Europe combined. After years of internecine warfare and many revolutions the people in 1816 declared their independence, and ever since, in spite of insurrections and other internal disturbances, they have been commercially and economically forging ahead.

The extraordinary development of the Argentine Republic in recent years forms the subject of a very interesting paper by M. Ruiz in *L'Industrie Moderne* (Paris), a newcomer in the magazine field, which is also published in Spanish (*La Industria Moderna*). According to this writer, of all the South American states none gives promise of such a brilliant future as the republic under consideration, and this she owes to her enlightened administration. The rapid construction of railways, bringing into communication the several provinces with the principal port, is diminishing the petty rivalries which have existed between the capital and the other towns. Immigrants arriving in Argentina settle there without any idea of returning to their native countries, but without renouncing their customs and tastes. From these conditions Buenos Aires derives the chief benefit, and this tends to explain why the capital has become the richest and most populous city of the South American continent.

To-day, according to the latest statistics,





A VIEW OF THE HARBOR AND DOCKS OF BUENOS AIRES, COSTING \$25,000,000 TO CONSTRUCT.

the territory of the Argentine Confederation covers the enormous area of 3,000,000 square kilometers, or about five times as much as France.

It includes both the most extensive plains and the highest mountain summits of the New World. The former, including the immense Pampas, are indeed its chief topographical characteristic. The eastern provinces of the republic contain vast pasturages, and their soil is completely covered with vegetation. Here the raising of cattle, and especially of horses, is followed on a large scale. The provinces of the north are favored with an excellent climate, are well watered and possess a rich vegetation. In the south grain is raised, the peach and the olive are grown, and wines are produced. The western provinces are hot; the soil is arid and unsuitable for agriculture, and recourse to irrigation is necessary; but even here large droves of cattle flourish, being fed principally on artificial clover, and large numbers of animals are furnished to the abattoirs of Chile. The district also possesses copper and silver mines.

The chief sources of the wealth of the republic are stock-raising and agriculture. Some idea of the extent of the former may be gathered from the fact that Argentina exports annually 2,000,000 head of cattle, without counting about 260,000 horses. Horsehair is another important item of commerce, 2,000,000 kilograms of it representing the annual export. The trade in wool has increased so rapidly that to-day the commercial value of the exports of this commodity exceeds that of the other products exported by the republic.

Agricultural advance in Argentina has been little less than marvelous. From an unimportant pastoral industry, the production of cereals has assumed such proportions that, instead of importing wheat and maize from Europe and the United States, Argentina now raises more than sufficient for her internal consumption.

In the provinces of Tucuman, Salta, Jujuy, and Santiago the sugar-cane is successfully cultivated. The construction of railroads, affording a ready outlet for this product and others, like the yucca, rice, cucumbers, melons, and pepper, has resulted in an enormous extension of their cultivation. Sugar plantations have increased surprisingly, and it is estimated that the sale of cane brandy alone suffices to defray the cost of their exploitation. The culture of the beet-root, of comparatively recent introduction, is already considerable. The vine flourishes in the provinces and at the foot of the Andes; and excellent wines are obtained resembling those of Xeres, Madeira, Muscat, and Oporto. . . . The orange, imported from Europe, flourishes remarkably: the trees attain a colossal height and live for a hundred years, and each stem supports about 3000 oranges. Indeed, nearly all the fruits of the Old World grow here in extreme exuberance, and will assuredly prove an important source of wealth for the republic.

M. Ruiz quotes the following figures to give the reader an idea of "the colossal development of the commercial movement in Argentina": In 1870 the commerce of the republic was estimated at 400,000,000 francs; in 1875 it had increased to 560,000,000; in 1888 the imports were 641,824,955

francs, and the exports 499,267,385 francs; in 1906 they were, respectively, 1,349,852,605 and 1,461,271,145 francs, and to-day it is certain that the total imports and exports exceed three milliards of francs.

Of some of the principal industries the following interesting details are given:

The frozen-meat industry, which really occupies the first place in Argentina, is exploited by nine companies, the annual output being about 4,000,000 whole carcasses of sheep and nearly 1,500,000 quarters of large cattle. The great development of this industry is largely due to the exclusion from foreign ports, except those of England, of living animals. There are thirty-five sugar refineries, producing together more than 130,000 tons of sugar, or 14,000 tons beyond the quantity required for home consumption; and the latter quantity is exported annually. Between 600 and 700 mills (including two modern ones installed by American companies) produce flour and other farinaceous foods to the extent of 108,000 tons beyond home

requirements, the exports going principally to Brazil and England.

There are certain industries, however, which are either entirely unexploited or are in a comparatively rudimentary state in the republic, such as the manufactures of cotton and woollen goods and tanned leather. These offer exceptional inducements to foreigners, all the raw material being produced in Argentina itself.

As regards population, there is room and to spare for millions of immigrants. To-day the number of inhabitants is about 5,000,000, whereas the republic could easily sustain 100,000,000. Moreover, it must not be supposed that the comforts and conveniences of modern life are lacking. Electric tramways thread the streets of Buenos Aires, and one can traverse the Pampas on trains to which are attached dining and sleeping cars. About 51,000 kilometers of telegraph lines have been constructed.

## THE PERIL OF THE TREE IN JAPAN AND IN FRANCE.

ONE of the chief beauties of the natural forests in Japan, says a writer in the *Revue Scientifique* (Paris), is their wild growth. "Springing from the depths of ravines or rising from the slopes, some of the trees stand with their lustrous leaves spread like umbrellas to the clouded sky, cut midway between trunk and top by long low-lying trains of fog." Few birds are seen or heard.

The deep silence is broken only by the lugubrious roll of the thunder or the roar of the cascades lashed by the storms so frequent in that tormented land. In the Japanese flora the manifestation of life is intense. Around the trunks left standing the new growth swiftly springs, and the logs left upon the ground are rapidly covered by the fat humidity with a sumptuous winding sheet of ferns and flowing vines.

Twelve years ago, says this writer, Japan was importing flooring. Now the new demands of the country,—the railroad, telegraph, and telephone systems, with all their adjuncts, and the many needs resulting from the opening of Japan to the world,—have added to the imperative call for wood. Since the market has begun to carry so-called "European paper," Japan is both importing wood and cutting her forests for the manufacture of wood-pulp. Hitherto she has been able to import all the pulp needed in her industries from Canada and the United States.

Crying as the need has been, is now, and probably always will be, however, the forest mean something more to Japan than fuel for the requirements of industry.

During the civil wars the daimyos, or nobles, who made war upon each other, used the forests as frontiers, coverts, and bulwarks. These wars gave the nation its warlike instincts and character. The forests that shielded the warriors or echoed to their triumphant cries stood when the wars were over as perpetual memorials of a crucial hour, and even now they serve as landmarks in the history of Japan.

When the Tokugawa Shoguns had established peace the daimyos, who held the land, set up what might be called a system of personal forestry. They levied taxes, surrounded tree cutting with very timely and necessary,—if arbitrary and capricious,—restrictions, and forbade with heavy penalties the cutting of fine species of trees. They sold or distributed seeds, granted woodlands, gave prizes to zealous or critical tree-cultivators, and even went so far as to give property rights to people who rewooded the land with fine species.

So it is not to-day that Japan has awakened for the first time to the value of forestry. Her present activity in regard to the woods is the effort of the good manager who puts her house in order after some unusually disturbing domestic event. With all the nation's love and reverence for the trees, the

needs were there. The daimyos needed wood for repairs, as their strongholds and temples had been damaged by the wars. Men had developed ambitions and felt the need of property. Industry demands the rapid production of the crude matters needed for commerce and in the home industries. Wood was used then, as it is now, for all purposes. Japan made and is still making everything of wood,—all the implements that the European makes of tin, zinc, pasteboard, or leather. Her houses have no chimneys, so to heat them she burns charcoal in braziers. In charcoal alone her annual consumption is estimated at nearly \$40,000,000. The needs have been, and still are, great, and the forests have been worked too hard. A rapid glance at the new forestry organization, however, shows that Japan knows her needs, and if intelligent, determined actions counts for anything in national effort, she will not have to wait long for the realization of her aspirations along the line of her natural resources. She must have wood. As things are now, it is more profitable to plant to timber than raise garden vegetables or the plants used in industry.

#### THE BEGINNING OF GOVERNMENT SUPERVISION.

About ten years ago the government fixed upon a plan of reform comprising the classification and regulation of forests. A fund of approximately \$11,000,000 was set apart for forestry work. The administrative system adopted includes rules for the preservation of trees, permits for timber-cutting, rules for clearing forests, for working on the roads, for starting and maintaining nurseries, and for protecting the woods from fires, cave-ins, shifting sands, inundations, and winds and tides. It is notable that the system makes ample provision for something considered by the Japanese as essential to an enlightened nation: beauty of scenery and the perpetual memorial in nature of the nation's historical facts. As the forestry organization stands to-day it seems complete.

Besides the school of the university and its special faculty there are ten schools (five secondary and five primary, or apprenticeship, schools), all endowed and maintained by the state or under other special care. The school course is three years. In the secondary schools the students learn everything of use to an expert agriculturist and everything required in the successful working of a farm. An ideal school is maintained by Japan at the experiment station of Megura, Tokio. In that college the student is drilled to answer to all the exigencies of the

new forestry organization. The diploma covers road, bridge, and topographical engineering, and all the subjects treated by the higher forestry school.

Perhaps the finest of Japan's trees is the *zelkova keaki*, which has been described as "an elm of Dunkirk with the nerves of an oak of Provence."

This beautiful tree grows to a height of from forty to fifty feet. In a climate like that of Normandy or Brittany it might well endure a long winter, and for bordering roads and parkways it could not be surpassed. The ironwood tree is too well known to need description. The most precious of all the trees of Japan from the point of view of product is the camphor tree. Most of our camphor is obtained from Formosa. This product, however, is much menaced by artificial camphor. In Japan the camphor-tree does not produce much, and the demand for camphor has gone far toward exterminating the tree. The *matsu*, or dwarf pine, is a sturdy little tree, which is cut many times before it gets its growth, but on the steep, inaccessible slopes, in the easily inundated valleys, and in the rice fields it is allowed to stand until it attains more important size.

#### A Frenchman on the Destruction of the Forests.

"It would be a misfortune for France,—a curse,—should all the trees be cut down; the arts would cease to be, and the artisans would be driven into the pastures to eat grass." In these words M. Casanove, writing in the *Petit Journal* (Paris), gives us his opinion of what is likely to happen,—in France in particular, and in the world in general,—if measures are not taken to protect existing forests and to plant new ones.

Nearly four centuries have passed, he continues, since Bernard Palissy prophesied the coming death of the forest, the cessation of the arts, and the abject poverty of the artists. The French people have ignored his wise counsels, and their zealous persistence in stripping France of her trees has been equalled only by their criminal ignorance.

It is a crime, it is parricide (the word is not too strong!), to continue our war against the forests. We know that the trees feed the ground and make it fruitful; we know that they fertilize it by holding the water from rain and from the springs for a moment before the little streams and the rivers bear it to the ocean. It is the work of the trees to lessen the danger from the torrents by checking their impetuous flow and by drawing the water down to their roots in the earth. We are striking a death-blow to the bulwark raised by our ancestors when they planted the trees as imperishable ramparts before the sea to hold back the invading sands. The trees have given man his strength. They have protected the land he lives on, and to repay them for it he gives them death.

He will suffer for it! For when the forests disappear humanity will cease to be. The waters will engulf the land or bury under the sands of the sea the cities with their inhabitants. If there be any who escape they will soon die, for no one could live long in air made irrespirable by the absence of the forests.

Believing that the trees are of the universal confraternity our forefathers cherished them. And they did well, for by the trees came the agricultural power to renew the earth despite the damage done by war and its attendant evils. In early days the trees were the religious, political, and moral emblems of the people. Oak, chestnut, beech, or pine tree, it is our duty, as it is to our interest, to stop the evil work of the hatchet and the axe.

Literature is one of the principal causes of forest destruction. The daily journals of the world consume an enormous quantity of wood-pulp. Even the publication of one suc-

cessful novel demands the sacrifice of a small forest. The nations of the world, however, says M. Casanove in conclusion, are beginning to awake to the danger of destroying the forests.

Forty-three different forest-protection societies are now at work in one single department in France (Ardecke), and it is encouraging to note that some of the members are peasants and that some are children. During a period of three years they have started 235 nurseries, planted or grafted nearly 80,000 trees, and sowed the seed of innumerable resinous species. The societies teach the meaning and value of trees, prevent tree abuse, and do all in their power to favor the cultivation of forests. Each member works at least one day of every week, either at home or elsewhere, planting forest or fruit trees or looking after those already planted, grafting, trimming, destroying parasites, etc. The societies work against the needless destruction of the trees and shrubs, and strive to prevent children and animals from damaging trees and plants, picking buds and leaves, or breaking branches.

## VARIATIONS IN LATITUDE.

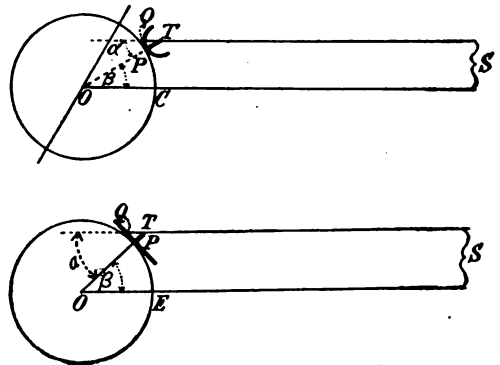
IT is rather startling to be told that the latitude of New York City is continually changing. But this is just the proposition that has now been put forth in the *Scientific American* for April 25 in an article on "Is the Axis of the Earth Shifting?" by J. F. Springer. It may be a little difficult to grasp just what this means. Astronomers have known for centuries that the direction of the earth's axis of rotation is continually varying. But this is not what is meant. The axis of rotation has been ascertained to be undergoing changes relatively to the earth itself; so that to-day the North Pole has a certain location on the earth's surface, while to-morrow it will be at another point. All this is surprising, and surprising not only to the lay mind, but to the astronomical as well. For astronomers have been reluctant to admit so revolutionary a principle. However, the cold logic of facts has at last carried the day, and in astronomical circles the mutation of the Pole is an acknowledged fact.

The writer prefaces his account of this most modern result with a brief resumé of two principal ancient and one modern method for the determination of latitude.

The old Greeks were well convinced of the rotundity of the earth, so that the idea of latitude was familiar. They observed that the sun in summer apparently moves northward until the day of the summer solstice,

when he appears to reach the limit of his northern excursion. At noon upon that day the hollow gnomon might be used to determine latitude. Thus in Fig. 1, such a gnomon is shown as set up at the point P, with its indicator PT in line with a radius. The light from the sun at noon passes through C on the Tropic of Cancer, and if continued would pass through the center O. At the same moment a shadow, PQ, is made by PT. The angles  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are equal, since the sun is so distant. Consequently, by measuring the angle  $\alpha$  the ancient Greeks determined the value of  $\beta$ , which gives the latitude from the Tropic of Cancer.

There was another method capable of ap-



FIGURES 1 AND 2.

plication at the vernal or autumnal equinox: The gnomon (Fig. 2) is here a flat-bottomed one. The sun shines directly over the equator E, so that the angle EOP ( $\beta$ ) gives the latitude of P north of the equator. But  $\alpha = \beta$ , so that the shadow PQ cast by PT enabled them to determine  $\alpha$ , and thus the north latitude.

There are a number of methods of determining latitude at the present day. Perhaps the simplest is that indicated by Fig. 3. N is the celestial pole. An observer stands at P and determines the angle  $\phi$ , H being the astronomical horizon. Since N is so far away, NO and NP are both perpendicular to OE,—E being on the equator. Consequently  $\theta = \phi$ . But  $\theta$  is the latitude. This gives a very convenient rule which every one may use. *Find how many degrees the north star is above the horizon.* This is approximately the latitude of the place.

Some years ago Dr. Küstner at Berlin was engaged in applying a new method for the determination of the constant of aberration. In order to do this with precision it was necessary to ascertain with great exactitude the latitude of Berlin. Notwithstanding a great deal of work, it seemed impossible to explain the origin of what were apparently errors in the results of observations. At last he announced that the latitude of Berlin appeared as having a variation of .2" to .3" in the

course of a not very long interval of time. If this was in reality a change of latitude, it meant that the North Pole had undergone a change of position of from twenty to thirty feet. And his data were not the only ones which suggested the theory of a moving Pole. At length it was determined to send an expedition to the other side of the earth and

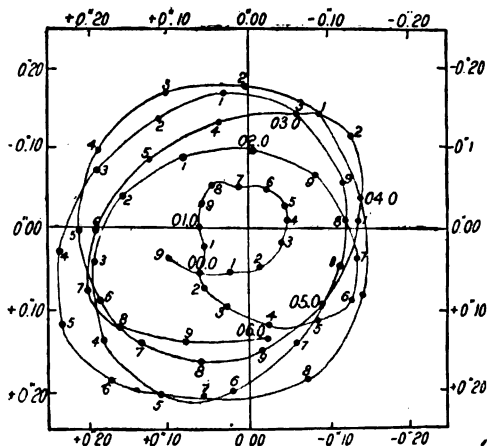


FIGURE 4.

ascertain whether a shifting of the Pole in the opposite direction could be detected. Accordingly observations,—in which the United States Government co-operated,—were made on the Sandwich Islands, while similar work was performed at Berlin and other points. The result was decidedly confirmatory.

At about the same period an American astronomer, Dr. S. C. Chandler, at Cambridge, Mass., became aware that a certain series of determinations of latitudes showed not only variations, but variations apparently obeying some more or less complicated law. While the discrepancies apparently meant that the Pole was shifting, he was unwilling, without further investigations, to commit himself to such a startling proposition. Accordingly, the matter was gone into in most minute detail, with the result that he has very clearly established the existence of two influences at work. At times these work together, shifting the Pole to a maximum distance from a mean position. At times they counteract each other, reducing the mutation to a very small minimum. The one influence has a yearly period, while the other has a period varying from twelve and one-half to fourteen and one-half months. Combined, they produce a cycle of about seven years.

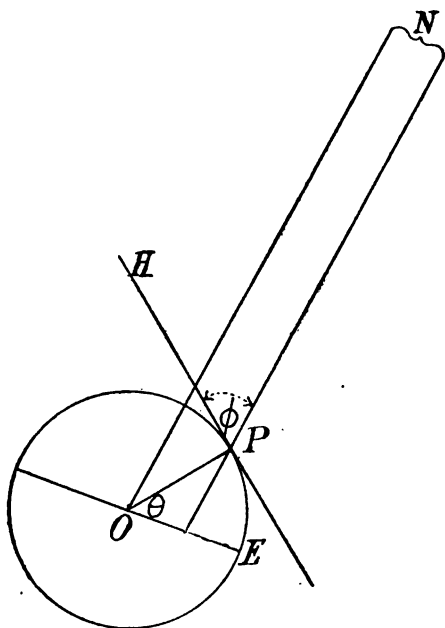


FIGURE 3.

The mutation of the Pole is now admitted, and the International Geodetic Association has been maintaining five or six stations where observers are engaged in determining the precise course of the moving Pole. These stations, together with one or two other observatories which have undertaken to co-operate, are scattered over the globe,—most of them, however, being in the northern hemisphere and within twelve seconds of a single parallel of latitude,— $38^{\circ} 8' N$ .

Fig. 4 gives results of six years of observation. The curve indicates the movement of

the Pole. The mean position is at the center. The Pole has not occupied during this period this exact central position, however. The numbers scattered along the curve represent the years divided into tenths from 1899.9 to 1906.0. The amount of variation from the mean position may be found by using the numbers along the margins. These indicate deviations as measured by seconds of arc. To convert seconds into feet let it be noted that one second is approximately equal to 100 feet. It will thus be seen that the Pole has wandered as much as thirty or forty feet.

## ROBINSON CRUSOE'S ISLAND.

JUAN Fernandez, in the Pacific Ocean, has long been identified, in the popular imagination, with Robinson Crusoe's island. This is because many writers have with reason associated Crusoe with Alexander Selkirk, and it is a matter of history that Selkirk passed five years of solitude on the island of Juan Fernandez, now a dependency of Chile. Since this island was the scene of the adventures that formed the basis of Defoe's masterpiece, it is not unnatural that it should be spoken of as "Robinson Crusoe's Island," and yet any attempt to reconcile its geographical position with that of the island as specifically defined in "The Life and Strange, Surprising Adventures of Robinson Crusoe," must result in utter confusion, for Defoe locates the scene of his hero's adventures "in an uninhabited island on the coast of America, near the mouth of the great river of Oroonoke" [Orinoco],—obviously not in the Pacific Ocean, but on the other side of the South American continent, near its northern coast.

Writing on this subject in *Modern Language Notes* for March, Mr. Ralph O. Williams says:

If we consult Crusoe's story we find that he was a planter in the Brasils at the time he embarked for the coast of Guinea; that he went as supercargo to buy negroes for himself and other planters, and that after crossing the equator, while sailing in a northerly direction, the ship was struck by a hurricane, which drove her for twelve days.

"About the twelfth day," says Crusoe, "the weather abating a little, the master took an observation as well as he could and found . . . he was got upon the coast of Guiana, or the north part of Brazil, beyond the River Amazons,

toward that of the River Oroonoke, commonly called the Great River. . . . Looking over the charts of the seacoast of America with him, we concluded there was no inhabited country for us to have recourse to [for repairs] till we came within the circle of the Caribbee Islands, and therefore resolved to stand away for Barbadoes."

But when in latitude 12 degrees and 18 minutes, another furious storm drove them westward, land was sighted, the ship struck sand, and the sea broke over her. All on board expected the ship to go to pieces immediately; the boat which they got into was swamped and upset by "a raging wave, mountain-like," and Crusoe was the only one who got ashore. His explorations later showed that he was on an uninhabited island.

Crusoe had seen on clear days from a hill on his island land that he thought was the continent, but which he found later were islands near the mouth of the Oroonoke. While contriving means for going to the mainland, which he supposed these islands to be, Crusoe and his man Friday rescued Friday's father and a Spaniard from a party of savages who had brought them to Crusoe's island for a meal, and Crusoe learned from the Spaniard that there were Spaniards and Portuguese on Crusoe's supposed mainland who had been wrecked there in "a Spanish ship bound from the Rio de la Plata to the Havana."

The statements and quotations given above as to the course of the ship in which Crusoe was supercargo agree with an American reprint of "Robinson Crusoe." They have been verified by comparing them with the fourth edition of the first volume (London, 1719), and with the map in the fourth edition showing the ship's course.

It is clearly an error to speak of Juan Fernandez as "Robinson Crusoe's Island," save in the sense that Defoe probably got his inspiration for the story of Crusoe from Selkirk's solitary life on that island in the South Pacific. Crusoe's island itself existed only in Defoe's imagination.

## THE AMERICAN LITERARY INVASION OF EUROPE.

THE first American story-teller to invade Europe was Washington Irving, who, nearly a century ago, began to write tales of rural England, "with a grace and insight surpassed by none of his British contemporaries." The quoted words are those of Mr. Arthur Bartlett Maurice, who contributes to the *May Bookman* a clever little summary of the American literary invasion of Europe. Illustrating Mr. Maurice's text is an interesting map, which we reproduce, drawn by Paul Wiltstach. This map is admittedly incomplete,—it is "final only for the moment." The tide of American invasion is rising with every publishing season. Americans will continue, in increasing numbers, to write novels of European life and conditions. Following is a list presented by Mr. Maurice, sketching the "invasion," by country, author, and title of work:

IRELAND: Kate Douglas Wiggin, "Penelope"; Hermine Templeton, "Darby O'Gill."

SCOTLAND: Kate Douglas Wiggin, "Penelope."

WALES: Mark Twain, "A Yankee in King Arthur's Court."

ENGLAND, LONDON: H. B. Stow, "The Minister's Wooing"; Charles Major, "When Knighthood Was in Flower"; R. H. Davis, "The Lion and the Unicorn," "His Bad Angel," "In the Fog"; Lloyd Osbourne, "The Adventurer"; F. H. Burnett, "The Lady of Quality," "The Shuttle."

BATH: Booth Tarkington, "Monsieur Beaucaire"; Pyle.

DERBY-STAFFORD: Charles Major, "Dorothy Vernon of Haddon Hall."

WESTMORELAND: V. Kester, "John o' James-town."

WEST ENGLAND: F. H. Burnett, "Little Lord Fauntleroy."

LANCASHIRE: F. H. Burnett, "Lass o' Lowrie's," "Haworths."

SURREY: F. H. Burnett, "A Fair Barbarian."

GENERAL: Washington Irving, "The Sketch Book," "Bracebridge Hall"; Marion Crawford, "The Tale of a Lonely Parish"; Anne Warner, "Seeing England with Uncle John"; Amelie Rives, "Athelwold"; Lloyd Osbourne, "Baby Bullet."

FRANCE, PARIS: E. A. Poe, "The Murders of the Rue Morgue," "The Purloined Letter," "The Mystery of Marie Roget"; B. Tarkington, "The Beautiful Lady"; R. W. Chambers, "The Red Republic"; T. R. Sullivan, "Tom Sylvester"; B. W. Howard, "Aulnay Tower"; G. W. Carryl, "Zut and Other Stories"; C. Wells, "Patty in Paris"; O. Johnson, "In the Name of Liberty"; Julia Magruder, "The Princess Sonia"; Bertha Runkle, "The Helmet of Navarre"; M. R. S. Andrews, "Vive l'Empereur"; Weir Mitchell, "The Adventures of François"; B. E. Stevenson, "At Odds with the Regent."

BRETON COAST: Blanche W. Howard, "Guenn."

NICE: Burnett, "Short Stories."

ORLEANS: Mary H. Catherwood, "Story of Jean D'Arc"; Twain.

SOUTHERN FRANCE: T. A. Sauvier, "An Embassy to Provence."

GENERAL: Anne Warner, "Seeing France with Uncle John."

ITALY, ROME: Marion Crawford, "Sarcinesca," "St. Ilario," "Don Orsino," "A Roman Singer," "Pietro Ghisleri"; Henry James, "Daisy Miller," "Roderick Hudson"; N. Hawthorne, "The Marble Faun"; W. W. Story, "Fianetta"; B. Tarkington, "His Own People"; W. S. Davis, "Friend of Cæsar"; Irving Bacheller, "Vergilius"; Joaquin Miller, "The One Fair Woman"; Margaret Sherwood, "Daphne."

VENICE: M. Crawford, "Marietta"; J. F. Cooper, "Bravo"; F. H. Smith, "Gondola Days."

BOLOGNA: D. Osbourne, "The Angels of Messer Ercole."

GENERAL: L. C. Hale, "A Motor Car Divorce"; H. B. Fuller, "The Chevalier of Pensieri-Vani"; H. B. Stowe, "Agnes of Sorrento."

SICILY: M. Crawford, "Casa Braccio," "Taquisara," "Corleone."

SPAIN: W. Irving, "Legends of the Alhambra"; M. Crawford, "In the Palace of the King"; J. F. Cooper, "Mercedes of Castile."

SWITZERLAND: H. James, "Daisy Miller"; H. B. Fuller, "Chatelaine of La Trinité."

CORSICA: A. C. Gunter, "Mr. Barnes of New York."

BELGIUM: G. B. McCutcheon, "Castle Cranecrow."

HOLLAND: M. M. Dodge, "Hans Brinker"; W. D. Howells, "The Kentons"; B. E. Stevenson, "An Affair of State."

GERMANY: H. W. Longfellow, "Hyperion"; F. M. Crawford, "Greifenstein," "A Cigarette Maker's Romance"; R. H. Davis, "The Princess Aline."

AUSTRIA: F. M. Crawford, "The Witch of Prague."

NORWAY: H. E. Scudder, "Viking Bodleys"; H. H. Boyesen, "Gunnar," "Modern Vikings"; Paul du Chaillu, "Ivar the Viking."

DENMARK: Paul Harboe, "The Son of Magnus."

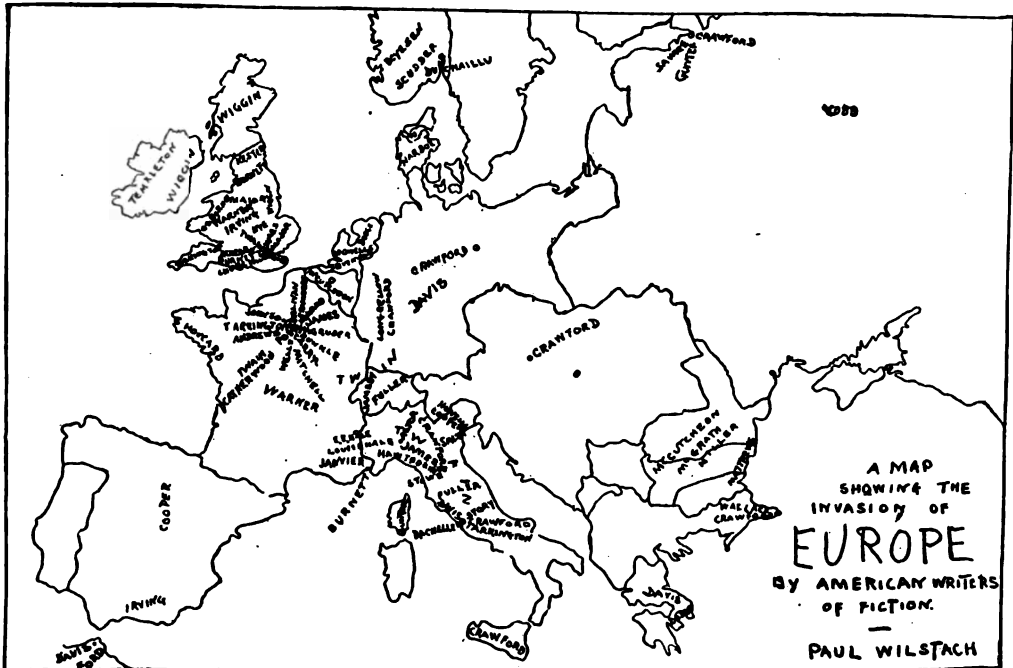
RUSSIA: F. M. Crawford, "Paul Patoff"; A. C. Gunter, "That Frenchman"; R. H. Savage, "My Official Wife"; S. Cobb, "The Gunmaker of Moscow."

BALKANS: G. B. McCutcheon, "Graustark," "Beverly of Graustark"; H. McGrath, "The Puppet Crown"; E. D. Miller, "The Prince Goes Fishing."

TURKEY: Lew Wallace, "The Prince of India"; F. M. Crawford, "Arethusa," "Paul Patoff"; George Ade, "The Slim Princess"; Kenneth Brown, "The First Secretary"; Brander Matthews, "The Last Meeting."

GREECE: R. H. Davis, "The Princess Aline"; Anna B. Dodd, "On the Knees of the Gods."





## THE AMERICAN LITERARY INVASION OF EUROPE.

Although not on European soil, says Mr. Maurice, in conclusion, Tangier is so close to Gibraltar that no one is likely to resent the invasion of the map by that little point of Africa in the extreme southwest. This

territory has been apportioned to Paul Leicester Ford for certain chapters of "The Story of an Untold Love," and to Richard Harding Davis for "The Exiles" and "The King's Jackal."

# NITROGEN AND THE FOOD SUPPLY OF THE HUMAN RACE.

THAT the earth may eventually cease to yield the requisite nourishment for the constantly increasing human race confronts us as a dire possibility. The prospect of a universal famine is not a mere figment of the imagination; and the efforts that are being made in our new century to enrich the soil by hitherto unknown means of supply will naturally arouse a widespread interest. Dr. Otto N. Witt, professor in the great Technological Institute at Charlottenburg, gives an interesting account in the *Berlin Woche* of what is at present being accomplished in the way of producing nitrates,—the life-giving aliment of plants,—and speaks of the possibility of their vastly increased future production. We reproduce some of the leading points of the article.

It has long been a familiar fact that the

nutriment withdrawn from the earth by the annual crops must be replaced by fertilizers.

But since Liebig's immortal efforts have taught us exactly what substances the plant absorbs from the earth we know also that by an abundant supply of those substances we can force it to yield an exuberant growth. This is the basis of modern agriculture,—the only thing which can enable us, within certain limits at least, to increase the habitableness of the globe in corresponding measure with the increase of its inhabitants.

Of the substances absolutely essential to the plant, oxygen is omnipresent, and atmospheric precipitation furnishes, on the whole, sufficient water; the indispensable carbonic acid, too, is never lacking in the air.

Phosphates and potassic salts, absorbed from the earth by means of the roots, must be constantly replaced by manures in order to secure

lasting productivity; and Nature has granted an at least provisionally inexhaustible supply of certain necessary mineral substances. There remains nitrogen, that element which the plant absolutely needs for the structure of the protoplasm, of the substance that in every cell represents the actual seat of life.

The supply of nitrogen in the world is, in the fullest sense of the word, inexhaustible, for it constitutes four-fifths of the atmospheric air which envelops the earth. Unfortunately, however, plants for the most part are incapable of absorbing and utilizing nitrogen in the molecular form in which it appears in the atmosphere. All higher plants demand the nitrogen requisite for their existence in combination with oxygen in the shape of nitrates. Certain bacteria,—the nitrifying organisms found everywhere in the soil,—can, it is true, absorb nitrogen in combination with hydrogen as ammonia, they, on their part, converting it into nitrates. And putrefying matter, such as stable-manure, is valuable, since, again by the aid of bacteria, the nitrogen it contains is changed into ammonia, which the nitrifying organisms of the soil convert into nitrates that serve to nourish the higher plants. Thus life is generated from death by a wonderful process which we term the cycle of nitrogen.

But this cycle can only reproduce what was already in existence, even where no loss is involved in the process. An increase in the productive power of the earth is conceivable only if we can obtain ammonia or nitrates from sources that have nothing in common with the life actually flourishing upon our globe. This, too, is fortunately possible.

Ammonia is retained as a by-product of the gas industry and of saggar, and we obtain saltpeter from South America, where it is native to the soil. None of these sources is, however, inexhaustible, and in the case of the Chile saltpeter, in particular, its continued supply is quite doubtful. It would, therefore, be very valuable if we had additional sources of nitrogenous food for plants at our command.

The question, then, is directly forced upon us whether it may not be possible to unite the nitrogen and the oxygen which lie uncombined side by side in the atmospheric air, and thus create a really inexhaustible source for the nitrates which are so indispensable to the carrying out of intensive agriculture. This idea is the basis of the modern saltpeter problem. It is a daring one, but not beyond the bounds of possibility, and the beginnings of its realization constitute the first great technical achievement of the twentieth century.

The nitrogen of the air is inert, averse to all chemical reaction, but it is not as bad as its reputation. Like some people, it is roused to necessary action only after being properly warmed up. In other words, it reacts only at very high temperatures, such as were formerly not obtainable upon an industrial scale. One of the hottest technical constructions is the porcelain-kiln, whose working temperature is, roundly, 1500 degrees. At this white heat there is as yet no noticeable chemical union between the oxygen and the nitrogen of the air. Only in the electric flaming-arc, whose heat attains 3000 degrees, does a perceptible combustion of the nitrogen,—its union with the oxygen,—take place. The product of this process is nitric oxide, a gas no longer at all inert in entering into combinations, absorbing additional oxygen even at an ordinary temperature, changing, finally, if water, too, be present, into nitric acid, which, on its part, is capable of forming nitrates in conjunction with metals. On the other hand, nitric oxide is very sensitive to high temperatures; care must be taken that the temperature in which it is generated be retained but a small fraction of a second, that this be cooled in a like short space of time to a degree where the oxide will not again be disintegrated.

The fact itself that air in the electric flaming-arc yields nitric oxide was observed as early as the eighteenth century. The nineteenth century was unable to accomplish anything with this inheritance from the infancy of chemistry; it remained for our day to investigate it thoroughly and to originate means for producing the gas on a great scale and thus turning it to practical account. From the very outset the saltpeter problem has been vigorously pursued, and everywhere a feverish energy is directed to its solution.

A gigantic failure in America acted only as a spur to new efforts; in Switzerland, South Germany, Scandinavia, eager investigators are at work, giving us solutions where at least the factors that caused the failure in America are eliminated.

There are lands endowed by nature with an inexhaustible wealth of water-power, and but little adapted to the development of extensive and varied industries. These are the saltpeter countries of the future.

Norway, especially, is such a region, with its countless waterfalls, fed by the great seas of its vast plateaus, which rush tumbling down into wild gorges and find their way to the plain. Recognizing the fact that his country is the proper place to manufacture saltpeter, the well-known Norwegian engineer, S. Eyde, enlisted the interest of the influential and judicious industrial leaders of the central European manufacturing nations. French and German capital flowed willingly to the great new enterprises, and the management of the Baden factory did not hesitate to carry out on an industrial scale on Norwegian soil the results which they had arrived at in their laboratories.

## THE NUTRITIVE CAPACITY OF EGGS.

WHEN a sick man complained that he had been forbidden to eat anything but eggs, the celebrated chemist, Fremy, answered: "As an egg is a chicken in process of formation, you are really on a meat diet." The egg is an azoted aliment of the first order. It is not a complete aliment; it does not contain hydrocarbonated substances, but eaten as it generally is, with a little bread, it is a general aliment of perfect digestibility. In an informational scientific article in the *Annales*, Henri de Parville says:

The normal hen's egg weighs sixty grams. Fifteen large eggs represent a weight of about two pounds. Seventeen medium eggs or twenty small ones weigh the same. The weight of the shell is 12 per cent. of the total weight, the white being 58 per cent. and the yolk 30 per cent. The constituent albumens of the yolk (especially the nucleins) are very richly phosphorated. So it may be said that the egg is a medicament. From the alimentary point of view the yolk represents the egg, less four grams of albumen. The nutritive power of an egg is equal to 150 grams of condensed milk, but, unlike milk, the egg contains no hydrocarbonated substances. According to Voit and Balland, a sixty-gram egg is equal in nutritive value to fifty grams of meat. From the economic point of view the cost of meat and eggs is the same. From the point of view of heat production a gram of albumen furnishes four calories, and a gram of fat furnishes nine calories. The white of an egg gives sixty-two calories, the total egg eighty calories. Generally speaking, eggs are easily and quickly digested. The mean time of their sojourn in the stomach is from one hour to two hours, in most cases the minimum time required by food in traversing the stomach. Eggs have very little residue and they

excite the intestinal contractions but little. The manner of cooking an egg is of great importance. An immersion in boiling water one minute barely coagulates the outer part of the white; a two minutes' immersion coagulates the external half, and three minutes' immersion cooks the egg all through. An egg is cooked to perfection when it has been in boiling or very hot water three minutes.

Martinet, the authority on eggs, thinks that the water should be salted before the egg is put in it, and that the egg should be put in when the water is boiling. He advises taking the dish containing the boiling water from the fire as soon as the egg is put in, and leaving the egg in it for three minutes. Cooked in that way the egg preserves all unctuous savor, while it is very light and digestible. A medium-sized egg should be put in boiling water and allowed to stand two and a half minutes, but three minutes should be given to large eggs. Martinet thinks that an egg thus cooked is as digestible as a raw one.

The raw egg misses the beneficial action of mastication; the stomachic action is different. The properly boiled egg is eaten; the improperly cooked one is swallowed, not eaten. Hard-boiled eggs remain in the stomach at least between two and three hours. Dyspeptics find them difficult to digest. Munck and Ewald, who experimented by plunging them in artificial gastric juice, found them easier to digest when cut in thin slices. The important point to be remembered in cooking eggs is that the albumen should not be coagulated. Butter and oil make eggs less digestible, but add to their nutritive power.

## RESTORATION OF LOST PARTS IN ANIMALS.

THE custom among many of the lower animals of replacing portions of the body, such as legs, tails, eyes, or heads, even, that may become lost in the vicissitudes of everyday life, by the effective and convenient method of growing new ones, has excited both interest and admiration. Such a steadfast maintenance of the corporeal entity in spite of apparently overwhelming losses commands respect in itself, but there is a further interest in the nature of the process of regeneration,—why certain parts can be regenerated while others cannot, or why the same parts can be restored in one animal and not in another, with many other questions.

The last number of Roux's *Archiv für Entwicklungsmechanik der Organismen* is

devoted, for the most part, to the account of a series of experiments performed by different investigators to determine the possibilities of regeneration in various kinds of animals, as well as to attempt to discover some general laws governing the process.

Among the experiments were some made upon the lungs of different species of frogs and salamanders to find out if the organs could be regenerated after they had been removed. The results were positive and showed that the lungs can be replaced after either partial or complete removal.

It has been said that internal organs do not regenerate because, sheltered as they are by the surrounding organs, they are less liable to injury, and consequently the power of

regeneration has been lost through disuse; but the experiments prove conclusively that the lungs, at least, can be replaced, and they suggest a different explanation, to the effect that the power of regeneration varies according to the age of the animal, a young animal regenerating lost parts more easily than an old one; that regeneration also depends upon the phylogenetic age of the animal, and upon whether the organ itself is simple or highly specialized; the more simple it is the more easily replaced.

In the snail a pair of tentacles, each bearing an eye, serve as the means of communication between the snail's inner consciousness and the external world. These organs were restored, eye and all, within three weeks after total or partial extirpation, although the eye was not perfect, and there was an additional band of visual elements extending from the eye to the base of the tentacle.

The caudal horn of the silkworm was removed from young larvae only three days old, and those that did not die as a result of the operation grew new caudal horns

somewhat smaller than the normal size.

River crabs had their antennæ wholly or partially cut off and their claws caught in such a way that they threw their legs off of their own volition, as they usually do when trying to make an escape.

These organs are usually replaced in the crab, the power of restoration serving as a great safeguard to preserve the species from utter destruction by the attacks of numerous enemies.

The injuries inflicted in the experiments seemed to act as a stimulus to the vital activities and accelerated the rate of growth, as shown by the more frequent occurrence of moulting. Occasionally the animal outdoes itself in the matter of repairing the loss, and produces an over-developed organ in place of the old one.

There seems to be a general, primary power of regeneration in simple organisms that is gradually lost by animals higher up in the scale, and the loss of the power is in direct proportion to the increase in complexity of organization.

## THE NEED OF LAW REFORM IN ENGLAND.

OUR British cousins are wont from time to time to indulge in criticism of American law and its practice; but, according to "Ignotus," in a recent issue of the *Westminster Review*, they will do well to set their own house in order.

The remarks of this writer dispel some illusions with regard to English law and lawyers. For instance, it has been generally reckoned as one of the chief privileges of the British citizen that no man was so low as not to be within the law's protection; but it is pointed out, in the article under consideration, that the eminent Bentham, himself a student of law, and son and grandson of an attorney, held that

ninety-nine men out of a hundred are thus low. Every man is who has not five-and-twenty pounds to five-and-twenty times five-and-twenty pounds to sport with, in order to take his chance of justice. I say *chance*, remembering how great a chance it is that, although his right be as clear as the sun at noon, he loses it by a quibble. And this is the game a man has to play again and again, as often as he is involved in a dispute, or suffers an injury. Whence comes this? From extortion, monopoly, useless formalities, law gibberish, and law taxes. Half the law is called statute law, and is made by Parliament. The other half is called common law, and is made,—how do you think? By the judges without King,

Parliament, or people. How should lawyers but be fond of this brat of their own begetting? Or how should they bear to part with it? It carries in its hand a rule of wax, which they twist about as they please; a hook to lead the people by the nose, and a pair of shears to fleece them withal.

As regards the uncertainty of the law, the resident in the British Isles is said to be worse off than the native of any other country in western Europe. This is due to the fact that so many contradictory decisions govern every point in common law,—decisions which derive their authority from their antiquity alone.

The writer in the *Westminster Review* directs attention to the gross anomaly that third parties to a contract, however important their interests are, cannot sue; and he goes on to show very conclusively how disastrously this results in regard to the making of wills. If a careless or incompetent lawyer makes a blunder whereby his client, the beneficiary, sustains a loss, the latter has positively no redress, and the offender goes scot-free. A recent case is cited to illustrate this remarkable condition of the law:

A will was drawn up by an eminent firm of solicitors and brought to the residence of the

testatrix for signature; it was duly signed, and then the solicitor, a partner in the firm, requested the husband of one of the principal beneficiaries to witness the signature, which he did; as second witness the solicitor, also a beneficiary, attested the signature himself! . . . The solicitor's attestation invalidated his own bequest, and the husband's that of the wife, who has consequently suffered a grievous loss without possibility of redress.

Under the present system in England a solicitor may not address the court in an important case. He must employ a barrister, and if the latter fails to appear in court, or should he settle the case without his client's consent, the litigant, who may have paid enormous fees, has no redress whatever.

Another abuse in the practice of the law, and one that is continually on the increase, is the number of references to counsel for opinions on points which should be within the knowledge of the solicitor himself.

As regards the members of the legal profession themselves, "Ignotus," while paying a high tribute to the large body of barristers, makes the startling assertion that the practice of the law "has a markedly demoralizing effect on men of weak moral fiber, and is, indeed, without ennobling influence on any but the highest types." Within the past few years 200 solicitors have been struck off the roll, and it is well known that many of them

are in positions in solicitors' offices in the city of London, where they watch any change in the Companies' Acts in order to suggest safe methods of evasion. In this way the public is fleeced in large sums.

One of the chief causes of ridicule in the administration of the law, as well as of enormous expense to litigants, is the number of reversals of decisions; and this, it is claimed in the article quoted, is largely due to the fact that in England the judges are too frequently raised to the bench, not for their judicial ability, but for purely political reasons.

"Ignotus" holds that legal abuses are adding considerably to the ranks of the Socialists. He has attended a course of Socialist lectures, and he gives it as his opinion that

the ablest speakers are dealing more and more effectively with the expense and uncertainty of the law; its delay, its jargon, its circumlocution, the undue preponderance of lawyers in Parliament . . . the extraordinary frequency of defalcations by solicitors, the crowds of idle barristers, "the most dangerous of all our parasites, a combination of sophist and hired assassin, ready to argue for the release of the greatest ruffian or to blacken the fairest reputation for a fee."

He candidly admits his belief that Socialism "would undoubtedly find a short way" to remedy many of the evils which center round the practice of the law.

## WHAT PORTUGAL'S COLONIES MIGHT BE.

**I**N the modern rush for colonial possessions and enthusiasm for successful colonial administration little Portugal occupies a unique position. On the one hand, without having to exert herself at all, Portugal already owns colonial possessions which in proportion to the size of the mother country are very considerable, and which have great possibilities in them for commercial value. On the other hand, she has underestimated, neglected, and mismanaged these colonies until their condition is, from some points of view, worse than if she were acquiring perfectly new and uncivilized regions; and, as all the world knows, home politics in Portugal is not so settled and peaceful that she can turn her undivided attention to the development of the great value lying latent in these colonies.

A periodical published in Lisbon, under the title of *Portugal em Africa*, is agitating the question of Portuguese colonial policy, and the following condensation of two arti-

cles published in its pages gives one some idea of what the problem is. Timor, half of an island in the Maluccas, near to Java, is the subject of one of the articles.

It has been in the possession of Portugal for four centuries, having been discovered and annexed by missionaries accompanying the expedition of Alfonso and Albuquerque to the East Indies. For nearly all of these four centuries the only civilizing force in the island has been given by the successors to those first missionaries, and what improvement in the state of the people is observable is due to the efforts of the priests. As late as 1894 the island was in a state of rebellion, and it was dangerous so much as to cross a street in Dilly (the principal town of the colony), but now the place is completely pacified and, with innumerable natural resources, lies ready for colonization. The people are docile and mild by nature and only cruel and vindictive when humiliated or persecuted. Vigorous measures should be taken by the authorities to encourage agriculture among the natives, says the writer of the article in question, first among which should be the distribution of land to them; and larger tracts of land should be offered to Portuguese immigrants.

Precautions should be taken also against fires getting into the forests of valuable wood. A campaign against malarial fever should be instituted, by means of drainage, crude petroleum, and other well-known preventatives of mosquitoes, which are a great pest in Timor. They are, however, the only "wild animals" to be feared. The native horses have excellent qualities, and there is a great abundance of both buffaloes and oxen. The flora is rich and varied, and the climate is such that the introduction of coffee, cocoa, and cotton would be highly profitable. Grains of gold are found in the rivers, and there is copper in the mountains, as well as both iron and tin. As an example of the utter neglect of the natural resources of Timor it is stated that there are large quantities of pearl-bearing oysters in the waters near the island, but that these are, for what reason nobody knows, never fished. All along the coast there is an abundance of crude petroleum and natural gas, the latter being used by the natives for illumination. In short, with only a little care and judicious development there seems to be no reason why Timor should not be to Portugal what Java is to Holland.

Although the brightness of this picture lies entirely in the future, it seems very bright indeed compared with the disheartened complaint of maladministration in Angola, which fills another article.

It seems that this rich African colony is passing through a serious crisis, both economically

and financially. The accumulation of ever-increasing deficits and the absorption of all the resources in useless military operations seem to be the main causes of the trouble, which has for result the paralyzing of what commercial activity there was before, and the suspension of such important undertakings as the construction of new railways. The deficits have increased steadily for five or six years, until they are now actually more than half the total income of the colony. *Portugal em Africa* says vehemently that it is impossible to remedy this state of things by imposing higher rates on the taxpayers of Angola, who are already staggering under more than they can carry. The real remedy is to cut down the extravagant military operations, which at present cost more than half the income of Angola, and to organize the business administration of the province on a less lavish base than that now occupied by it, which is quite incompatible with a colony which has yet to make its fortune, like Angola.

The writer of the article goes on to state that the root of the matter is Portugal's profound indifference to her colonies. She does not realize that they could become of great value to her. "In vain is it pointed out that well-administered colonies of other nations are always profitable to the mother country. Portugal remains convinced that hers are a burden and nothing else to her."

## STATE INTERVENTION IN LABOR WARS.

WHEN Mr. Dooley was discussing the strike question with his friend Hennessey the latter remarked that labor and capital "ought to get together." "How cud they get anny closer together thin their prisint clinch?" answered Mr. Dooley. "They're so close together now that those that ar-re between thim ar-re crushed to death." It is the neutrals in labor warfare,—"those that ar-re between thim," in Mr. Dooley's phraseology,—who are subjected to all the inconveniences of the cessation of industry, and, when the war is over, the cost of it is often made a charge upon them in the higher prices of goods and services.

A trolley strike comes on; the public walks. The telegraphers walk out; all commercial transactions, the dissemination of news and intelligence, are paralyzed. The garbage collectors in a great city cease their rounds; a vast community is instantly threatened with epidemics of disease from the filthy conditions that everywhere arise. . . . The great anthracite coal industry is brought to a stop by a strike of the miners; millions of people spend the winter shivering over foul oil-stoves and treacherous gas-heaters. The associated cab-drivers present

an ultimatum; and it becomes impossible for a few days to bury the dead. . . . Ethically considered, the right to strike is a right to injure and perhaps destroy the entire productiveness and happiness of people whose claims to consideration should not be ignored.

Thus writes Mr. Waldo L. Cook in the *International Journal of Ethics*, under the heading "Wars and Labor Wars." Mr. Cook designates strikes by the term "labor wars," for, as he says, war has been defined as "a collision of interests" and "the state of those contending by force"; and strikes are that and nothing else.

The state, in legalizing strikes, virtually recognized the industrial classes as belligerents; and Mr. Cook throughout his article shows the parallels and differences between wars and labor wars. War itself as an ancient right "has come down to us with aristocratic respectability and romantic glamor"; but the labor war "represents a very recent ascent from the pit of industrial slavery." Not until 1795 could an English workman legally seek work outside of his own parish; and down to 1779 in Scotland

miners were literally sold as part of the plant. In the nineteenth century some Philadelphia shoemakers who compelled others to quit work in order to secure higher wages were convicted of a criminal conspiracy.

In war physical violence is resorted to with full legal sanction; in labor wars physical violence in any form is legally prohibited, and strikers are even restricted in the use of boycotts, threats, intimidation, and so forth.

The law having placed strikers in a legal belligerent status, it is evident that they must be under the most tremendous incentive to resort to violent methods to attain their ends.

The temptations to strikers may be appreciated the more easily if we consider the lynching of negroes and homicide under the sanction of the unwritten law. . . . If good citizens can approve of lynchings, if judges and governors can publicly applaud murders in defense of a woman's honor, if the average moral sentiment of great civilized nations can glory in the organized massacres of the battlefield, why should any one be surprised to find whole battalions of strikers who sincerely regard violent acts in labor wars as justifiable measures?

Pursuing the parallel between wars and labor wars, Mr. Cook points to the fact that the nations, in deference to humanitarian conceptions, have for centuries been placing restrictions upon the military methods of contending forces. "The rights of belligerents have been steadily cut down and narrowed, while the rights of neutrals and the rights of humanity have steadily risen in the scale."

The right to wage war to-day does not imply the same degree of license to burn, plunder, ravish, and massacre as it did centuries ago. . . . The entire garrison of a fortified town that refuses to surrender on demand is not in our time put to the sword. . . . Captured soldiers are not made into slaves. . . . Even private property is now much more respected than formerly, and on land is not taken without compensation by an invading army.

As a notable illustration of this restrictive process upon war the last Hague Peace Conference is cited. That conference regulated rights to lay submarine mines and to bombard towns from the sea; it also dealt with the treatment of captured crews and the transformation of merchant vessels into war-ships.

All this was in response to the imperative demands of civilization. By analogy, what the international conscience and neutral interests have done in the regulation of armies and navies the state should do for the regulation of labor wars.

The community as a whole may step in between industrial belligerents and require such restrictions upon their respective rights as the interests of society seem to dictate. It is not necessary to inquire to what extent this restrictive process should go, except to point out that, of course, labor's power of self-protection must be preserved, in so far as such power may be necessary under the wage system to prevent labor from sliding back into its old-time condition of semi-slavery.

Protected as it is by universal suffrage, labor cannot reasonably complain if the state intervenes to restrict labor wars within limits which society can tolerate without injury to its moral and economic interests.

How far the courts should go in applying to strikes and boycotts the arbitrary judicial power of injunction is a grave question; more promising is the tendency toward arbitration and the compulsory investigation of industrial disputes.

President Roosevelt in his message to Congress, December 4, 1907, recommended the creation of "machinery for compulsory investigation of such industrial controversies as are of sufficient magnitude . . . to warrant the federal Government in taking action,"—exactly the sort of regulation that was asked at The Hague for international wars.

The ideal way to abolish war is to obliterate possible belligerents by merging all the nations into a single world-state. Likewise, the ideal way to abolish labor wars is to obliterate possible belligerents by socializing industry through the elimination of the wage system and of industrial classes. In short, a form of socialism would be the outcome in the one case, as the world-state dreamed of by Dante would be in the other. But these ideals are too remote. It may be, as Emerson said of the immortality of the soul, they are "too good to be believed." Meanwhile, each generation has its special work to do, and the work of ours and of the succeeding one, so far as wars and labor wars are concerned, is to minimize their destructiveness and waste, and to repair the moral damage they inflict upon us.



# LEADING FINANCIAL ARTICLES.

## THE USE OF SPECULATION.

**B**ILLS are pending in State legislatures and in the Congress at Washington which, if enforced, would practically extinguish speculation as it exists on the exchanges to-day.

These bills reflect the theories of speculation held by two classes of people. The first class think "easy money" can be made in odd moments by speculating. Many of them keep trying to win; most of them lose.

The second class, appalled at the financial and moral disasters of the first, and perhaps recruited partially from it, declare that speculation is "gambling." They want it wiped off the face of the earth.

To judge from letters received by the publishers of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*, each class is numerous and includes many men and women of intelligence and sincerity. Perhaps, indeed, these two views represent the opinions of most Americans who have not come in direct contact with speculation, and of many who have. Little educational matter for the public at large has been written on this subject. It offers one of the most delicate and involved fields for discussion. But a brief examination will show clearly that the two common beliefs mentioned above should be much modified.

In the first place, the professional speculator's profits are not "easy" by any means. Profound study, brilliant shrewdness, constant application, and adequate financial backing are usually possessed or commanded by those who profit through the use of the machinery of speculation. And when the average man, who cannot combine the necessary knowledge, ability, opportunity and means, attempts to pervert this machinery to his own profit, he may be expected to lose his money. The widespread damage of this error will be described in another article, entitled "The Abuse of Speculation."

In the second place, the professional speculator's business cannot be termed "gambling." It performs a unique service to conservative business men and investors. Without question it brings grave evils in its train. But that even worse evils would follow upon the entire suppression of specula-

tion is the opinion of disinterested students. Their reasoning should interest even those who have made up their minds on the subject.

### SHIFTING THE RISK.

The great use of speculation lies in the opportunity it offers many investors and men in commercial pursuits to shift their risks. Henry Crosby Emery, professor of political economy in Yale University, discusses this in the *Journal of Accountancy*.

He explains the essential difference between gambling and speculation. The first is the betting of money upon a risk artificially created; the second is the assumption of a risk inevitable to the conduct of modern business.

Somebody must take that risk. It is better for the conservative merchant or producer or consumer or investor that the professional speculator should take it. Though the latter's profit be sometimes large, nevertheless it will have been earned.

### SHORT SALES AND MARGINS.

Precisely how the speculator carries other people's risks appears from an examination of his main methods—selling "short" and trading on a "margin." When a speculator believes that a stock or commodity is going to drop in price, he can sell it "short" for future delivery. Thus he contracts to deliver a certain quantity of it, to a certain buyer, hoping to buy the actual article later on at a lower price in completion of his contract. When the speculator believes that a stock or commodity is going to rise in price, he can buy a quantity of it on a "margin" or installment, thus paying only a portion of the price, perhaps as little as 10 per cent. In this way a given amount of capital enables the speculator to handle ten times as large a volume of business. The "short" seller likewise may have deposited only a portion of the value of the article which he has sold short.

At these two operations the pending legislation is largely aimed. To cripple or prohibit them would be practically to suppress

"free" speculation on American exchanges.

But certainly there is nothing intrinsically wrong in selling "short" or trading on a "margin." A contractor who engages to build a house at a certain price may often be selling that house "short" for future delivery. A merchant who borrows money on a bill of goods which he hopes to retail at a higher price than it cost him is certainly trading on a "margin." Many well-informed people think that such operations on the exchanges bring disaster only through their perversion. Certainly, without them and the free speculation which they make possible, the conservative man in many a line of business would lose the chance to shift his risk to some speculator.

#### BENEFIT TO THE MILLER AND THE FARMER.

Take, for instance, a miller: "In the old days," says Professor Emery, "he bought his wheat, made his flour, and then sold it at such a profit as he might secure. This was a very risky business, since the price of wheat might rise or fall by a large amount between the time of its purchase and the sale of the flour. To-day practically all regular wheat merchants and millers hedge against any such risks by making counter-sales or purchases in the speculative market."

When a miller buys wheat to turn into flour he promptly sells short on the Exchange to a speculator, and when he sells his flour he covers his short line. As a result he is unaffected by the price fluctuations in the world-market. Whether the price in the world-market goes up or down, what he makes on one transaction he loses on the other, and he is thereby enabled to do a genuinely conservative business and secure the ordinary profits of the manufacturer. This is true, in lesser measure, wherever there is a speculative market for any article of commerce. Wherever there are men who are always willing to take the chance of buying the article or selling the article, the position of those who do not wish to take chances is made just so much easier. They can at any moment *shift the risk*.

That this has been a great advantage to the farmer no person who knows anything about the facts can possibly doubt. In the old days a dealer would not think of buying wheat from the farmer at anything like the price at which he could sell it, less the cost of transportation. He had to allow a large margin for the risk of falling prices, and ordinarily would offer the farmer from 5 cents to 10 cents a bushel under the ruling price in the central markets. At the present time, since he can at once make a hedging sale by telegraph on the Chicago Board of Trade, the dealer will buy the farmer's wheat on a margin of 1 cent on a bushel or less. The difference between these two margins redounds to the benefit of the farmer.

#### THE STOCK EXCHANGE HELPS INVESTORS.

Just as the producer, the merchant, and the consumer profit through the free speculation of the cotton, wheat, produce, and other commodity markets, so the permanent investor benefits by the free speculation on the stock and bond exchanges. Professor Emery writes:

If there were no organized market for securities in which men were constantly buying and selling, in the effort to take every advantage of the fluctuations, many men would have to make a large part of their investments in complete ignorance of the nature of the enterprise in which they were investing. It may be said that they do this to-day, which is true enough in the sense that the average small investor in railroad or industrial securities knows nothing about the business, or the possibilities of dividends, from any knowledge of his own. What he does know, however, is that a large body of shrewd and capable men, on the lookout for any change in industrial conditions, have by their purchases and sales registered a price which represents the market opinion as to the value of that security. He therefore can buy it with a fair degree of confidence. Furthermore, the slightest change in the conditions of the company in question will be reflected by a change in the price of the security. If the market is continuous,—and no market for securities can be continuous except a speculative market,—he has the opportunity to change his investment at any moment and always at the market price, which reflects the opinion of the moment.

Not only does a free speculative stock market assist the conservative investor in buying; it is of the greatest service to him when he wishes to sell. R. H. Towner, in *Moody's Magazine*, shows that the "marketability" of a stock or bond depends upon how many people the holder can find willing to buy stocks and bonds at any given moment.

Now it must be admitted without question that a market containing 10,000 men actuated by mixed motives is a bigger and broader market to sell on than one composed of only 500 men with but one motive. In other words, you can sell more stocks or other securities, on a given day, to 500 investors plus 9500 traders (or professional speculators) than you could have sold, on the same day, to the 500 investors alone. This is patent and no time will be wasted in proving it. Here, then, is another service which the trader renders to the investor. He makes a market on which the investor can sell, when necessity arises, without sacrificing his securities as he must in a smaller market.

Those who oppose organized speculation say that it affords opportunity for wealthy men to manipulate prices. Without doubt, powerful operators have often temporarily depressed the price of a security, thereby

frightening the timid investors out, and enabling themselves to secure control of a property at a low price. And many sudden price-rises have been engineered in worthless stocks to attract public buying. But both species of fraud are largely the investor's own fault, after all. Neither would be possible on a large scale if he would inquire as closely as possible into the earning power behind what he is buying,—instead of giving way to emotions of fear or excited greed.

Moreover, it seems difficult to prove that such manipulation would not be worse in a limited than in a free market. Professor Emery finds that "on the whole the argument

is in favor of those who believe that speculation tends to *lessen* the extremes of variation."

Certainly the worst cases of highly inflated values, as also of complete collapses, have come in the case of securities not dealt in on the Stock Exchange. In this connection valuable testimony comes from Germany. The act of 1896 forbade all sales for future delivery in the matter of mining and industrial securities. The government itself, in its explanation of the bill introduced last November to repeal this prohibition, stated as their reason for doing so the fact that *the prohibition had entirely failed in its purpose and had led to even more speculative fluctuations than had occurred before.*

## THE ABUSE OF SPECULATION.

**P**RESIDENT ROOSEVELT and Governor Hughes of New York have requested their respective legislative bodies for commissions to report on speculative abuses. It is probable that these servants of the public will be able to find no abuses of speculation as grave as those brought about by the public itself.

The very farmer, merchant, or investor who profits by legitimate use of the machinery of speculation usually comes to grief when he perverts it—when he employs the exchanges, not in order to shift his own risks, and thereby stick closer to his own business, but in order to assume the risks of other people.

It is the frequently expressed opinion of conservative bankers, journalists, and others who have disinterestedly observed Wall Street for many years, that the average outsider who speculates on a margin may be counted on to lose. The larger his winnings at first, the heavier his net final loss will probably be.

Such a result seems perfectly just. Here is an amateur working "part time" at the most strenuous business on earth, in competition with men who keep scheming over it nights and Sundays. Even if they possess no greater acumen or financial resources, their chances are evidently greater than the outsider's.

But most of the amateur speculators are far from possessing ability and money equal to their opponents'. The man or woman with \$5000 or \$10,000 to spare, engaged in affairs which have nothing to do with Wall Street, has practically no chance "in the market."

The scope of such operations is too narrow. With \$10,000 total capital, no sensible man would think of "writing" a \$10,000 insurance policy on the life of a friend. He would see clearly the difference between his position in doing so and that of a life insurance company with millions of capital and an enormous business, enabling the company to average the risk on his friend's life along with thousands of similar policies.

Yet our would-be speculator will often put his entire capital up on a single "risk" in stocks or wheat or cotton. What wonder that he and a multitude like him are wiped off the financial map every year by the wealthy men whose risks are averaged between scores and hundreds of different propositions!

### INCREASING THE MARGIN.

One of the most promising measures suggested to prevent the abuse of speculation concerns the size of margin. In many cases this deposit with the broker represents most or all of the customer's cash resources. When the broker offers the customer credit to the extent of perhaps ten or fifteen times the amount of this margin, the danger to the man of speculative temperament is evident.

Here enters a phase of human psychology well known to those who have studied the habits of gamblers. The man who is taking risks so far beyond his knowledge, ability, or cash resources cannot be called a speculator. The effect upon himself is the effect of gambling. The more he wins, the more fascinating becomes the game which he plays.

He increases his stakes by lessening his margin. Every time this happens he runs greater danger of loss by some merely temporary fluctuation of the market, in addition to the danger he always runs that he has guessed wrong concerning its permanent movement. There can be only one end to this sort of thing—the gambler's financial crash.

This danger would be lessened if the universal rule were adopted among the important exchanges that no margin should be accepted for the purchase or sale of securities for less than (let us say) 20 per cent. of the total face value. In other words, the broker would be extending credit to the customer only to the extent of five times the actual cash in hand.

The common sense and desirability of such a rule is emphasized by the fact that many conservative and old-established brokerage houses follow out exactly such a policy. Such firms will not buy securities at all for a stranger, except for cash in full. And when a new customer has been properly introduced, and has demonstrated that his resources are sufficient to warrant his trading to the extent of 100 shares or 1000 shares, as the case may be, he is requested to keep constantly at the broker's office a margin of 20 per cent.—sometimes as much as 30 per cent.

#### REFORM FROM THE INSIDE.

Whether legislation can succeed in enforcing these or other reforms is a matter of

discussion. J. S. Bache, a banker and broker of long experience, writes in the *Saturday Evening Post*: "There are some methods in speculation as it now exists in Wall Street which need revision, but I do not believe that legislation can protect to any extent against such methods."

The effort made in Germany to improve speculative conditions by law, which proved a failure, included an attempt to limit marginal operations. Professor Emery, of Yale, reviews this feature of the German law, and concludes that it would give even less satisfaction in this country. He writes:

From a study of the effects of speculation, and the effects of all suggested methods of controlling it, the conclusion is almost irresistible that legitimate and illegitimate transactions are so closely bound together, and the whole business of speculation is so closely connected with the interests of actual commerce, that any interference with the delicate machinery by the blundering fingers of the law will diminish the beneficial elements of speculation without effectually diminishing its evils. The recent suggestion of Governor Hughes that we should "ascertain the manner in which illegitimate transactions may be prevented and legitimate business safeguarded" is not so simple as it sounds.

It may at least be hoped, however, that a more public-spirited standard may be gradually adopted by the fraternity of brokers, and that those who consciously allow customers to plunge beyond their means and to run the dreadful risks of bankruptcy and embezzlement will be so ostracized by their fellows that the practice will be restricted from the inability to find men to carry out transactions of this kind.

## EXTRA INCOME FROM EQUIPMENT BONDS.

**M**ANY investors are missing a chance for higher income, because they purchase bonds containing unnecessary virtues. A good example is furnished by the situation with railroad-equipment bonds.

The three qualities that most affect the price of a bond are: its safety, the length of time before it is due, and the readiness with which it may be sold. When all three of these qualities are present in high degree, the bond sells for a high price, such as to yield not over 4 per cent. Such a bond is nearly as good as money. Therefore it fetches a price which returns the purchaser not much more than the pure interest rate on the money itself.

Now, regarding the first quality,—security of principal,—the average reader of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS should not seek to com-

promise. But many bondholders are paying for high qualities of long time and ready market when both are unnecessary.

Such investors should consider carefully the nature of the railroad equipment bond. Its security is unique and higher than that of many a first-mortgage railroad bond. Yet, on account of the short term of the railroad-equipment bond,—rarely more than ten years,—and the limited market for it, especially in the case of those issues of small amount, it can be bought to bring the investor from 5 to 7 per cent. on his money, as against the 4 to 5 per cent. of the first-mortgage bond.

#### A RECORD OF SAFETY.

The actual record of safety for equipment bonds is astonishing. In *Success*, Charles

Lee Scovil writes: "The statement emanates from reliable sources that a careful search has failed to reveal a single case of loss to the holders of such securities, either as to interest or principal. Other recognized authorities claim that during the depression of 1893 and 1894, when railroads aggregating 98,000 miles went into the hands of receivers, the outstanding equipment obligations, amounting to approximately \$60,000,000, were paid in full, except that, in some few cases, holders of equipment bonds were offered in exchange securities which afterward sold at prices in excess of the original cost to them of their equipment bonds. On the other hand, many of the first-mortgage bond issues of the same railroads were reduced in interest rate or value."

#### SECURITY THAT IS DEFINITE.

The striking features of strength with railroad-equipment bonds are as follows: they are secured by a direct lien on specified engines and cars, which a railroad has got to have to do business; and they must be paid off in installments, so much every year, out of the direct earnings of the railroad, before any stock dividends can be paid.

Now compare the position of the holder of an equipment bond with that of a holder of the ordinary "mortgage" bond. The latter would seem to have a powerful claim upon the railroad through his direct lien upon its franchises, right of way, track, real estate, buildings, etc. All this, however, may be rather tremendous and vague. In receiverships, the courts find it no simple matter to determine how much should be apportioned to the "first-mortgage" bonds, how much to the "second," "third," "refunding," "consolidated," etc.

But "equipment" is something definite. The holder of a \$1000 equipment bond knows that he actually owns one of a certain lot of cabooses, or about one-fifth of one of a certain number of baggage cars, or one-sixteenth of one of a certain lot of freight locomotives, which car or locomotive remains pledged with a trustee until the railroad has paid off the last installment of the issue of which his \$1000 bond is a part.

The means by which these provisions are carried out are thus described by "Financier," in the *North American Review*: "The road will usually pay to the company manufacturing the equipment from 10 to 25 per cent. of the cost, and it issues its notes, secured by the equipment, for the balance of the purchase price."

The title to the equipment is usually held by a trust company as trustee for the note-holders. The indenture under which the notes are issued provides that the road which puts out the notes may use the equipment, but that a brass plate shall be conspicuously placed on each car or locomotive stating that the trust company is the owner. As long as the road promptly pays the interest on the notes, as well as the principal of the ones which fall due every year, it may continue to use the equipment. The road must further keep the equipment insured and in good repair. It must replace any of the rolling-stock destroyed. Although a certain proportion of the issue is paid off annually, all of the equipment usually remains subject to the lien of the unmatured notes. While the rolling-stock will depreciate somewhat from year to year, the amount of notes outstanding against it is constantly decreasing, and, if the issue is properly protected, the value of the equipment is always in excess of the amount of notes unredeemed.

Before purchasing an equipment note, the investor should make absolutely sure that he does not need the qualities of long time and marketability which these notes lack. But if he is confident that he will need his money again within two or five or ten years, as the case may be, and if his circumstances are such that he is prepared for some delay should he unexpectedly wish to market his bonds in the meanwhile, then there is no reason why he should not consult with his bankers, discover just the kind of equipment bond he needs, and reap his reward of a higher rate of income.

Of course, it must not be thought that all such securities are "slow sellers." Bonds from some of the larger issues,—those of \$5,000,000 or \$10,000,000 or more,—are handled every day on the "Street," although few are listed on the Stock Exchange. But the specially high rates of interest are found with the smaller issues, covering perhaps \$1,000,000 or less. To find a buyer at a satisfactory price for such bonds, of course, may take some time.

## THE NEW BOOKS.

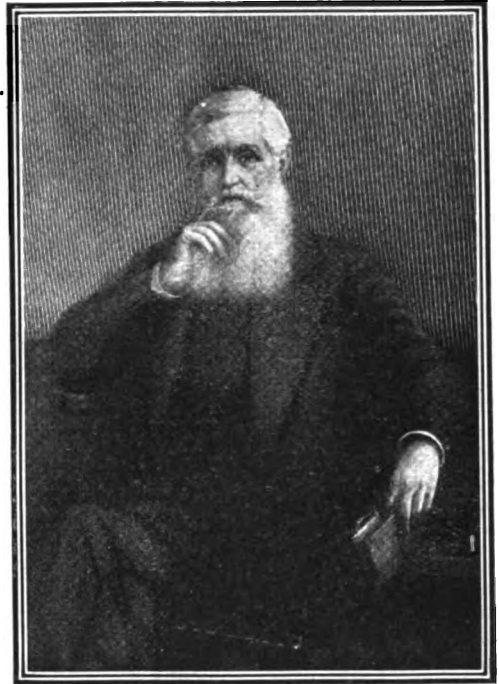
### NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

#### BIOGRAPHY AND HISTORY.

“**Y**OU have both written the history of your country and made yourself a part of it.”

Thus wrote Robert C. Winthrop to George Bancroft on his ninetyeth birthday. This terse summary of Bancroft's career was eminently truthful. America has never had an historian who took so active and consequential a part in public affairs as did Bancroft. The two-volume biography by M. A. DeWolfe Howe (Scribners), which comes from the press after an interval of seventeen years since the historian's death, is full of instances of the valuable public service that Bancroft rendered in his long life. By way of recalling a few landmarks in that remarkable career we may note that the second war with Great Britain took place while Bancroft was a student at Harvard, that he was Polk's Secretary of the Navy during our brief war with Mexico, that Lincoln made him a confidential adviser in our Civil War, and that as American Minister at Berlin Bancroft witnessed the achievement of German unity and the Franco-Prussian War. The service for which he probably will be longest remembered was the establishment of the United States Naval Academy at Annapolis during his administration of the Navy Department. No American ever had a greater number of influential and interesting friends, both at home and abroad, comprising even the second and third generations. As a student in Germany, in the second decade of the nineteenth century, Bancroft was the friend of Goethe, and when he died in the city of Washington, in 1891, he was the one private citizen who ranked with the highest officials of the Government in all public functions and was known and respected by statesmen of high and low degree of all political faiths. His “Life and Letters” give interesting revelations of all the prominent personalities with whom at one time or another he had come in contact.

An excellent study of Stephen A. Douglas has come from the pen of Prof. Allen Johnson, of Bowdoin College (Macmillan). To the few living contemporaries of Douglas in the days of his prime it must seem a strange commentary on the uncertainties of American politics that a man of his prominence should to-day be remembered chiefly as the rival of Abraham Lincoln. Yet were it not for the faithful and studious efforts of such historians as Professor Johnson the present generation would be in danger of losing sight altogether of the issues and conflicts which half a century ago centered in the personality of Douglas as the foremost champion of the “squatter-sovereignty” idea. Professor Johnson, however, disclaims any purpose to vindicate Senator Douglas, but attempts rather an interpretation of his personality as a representative figure in the controversies that preceded the Civil War. In this attempt we think that the author has been measurably successful. He cer-



GEORGE BANCROFT.

(Whose “Life and Letters” have just appeared.)

tainly has entered into the spirit of the Middle West of the middle of the nineteenth century, and his representation of the times and the manners is, we believe, faithful.

We now have the authorized biography of John Sherman,—that is to say, the work for which provision was made in Mr. Sherman's will,—prepared by ex-Congressman Winfield S. Kerr, of the Fourteenth Ohio District (Boston: Sherman, French & Co.). The American public is now in possession of virtually all the details in the life of this eminent statesman which can be regarded as of legitimate public interest. Senator Sherman's autobiography appeared during his lifetime, and only last fall Representative Burton contributed an admirable life of Sherman to the American Statesmen Series. The present work, in two volumes, reviews the whole of Mr. Sherman's extended political career with unusual minuteness. The Senator's rich collection of private papers, to which Mr. Kerr has had free access, has yielded a great amount of material of historical interest apart from the strictly biographical record. The whole period of the Civil War and the succeeding era of reconstruction and the resumption of specie payments, in which Senator Sherman played an increasingly impor-



MRS. ALICE FREEMAN PALMER.

tant part, are considered in these volumes with unusual minuteness.

Almost a unique instance in biographical literature was the writing of "The Life of Alice Freeman Palmer," by her husband, Prof. George Herbert Palmer (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). In this case the biographer's task was a peculiarly difficult one, and it was performed with a delicacy and fidelity worthy of all praise. Mrs. Palmer was in certain lines the most influential American woman of her generation. As president of Wellesley College, and later in an important executive position at the University of Chicago, she was able to accomplish much for the higher education of women, and her personal influence was exerted in many directions after she had laid down her official duties. It is, however, not so much the record of Mrs. Palmer's public services as the intimate study of the woman herself that gives this biography its distinction and ranks it among the vividly *human* books of the season.

To the "Life and Work of Susan B. Anthony," which appeared before her death, a third volume has been added, comprising an account of Miss

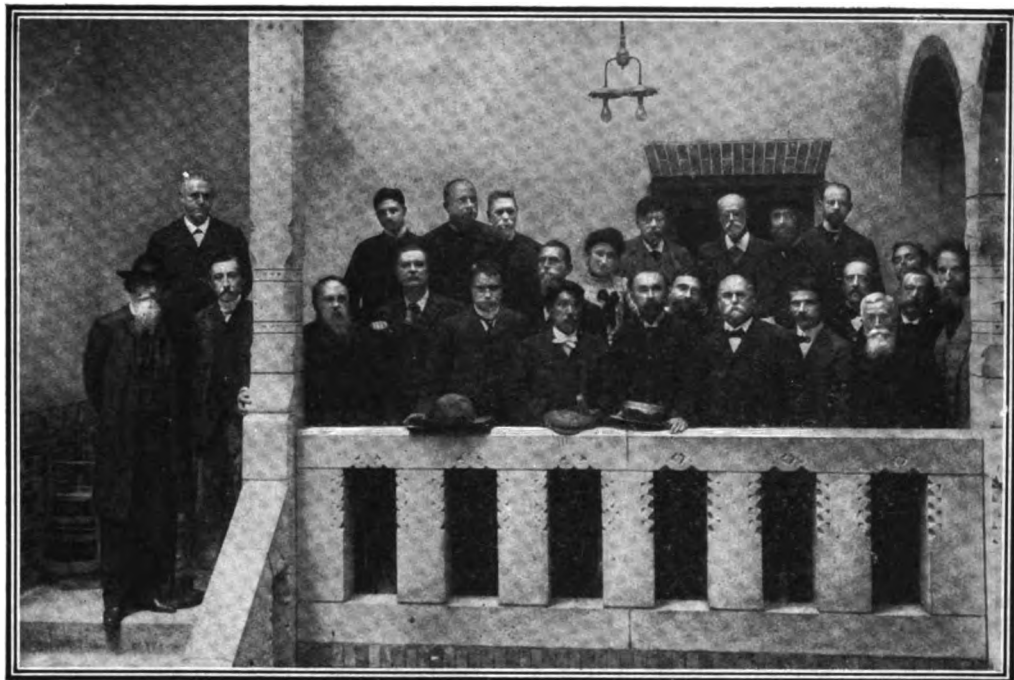
Anthony's last years, with press comments on the occasion of her death and funeral, by Ida Husted Harper (Indianapolis: The Hollenbeck Press). Miss Anthony's brilliant achievements as leader of the woman's suffrage cause in this country were outlined by Mrs. Harper herself in the number of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* which appeared immediately after Miss Anthony's death, in 1906. Up to the very end of her life she was a vigorous champion of the suffrage cause, and the present volume details many instances which encouraged her to believe in her old age that the complete triumph of that cause was near at hand.

The fourth volume of Dr. Elroy M. Avery's "History of the United States and Its People" (Cleveland: The Burrows Brothers Company) is one of the most interesting, both in text and in illustration, that have thus far appeared. It covers the comparatively short period in the middle decades of the eighteenth century, during which took place the final contest between England and France for the possession of North America. Dr. Avery's narrative of these momentous events is vivacious, terse, and not lacking in thrilling incident. An important part of the story, of course, is the Indian warfare waged along the border, including the remarkable conspiracy of Chief Pontiac. As in the case of preceding volumes in this history, especial care has been taken to obtain authentic portraits and reproductions of significant documents. The period has never before been covered in just this way by any American historian. It is to be hoped that the succeeding volumes of this important historical enterprise will maintain the high level of interest reached in the first four.

It is generally known that historians are indebted for virtually all the information they possess concerning the constitutional convention of 1787 to the journal of the debates kept by one of the delegates to the convention,—James Madison, of Virginia, who later became President of the United States. Of the several editions of this invaluable journal which have appeared since Madison's death by far the most satisfactory is the new two-volume edition edited by Mr. Gailard Hunt (Putnams). The special value of Mr. Hunt's work lies in the fact that he has compared the statements made by contemporary writers with the corresponding entries in Madison's journal. He has also made use of the notes left by William Pierce, one of the delegates from Georgia, who made an estimate of each member of the convention. The entire journal is a close transcript from the original manuscript, printed from large, clear type and following the precise chronological arrangement of the original.

We now have an excellent reprint of Bradford's "History of Plymouth Plantation" (Scribners). This volume, which has a place in the series of "Original Narratives of Early American History," reproduced under the auspices of the American Historical Association, was edited by William T. Davis, formerly president of the Pilgrim Society and an authority on those matters of history which have a place in Bradford's famous work. When the volume had nearly passed through the press,—on December 3, last,—Mr. Davis died at the age of eighty-five. He had, however, finished the reading of the proof sheets excepting the very last pages.





THE INTERNATIONAL EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE, AMSTERDAM SOCIALIST CONGRESS, 1904.

BACK ROW.—Van Kol, Ugarte, Nemec, Vaillant, Soukup, Rosa Luxemburg, Adler, Bracke, Kautsky, Walecki, Vandervelde, Cambler, Longuet, Anseele, Ferri.

FRONT ROW.—Cyprianl, Troelstra, Hyndman, Belfort Bax, Olaf Kringen, Katayama, Plekhanov, Knudsen, Hillquit, Navrojl.

(Frontispiece (reduced) from "Socialists at Work.")

One of the surprising books of the season is a volume entitled "The True Story of Andersonville Prison: A Defense of Major Henry Wirz," by James Madison Page, late second-lieutenant Company A, Sixth Michigan Cavalry (Washington: The Neale Publishing Company). Mr. Page believes that great injustice has been done Major Wirz by Andersonville prisoners who have written accounts of his administration there. Mr. Page was himself a prisoner in different Southern prisons from September 21, 1863, until November 21, 1864. During seven months of this time he was a prisoner at Andersonville. Perhaps the most important point of Mr. Page's contention is that Captain Wirz (as he then ranked) was but a subordinate under Gen. John H. Winder, who was the prison commander. Captain Wirz had charge only of the interior of the stockade. In every way he was subject to the orders of his superior officer. Mr. Page holds that not only was Captain Wirz unjustly held responsible for the hardship and mortality of Andersonville, but that the federal authorities must share the blame with the Confederates, having failed to exercise a humane policy in the exchange of prisoners.

#### SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC WORKS.

All who read Mr. England's article on international Socialism, in the May REVIEW of REVIEWS will be interested in Robert Hunter's new book, "Socialists at Work" (Macmillan). This book does for present-day Socialism what Dr. R.

T. Ely's "French and German Socialism" of more than twenty years ago did for that stage of the movement. It is a vivid, running characterization of the foremost personalities in the socialist movement throughout the world. Such a book, like the article by Mr. England, does real service in presenting the truly significant facts in the modern spread of socialistic propaganda and in stating in definite terms the principles on which socialists are agreed and the immediate aims of their organizations. The world-sweep of the movement has never before been so clearly brought before the American reading public.

Mr. Frederick Barnard Hawley has written a treatise entitled "Enterprise and the Productive Process" (Putnams), in which he assumes that the *entrepreneur*,—or, to make use of the newly coined English equivalent of the French word, the enterpriser,—is the real economic producer, and that labor, land, and capital are merely the means of production. He holds that "enterprise stands on a different footing from, and above, the other productive factors. In the proper sense of the term it alone is productive, the other three—i. e., labor, land, and capital,—being simply forces set in motion, or released forces,—the means by which it creates value." Any business man can at least understand Mr. Hawley's point of view, and it is the point of view which we have no doubt many business men would naturally take. To the economist, however, the suggestion is one not likely to be accepted without serious question. The economist will find Mr.

Hawley's working out of his theory of economic productivity exceedingly interesting and original, even though neither premise nor conclusion can be accepted without doing violence to established economic tradition.

Mr. John Spargo, author of "The Bitter Cry of the Children," has written a useful book entitled "The Common Sense of the Milk Question" (Macmillan). In view of the extensive literature of the subject it is rather an ambitious undertaking for a layman to attempt to instruct lay readers in this difficult subject. Yet the fact that Mr. Spargo has familiarized himself so thoroughly with much of this literature augurs well for the success of his undertaking. It is one of the merits of his book that it guides the reader to the works of specialists which otherwise might be passed by without consultation. Although experts may differ with Mr. Spargo on some of the points discussed, there can be little doubt that the adoption of his recommendations would greatly lessen the dangers to public health that are now associated so closely with the milk trade, particularly in the larger cities. Mr. Spargo regards pasteurization as a makeshift, not a solution of the milk problem, but he does not despise the makeshift on that account. He is himself an adherent of what is known as the clean-milk school.

The addresses and papers prepared during the past two years by Governor Hughes, of New York, have been collected and published, with an introduction by President Schurman, of Cornell University, in a volume of about 300 pages (Putnams). These addresses voice Governor Hughes' opinions on questions of the day so far as he has seen fit to give public expression to those opinions, and from a perusal of them one may get a fair idea of the Governor's general attitude on public affairs. The book was doubtless brought out at this time with a view to circulation as an ante-convention document in the securing of Hughes delegates to Chicago.

We have recently had occasion to comment on a number of new books dealing with the activities and ideals of the church in modern social life. Since our last number went to press we have received a little book entitled "The Church of To-day: A Plea," by Joseph H. Crooker (Boston: The Pilgrim Press). This is a moderate and candid statement of the problem before the church, the obstacles in the way of the attainment of the church's ideals, the actual contributions that the church is making to modern life, and the real usefulness of the church as a social institution. A good evidence of the appreciation of Mr. Crooker's discussion of these topics is found in the arrangement made by the Unitarian, Universalist, and Congregationalist publishing boards to unite in its publication, each having a special edition bearing its own imprint.

#### STUDENT LIFE.

In a book entitled "Which College for the Boy? Leading Types in American Education," Mr. John Corbin, the author of "An American at Oxford," describes in an unconventional way a group of typical American colleges and universities (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Mr. Corbin writes after personal visitations of all the colleges described and after a reasonably careful study of their methods of instruction. He

does not, however, take the trouble to repeat the language of college catalogues, but tells in his own way what he considers the really vital facts in the current academic life of these institutions. What he has to say about most of the colleges will interest the undergraduate or the prospective student, we imagine, more than the parents of such a student; and yet he has many things to say to which the parents would do well to give diligent heed. Among the larger Eastern institutions which he visited are Princeton, Harvard,



JOHN CORBIN.

(Author of "Which College?")

and Cornell. Michigan and Wisconsin are typical State universities of the Middle West to each of which he devotes a chapter, and Chicago, which he calls "a university by enchantment," also comes in for a lively bit of description. Then there is a chapter on agricultural colleges, one on "The Small College versus the University," and finally a discussion of the question of expense. A reading of Mr. Corbin's book will put the inquirer in possession of a great deal of very useful information which he could not possibly glean from the official publications of the colleges and universities in question, and although Mr. Corbin refrains from giving advice to parents as to where to send their sons he certainly presents many facts which most parents would do well to take into account before deciding such a question.

Abbé Felix Klein, of the Catholic University of Paris, has written an entertaining book on "An American Student in France" (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.). Abbé Klein claims a somewhat intimate acquaintance with American students, both at home and abroad, and he has ven-

tured to assume the personality of an American student in describing those quarters of Paris and rural France which he thinks would especially interest Americans.

#### "WHO'S WHO" IN SEVERAL LANGUAGES.

We have already noted in these pages (in the May number) the current issues of those indispensable volumes "Who's Who" and "Who's Who in America." The idea so excellently carried out in these exceedingly useful reference books is now being adopted by other countries and adapted to their modified uses, all to the great advantage of our reference library shelves.

The German "Who's Who," the exact title of which is "Wer Ists?" appeared first in 1905. The present issue is the third. "A biography of our contemporaries," is what the foreword calls it. "Wer Ists?" for 1908 is published in Leipzig by the house of Degener and imported and handled in this country by G. E. Stechert & Co. (New York). The editor of this volume, Herrmann A. L. Degener, has exhibited a fine discrimination and excellent editorial sense in restricting the names treated in this volume. It is primarily intended, of course, to give a knowledge of German men and women of note,—German in this sense including people of German nationality and speech all over the world. A few well-chosen foreign names are included, largely those of people who have made an academic reputation as professional or educational authorities. The present issue contains close to 1,600 pages. Immediately preceding the biographical section proper is a section devoted to the full names, titles, functions, and careers of "the rulers of all the states of the world." The "front matter" also includes bibliographical data and lists and tables of various kinds, all of which add to the usefulness of the volume.

The first French reference book of the "Who's Who" order,—"*Qui Etes-Vous? A Yearbook of Our Contemporaries*,"—has just been brought out by the Paris publishing house of Charles Delagrave. "*Qui Etes-Vous?*" (literally, "Who Are You?") is a smaller volume in size than the others, but contains comparatively as many biographies. In fact, it has done its work more exhaustively than the others since it discusses only Frenchmen. The typographical arrangement is an improvement even over that used by the other "Who's Whos," since the types are so selected as to aid the eye to an immediate discovery of what is most likely to be sought. This is the first issue of the French book and in the preface the editor frankly concedes his indebtedness for the idea to the English "Who's Who." Certain modifications of that idea, he declares, were necessary to adapt the scheme to the use of the French reader. About 5,000 names are included in the 500 pages of "*Qui Etes-Vous?*"

An entirely new and unique venture in the field of reference works is "*Who Is Who in Insurance*" (the Singer Company, New York), which is subtitled "An International Biographical Dictionary and Yearbook." In the foreword the publishers remind us that, in spite of its economic and sociologic importance "insurance has not yet found in literature the treatment to which it has a fair claim." Although insurance as a public business has had a career of more than three centuries and now gives employment

to more than half a million people, "it lacks a historian and a biographer," a lack the present volume aims to supply. It includes 2591 biographical sketches of people in twenty-two countries, beginning, in the alphabetical order, with a brief life of the founder and president of the first Japanese life insurance company in Tokio. The second section of the book consists of a number of essays or compilations giving accounts of the status of the various branches of insurance all over the world in the year 1907. A chronological list of insurance events from the earliest times to the end of the last calendar year, a bibliography of insurance literature, and a digest of insurance legislation in the United States make up the remaining features of this new and well-edited reference book. The volume contains 730 pages.

#### A GREAT MODERN PLAY.

One of the most remarkable dramas ever presented in a modern theater is Charles Rann Kennedy's "*The Servant in the House*," the marked feature of which is an audacious portrayal of Jesus Christ disguised in the character of an Indian butler. This play, the first of a series of seven in which the author declares he will attempt to work out world problems of ethics, resembles strongly one of the miracle plays of the Middle Ages. Mr. Charles Rann Kennedy is an English Socialist who has modeled himself on Ibsen and Sophocles. "*The Servant in the House*" is a more daring play than "*Everyman*" or even the dramatization of "*Pilgrim's Progress*." Even a reading of the "book," which has just come from the press of the Harpers, gives one an impression of dramatic power



CHARLES RANN KENNEDY.

(Author of "*The Servant in the House*," a play which has been startling and fascinating New York theater audiences recently.)



HAVELOCK ELLIS.

(English essayist and review writer, author of "The Soul of Spain.")

and literary finish almost as noteworthy as the reverent, compelling vitality of the theme and action themselves. The story is, briefly, that of three brothers,—one a successful East Indian bishop, one a rising young vicar in an English church, and the third a drunkard and an outcast, by occupation a cleaner of drains. Then there is the vicar's wife, known as "Auntie," and the drunkard's little girl "Mary," whom "Auntie" has adopted, keeping her in ignorance of her father. The action centers around the influence exerted by "Manson," the Indian butler, whose presence subtly affects everybody, and the final denouement shows him to be the great Bishop of Benares and brother of the vicar and drainman. His influence on the household, his dignified self restraint, his exaltation of his subordinate position, and his mysterious words of wisdom, together with the sweet and powerful effect of his bodily presence, all suggest beyond a doubt the presence of "the Son of Man." "Manson's" rebuke to the worldly Bishop of Lancashire, "Dr. Makeshyfte," is fine and powerful. The recognition and reconciliation of the three brothers takes place when "Robert," the outcast, returns from investigating the drain under the church, which turns out to be a grave. Purifying it may cost a man's life, but the outcast determines to sacrifice himself. The vicar insists upon sharing the risk, and at that moment "Manson" announces that he is the Bishop of Benares and (addressing the other two) "your brother." The suggestion of Christ is carried out with reverence and good taste. The whole play has produced a very strong effect upon theater audience and book reader.

#### A STUDY OF MODERN SPAIN.

Seldom if ever, we are persuaded, has there been written a more closely woven, subtle, and fascinating analysis of a national character and type by a writer of another widely different stock than Havlock Ellis' "Soul of Spain" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Mr. Ellis' acquaintance with Spain and the Spanish people extends over a period of more than twenty years, during which time he had unusual opportunities for intimate study of land and people. Just as Russia and her people, he says, "are the connecting link between Europe and Asia, so Spain is the connecting link between Europe and the African continent it was once attached to and still so nearly joins. . . . Spain is a great detached fragment of Africa, and the Spaniard is the first-born child of the ancient white North African, now widely regarded as the parent of the chief and largest element in the population of Europe. This is why the people of Spain are nearer to the aboriginal European racial type than are the people of any other civilized land on the European continent." In sixteen fascinating chapters Mr. Ellis discusses every phase of Spanish life, closing with a chapter on "Spanish Ideals of To-day."

#### STANDARDS OF ENGLISH.

Prof. Thomas R. Lounsbury (English, emeritus, Yale) has brought out from the Harper press "The Standard of Usage in English." Professor Lounsbury is one of the first of living critics of English. The substance of his argument in this book is a denial that the English speech is degenerating through corrupt usage, although corrupt usage is admitted. Professor Lounsbury holds that a spoken language not only does change but ought to change. He sets forth the arguments for and against certain disputed words and phrases in popular usage and makes some helpful suggestions as to how the best standard ought to be determined.

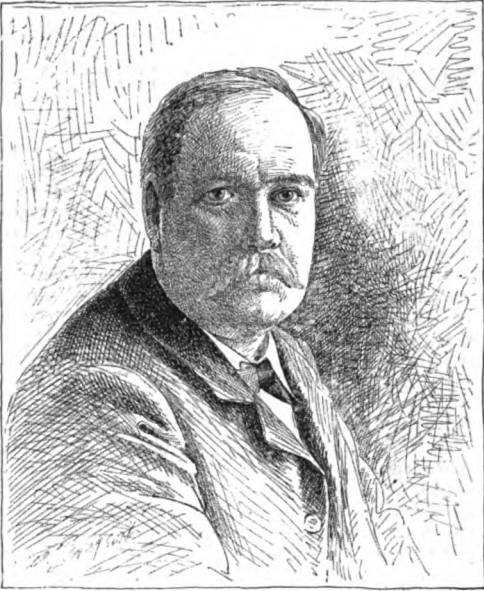
A volume which can be very profitably read at the same time as Professor Lounsbury's book is "Grammar and Its Reasons" (A. S. Barnes & Co.), by Mary Hall Leonard, at one time instructor in English at the Bridgewater (Mass.) Normal School.

#### SCIENCE, PURE AND APPLIED.

Captain Hildebrandt's valuable work on "Airships Past and Present" has been translated from the German by W. H. Story (New York: D. Van Nostrand Company). Captain Hildebrandt is an instructor in the Prussian Balloon Corps and is, of course, familiar with all the latest developments in the application of ballooning to scientific and practical purposes. The author includes in his treatise chapters on the use of balloons in connection with meteorology, photography, and the carrier pigeon. He has himself made eighty ascents, mainly for photographic purposes.

A new theory of the evolution of the universe formulated by the daring Swedish scientist Svante Arrhenius has been made into a book under the title "Worlds in the Making" (Harpers). The author's theory is based on the so-called mechanical radiation pressure of light.

An important volume of the Science series being published by Putnams is "Climate, Considered Especially in Relation to Man," by



DR. SVANTE ARRHENIUS.  
(Author of "Worlds in Making.")

Robert de Courcy Ward, assistant professor of climatology at Harvard. This volume was intended primarily to fill the place of a text-book but contains a great deal of interest to the general reader on climate and its effect upon race distribution. The volume is illustrated.

Another work on a similar subject, highly illustrated and consisting of more minute detail, however, is Prof. Rollin D. Salisbury's "Physiography" (Holt). Professor Salisbury is head of the department of geography in the University of Chicago.

Another volume in the Science series already alluded to, which treats of the science of life as influenced by physical conditions, is "Heredity," by J. Arthur Thomson, regius professor of natural history in the University of Aberdeen and author of other works upon biological science. Professor Thomson has endeavored to expound in a simple manner the facts of heredity and inheritance as at present known, setting forth also the generally accepted conclusions and theories.

Another book in the same field,—paying especial attention to a separate phase, however,—is "The Physical Basis of Civilization" (Forbes & Co.), by T. W. Heinman, which the author calls a revised version of "psychic and economic results of man's physical uprightness."

#### STUDIES IN LITERATURE AND ART.

Mr. Irving Babbitt's "Literature and the American College" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) consists largely of a series of essays which have appeared as magazine articles in the *Atlantic Monthly*. What Mr. Babbitt has tried to show, he himself declares, is "not that our contemporary scholars are lacking in humanistic traits, but that the scholars in whom these traits predominate are few."

Prof. Felix E. Schelling's study of the Elizabethan drama (1558 to 1642) has been brought out in two volumes by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Professor Schelling's eminence as a critic and scholar in the field of English is undisputed. In this work it is his purpose to present a connected and consecutive history of the Tudor and earlier Stuart drama in its relation to the general history of the stage. A generous appendix consisting of bibliography and other lists and indexes adds to the value of the work. Professor Schelling, it will be remembered, holds the chair of English in the University of Pennsylvania.

"Portraits and Portrait Painting" (L. C. Page & Co.), by Estelle M. Hurl, is, the author informs us, a brief survey of portrait painting from the Middle Ages to the present day. It is illustrated by reproductions of the famous portraits of history, with some interestingly put "interpretations."

Another work of art interpretation is J. E. Phythian's "Fifty Years of Modern Painting" (Dutton), with eight illustrations in color and thirty-two in half-tone.

#### REFERENCE HANDBOOKS.

"Corporation Accounting and Corporation Law" (New York: Continental Audit Company) is a useful compilation by J. J. Rahill, a certified public accountant of California. Although the first edition of this work was intended to meet a special demand in the State of California, it has found favor in all parts of the country where it has been introduced and it contains summaries of the corporation laws of all the States and Territories.

"The Earning Power of Railroads," compiled and edited by Floyd W. Mundy (Metropolitan Advertising Company, 6 Wall Street, New York), gives statistics pertaining to the earnings, capitalization, mileage, bonded indebtedness, operating expenses, cost of maintenance, fixed charges, investments and dividends, and so forth, of railroads operating over 100,000 miles of main line, including practically all the railroads in the United States and Canada, for the year 1907.

The seventh volume of Horace J. Stevens' "Copper Handbook" has just been published. This handbook, which we have had occasion to notice and comment on before in these pages, in its present issue contains more than 1200 pages. It is a history of copper, and a scientifically accurate but popularly told account of the geology, chemistry, and mineralogy of the metal precedes the text proper.

Three recent publications on advertising and business methods are "Pushing Your Business" (New York: The Bankers' Publishing Company), a collection of advertising and business maxims by Dr. T. D. MacGregor, of the *Bankers' Magazine*; "Men who Sell Things," by Walter D. Moody (McClurg), being "observations and experiences of over twenty years as traveling salesman, European buyer, sales manager, and employer"; and "Our Children, Our Schools, and Our Industries," by Dr. Andrew S. Draper, New York State Commissioner of Education, published by C. W. Bardeen (Syracuse, N. Y.).

# A REVIEW OF THE SEASON'S FICTION.

## SOME AMERICAN NOVELS OF NOTE.

**M**R. KIPLING must have had such books as W. D. Howells' "Fennel and Rue" (Harper) in mind when he wrote "The Conundrum of the Workshops." "It's clever, but is it art?" is the question that comes to one's lips immediately upon reading it, and then, after a little meditation, he is more inclined to ask: "It's art, but is it clever?" Whatever the answer to these inquiries may be the book stands apart from the rest of the season's output, or, at least, as much of it as deals with American situations, in strange isolation,—an isolation that is both a reward and a penalty.

In the former instance it is not undeserved, and very probably it was not unconsciously achieved by the author. Why he wrote it would make an excellent thesis for another book of similar character and perhaps of equal interest. It is not easy to believe that Mr. Howells has laid aside his proven abilities to accomplish a purely literary gymnastic; on the contrary, the reader is strongly persuaded that he has acted entirely in the interests of literature, with a martyr spirit, conscripting his genius to the service of putting, as it were, a spoke in the wheel of those stylists to whom Henry James is an apostle, claiming homage and emulation. His ease of mood and power of detachment are invaluable for such an engagement of energy, and it is not by any means certain that Mr. Howells ever served the cause of letters more admirably.

As literature, this book bears about the same relation to a novel that George Harvey's model newspaper bears to a successful daily. It lacks life, the essential and catholic human movement that possesses appealing power and interpretative charm. Verrian, the leading character, was a failure not only in his own life, but, inasmuch as he is supposedly human, normal, and subject to the laws that govern human nature, he is not an altogether satisfactory creation. Some of Mr. Howells' readers may wish that he had let his imagination react more decidedly upon his material.

### SOCIOLOGICAL STORIES.

In abrupt transition the socialistic or sociological masqueraders appear, and yet the transition is less complete than might be imagined. Mr. Howells may have failed to reveal life, but he certainly disclosed surpassing literary form. It is only a half step to Jack London's "Iron Heel" (Macmillan), and Upton Sinclair's "The Metropolis" (Moffat, Yard). These two books, if they fail to disclose literary form, are at least believed by many to reveal life. Mr. London's story, however, relates to the future rather than to the present. It is a portrayal of a capitalistic oligarchy beside which the oppressive trusts of our day are as bleating lambs. The events described by Mr. London are supposed to occur between the years 1912 and 1932, but his description is from the viewpoint of seven centuries in the future. Socialism finally breaks the rule of the capitalist oligarch, and after three centuries the

real brotherhood of man is inaugurated on earth. The purpose of Mr. Sinclair's book is to expose the vice and extravagance of the modern New York rich.

Job Taylor outfoots both London and Sinclair, crude and amateurish as his "Broken Links" (C. M. Clark Publishing Company) may be. London's story wears itself out as exhaustingly as if it were the attempt of an astronomer to chart and map each star and planet in the universe, and it offers no constructive program to the Socialist. Taylor restricts himself more modestly than the "swashbuckling buccaneer" and tells a better story, although the narration is obviously an effort of inexperience. There is not sufficient permanency in any incidental phase of modern life and struggle to make it the vehicle of such portraiture as literature has always demanded, and the American novel must deal with something more vital than the passing symptoms of unrest and dissatisfaction.

### THE PSYCHOLOGICAL TREND.

Adventure is less evanescent; its inspiration creates a psychological interest. We Americans are always going somewhere. Our Norse ancestry still persists as an influential strain in the blood, and the love of achievement lingers. Civilization develops both the power and restlessness of initiative, and the call of the blood is so elemental, so profoundly native, that its actions and retroactions, being true disclosures, form a basis of literature. Elizabeth Robins has the great gift of interpretation and the power to dramatize. It is when she swings clear of the too protracted and unsatisfying attempts at detailed character drawing and starts north (see "Come and Find Me," Century) to see and exhibit the magnetism of the Arctic and its reactions that she discloses an intimate relation, the power of the inanimate to call to the animate, and its strength in creating allegiance when the response has been successfully secured. It is a patriotism attaching to the homeland of the soul, or the nature of a man, that she reveals through Galbraith's loyalty to the undeveloped Empire of the Magnetic Needle.

Her story is much more fundamental than London's tales of the north, for instance; much more thoroughgoing; and yet there is an evident lack of homogeneity, an unsatisfying absence of balance, too many untied ends that mar its completeness and leave it roughly unfinished. Rex Beach is a worse offender even than London, although they both grasp at the superficial and symptomatic expressions of the life of Alaska,—what men carry with them and retain there rather than what they become through the agencies at work and the spirit that turned them away from home in the quest of gold. Miss Robins escapes melodrama, the artificial interjection of high notes and high lights, capricious and charitable contributions to strength inadequate to its task, and that is more than can be said of Beach's "The Barrier" (Harpers). Fiction is not designed as a medium for unessential

information, and although Rex Beach holds up the customs and laws of the region as clearly and accurately as if he were writing a blue-book, this really adds nothing to the literary merit of his novel.

Turning south from California instead of to the north, we come upon the scene of "The Foot-print," the first story in Gouverneur Morris' collection of stories under that title published by Scribners. Strange stories they are, with ambitious pretensions and sometimes with ludicrous denouements. Take the second story in the collection for a sample and you find the attempt to picture a man driven insane by the use of opium, made with pitifully scant sketchiness and terminated with ridiculous weakness. There is the same lack of reserved force, the same incapacity for accomplishment, showing itself before the end is reached in the other stories. They break down under their own weight, in striking contrast with Mr. Howells' undiminished strength and evenness of treatment, and the fault is to be attributed to the lack of that ease of mood to which reference has been made, the temperament of the essayist that brings him to his task after he has matured his strength. It is, moreover, the lack of maturity of thought and artistic genius that marks so much of the literature of the day, even the most popular.

We have lost, in the abundance of modern production, the need of reading again and again that which we have read before. The highly seasoned book at hand can be replaced with another, and the reader is apt to read too much to meditate upon what he reads. In consequence of this, those that we have mentioned will make their flashy appeal and inspire others to follow in their wake, for the twentieth-century temperament is none too well endowed with repose to find a delight in true literature, whose perfection lingers in growing charm and appreciation. Yet one must not make an arraignment altogether too sweeping, for there are books in the season's offerings that are not subject to this criticism.

There are good, wholesome stories in a collection entitled "Home from Sea" (Houghton, Mifflin), by George S. Wasson, reprinted for the most part from the *Atlantic Monthly*. The "chanty-men" are individual, true men of the sea, and the tale tingles with personality and charm as the sea's motion and power are pictured. Marie Van Vorst has not risen above the commonplace as effectively, although she has given us a lovable comrade in the hero of "The Sentimental Adventures of Jimmy Bulstrode" (Scribners). Of course, it is more difficult to deal with the subjective than the objective, and few can compass the task successfully. There is more wholesome reading in the books that deal with something lying outside of the author's consciousness, that get away from the temptations to morbid and exaggerated introspections. We find this in the remaining volumes by American authors to be discussed.

#### ROMANCES OF THE HEART.

Ellen Glasgow has painted in a charming Virginia background for "The Ancient Law" (Doubleday, Page). She has silhouetted several characters with extreme cleverness, but, more than this, she has chosen a situation and developed it up to an interesting point with



ELIZABETH ROBINS.

(Author of "Come and Find Me.")

some of Mr. Howells' skill, concluding the story where it is evidently impossible for her to go on. There are very grave defects in her hero's character, defects that are inconsistencies, for whose weakening influence on the story Miss Glasgow alone is responsible. In "The Golden Rose" (Harper) Amélie Rives has given us a charmingly told emotional story portraying an "exquisite woman who is dominated by a mystical belief concerning the relation of lovers which denies, for herself, at least, the fulfilment of love in marriage." "My Lost Duchess" (Century), Jesse Lynch Williams' contribution, is a pleasant and unpretentious story of true love, and Margaret Deland's "R. J.'s Mother and Some Other People" (Harper) is a collection of "tender, beautiful, heart experiences."

Harriet Comstock's story, "Janet of the Dunes" (Little, Brown), is a story of refreshing interest and one that requires a different appreciation. Janet herself is a real creation full of permanent charm, yet the persistent impressions of the story emanate from the two old sea captains whose philosophies of life are ruggedly sane. The author possesses the power of sustained effort. To borrow the language of the sea, she maintains her characters on an even keel, as enduring as the perseverance of the saints, and in this she approaches very close to true literary accomplishment. The self-contained reserve of Janet and her lover wins for them affection; rather more of it perhaps than will be given to Juliet Wilbor Tompkins' heroine in "Dr. Ellen" (Baker & Taylor), and yet





"JANET."

Frontispiece (reduced) from "Janet of the Dunes."

Dr. Ellen wins her own place by the nobility of her character. There is not the same maturity of thought and thorough intelligent treatment, to be sure, in "Dr. Ellen," but there is something thoroughly American that appeals to healthy-minded readers in Gilfillan and Dr. Ellen and Amsden.

#### MARITAL INFELICITIES.

Sticking close to "Fennel and Rue" as the text, one finds six novels dealing with the matter of marriage, which is the end of the situation Mr. Howells has so skillfully designed. Verrian, the indecisive, missed the happiness a more steadfast character would have won, and so reaped the harvest he had sown. The same thing may be said about the characters sketched in Mary Imlay Taylor's "The Reaping" (Little, Brown) and Neith Boyce's "The Bond" (Duffield). There is this similarity between these two: the characters are unusual, and the web woven, in each instance, belongs to a limited element of society. In no way do they represent American life except in its most unwholesome phases. The easy, tempting, Bohemian existence described in them offers both circumstances and influences that, while on the increase, are still far from normal.

The marital relation rested on no secure foundation in either case, and, naturally enough,

without the discipline of character essential to the permanence of such a structure, it fell in "The Reaping," and it was so severely strained in "The Bond" that it could never be restored. True, "The Bond" has another question running through it,—the equality of rights and privileges in marriage,—and in the setting forth of this eternal question it shows a quality that lifts it far above "The Reaping." "Old Wives for New" (Appleton) is another story, one of David Graham Phillips, that belongs in this class. At times its realism is revolting, but there is no character development unless in the case of Sophy's daughter, who tended to follow in her mother's footsteps. It pictures the seamy side of life with an intimacy unworthily bestowed, and, except for the melodramatic heroics, Murdock and Miss Dangerfield are rather well drawn.

Edgar Jepson approaches the subject in a better mood, in the spirit of satire, with "Tangled Wedlock" (McClure). The satire lacks subtlety, and the psychological analysis with which the other writers have added value to their chaff is wanting. It is more of an extravaganza than a satire.

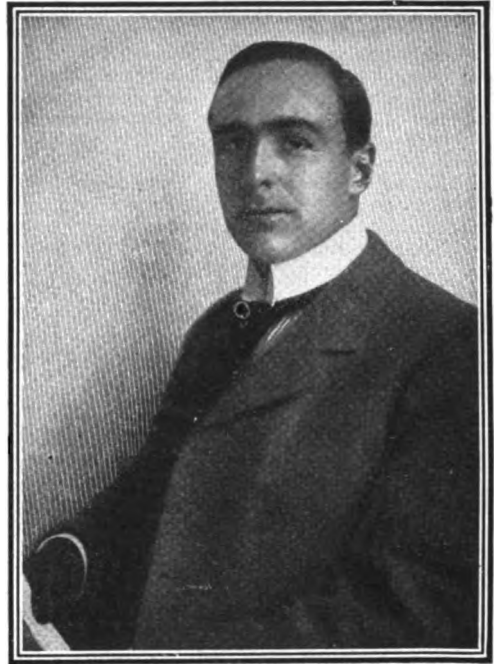


Frontispiece (reduced) from "The Reaping."

It will be admitted that there is a great deal of strength in George Dyer Eldridge's story, "In the Potter's House" (Doubleday, Page). It is a story of passions as they are manifested in a primitive community, but it is revealing, though probably overdrawn. The situation is not impossible, and perhaps there is more of the essence of humanity, both in its weakness and its strength, than in the other members of this group. A little stronger than this is Mary Holland Kincaid's "The Man of Yesterday" (Stokes), a tale of the civilized Indians, full-bloods, half-breeds, and squaw men. Hatto-kowa's application of the ancient Indian law to Arnold Stuart, a white man that deserted his Indian bride, reveals Indian character and morals as objects of respect, if not of emulation, in pleasing contrast to the laxity and lack of self-control prevalent in the part of social life so many writers are now choosing to depict. Margaret Potter is a little late with her story of the hunger for riches, and in fashioning the dramatic setting for it she has added nothing by lugging in the disagreeable episode of an unfaithful lover. The contrast between this incident in "The Golden Ladder" (Harpers) and a similar incident in "The Man of Yesterday" is harsh, and the Indian girl may well be disgusted with her white counterpart.

#### MYSTERY AND POLITICS.

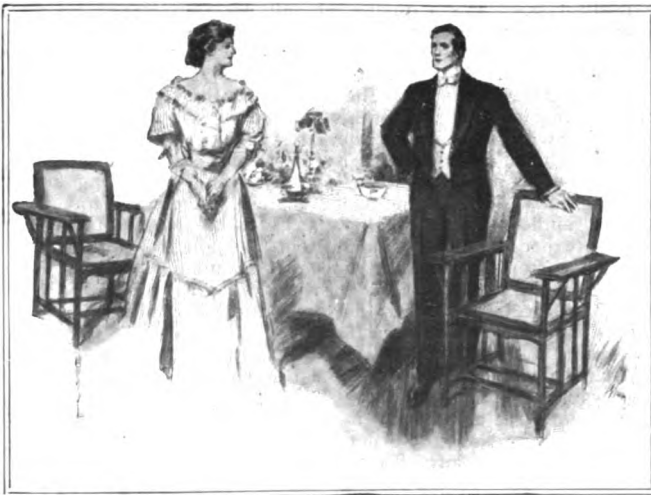
In the very latest group by American authors where we enumerate but three Winston Churchill wins the first place very easily with "Mr. Crewe's Career" (Macmillan). The development of Austen's character is its main theme and followed with far more consistency than Mr. Howells discloses in pursuing Verrian's fortunes. It appeals by its maturity, gained from experience and the moderation produced by contact with life and intimacy of knowledge. A certain real phase of American life is exhibited, and, from many points of view, it is a near approach to the American novel. The novel, which is really a vigorous tract on political conditions in



WINSTON CHURCHILL.

(Whose novel, "Mr. Crewe's Career," appeared last month.)

New Hampshire, tells the life story of a young Hercules of a lawyer, who breaks with his father, the chief counsel for the railroad which absolutely controls the politics of his State. The old gentleman, a highly moral man in his way, has become the head of the corrupt political machine which does the behest of the railroad and practically disfranchises the people. The path of reform chosen by this young lawyer is made even more difficult by his love for the daughter of the president of the offending railroad. She and young Mr. Vane come to an understanding, and the young reformer wins a damage suit against the railroad. His friends then want to run him for Governor. His father and the railroad, however, make his nomination impossible. Mr. Churchill attempts and, to a very large degree, accomplishes a portrayal of the extent to which domination of politics by the railroads has grown. Austen Vane, the leading character, is sketched suggestively as a man who not only could, but who, at the proper time, would, engage himself effectively against the situation. Another writer following the line Holman Day pursues in "King Spruce" (Harper), for instance, would have made Vane conduct a



"Do you know that you are staring at me?" she remarked calmly.  
Illustration (reduced) from "The Great Secret."

more difficult by his love for the daughter of the president of the offending railroad. She and young Mr. Vane come to an understanding, and the young reformer wins a damage suit against the railroad. His friends then want to run him for Governor. His father and the railroad, however, make his nomination impossible. Mr. Churchill attempts and, to a very large degree, accomplishes a portrayal of the extent to which domination of politics by the railroads has grown. Austen Vane, the leading character, is sketched suggestively as a man who not only could, but who, at the proper time, would, engage himself effectively against the situation. Another writer following the line Holman Day pursues in "King Spruce" (Harper), for instance, would have made Vane conduct a

triumphant crusade against the railroads, and the story would have missed the fidelity to life Churchill has given to it. The end of it all is the triumph of the railroads, as usually occurs, and the futility of attacking this domination by methods that can be met by parliamentary tactics and committee burials is very strikingly presented.

We cannot pass E. Phillips Oppenheim's story, "The Great Secret" (Little, Brown), by. Its characters are American citizens interested in the English Socialist movement and a hypothetical German plot to invade England. Mystery

invades the story, of course,—mystery for which there is some justification in the minds of those who look upon the Kaiser with suspicion and the Socialist stampede with alarm. But there is no permanence and vitality in the plot to give it more than an ephemeral existence; consequently it lacks the necessary requisite of enduring literature. As Burton Stevenson deals with the old and real story of love, love that is strong in the face of obstacles, in "That Affair at Elizabeth" (Holt), the blending of romance with mystery will help to fill an idle hour with excitement.

## TALES OF FOREIGN AND IMAGINARY LANDS.

### VARIOUS ADVENTURE.

The most primitive form of story-telling was the narration of a single episode, without embellishment of psychology or philosophy, without didactic purpose or sociologic propaganda, such episode being preferably of a violent, exciting, or, at any rate, lively nature, and thus frequently referring to the chase or some other manifestation of physical prowess. Abel's destruction by Cain involved the display of muscular strength. But if robbery and homicide were favorite topics with the earliest auditors, this was not only because of the element of violence. Throughout all human history every one has wanted to possess something owned by somebody else, whether a bunch of grapes, or a wife, a bonnet or a kingdom; and the further back you go the more strenuous and lawless do you find the methods employed of gaining coveted objects.

Novels known as "historical" have always been devoted to the essentially adventurous, and have had little mental effect but to produce excitement,—a branch of literature, however, graced by the famous titles of "Ivanhoe," "The Three Musketeers," "The Cloister and the Hearth," "Salammbô," "The Lion of Flanders." Not archeological exactness and faithful portraiture of character constitute the indispensable elements to fiction of this class, but descriptive vividness and dramatic sharpness. These two requirements are certainly reached by Miss Marjorie Bowen, who under the McClure imprint contributes to the season's output "The Sword Decides," based on the agitated career of Queen Giovanna of Naples, a piece of work, moreover, showing a degree of sureness and imaginative-ness quite amazing for so young an author. Justin McCarthy, Jr.'s "Seraphica" (Harper), enacted in the picturesque province of Artois during the reign of Louis XV., strikes a less tempestuous key, and is pervaded by maturer feeling, while Mr. Deeping's "Bertrand of Brittany," likewise proceeding from the Harper press, gives full freedom to that extinct spirit of adventure known as "chivalry,"—a combination of unscrupulous rapacity and inhuman ferocity. Du Guesclin, the noted constable of France, figuring in this book, was a contemporary to Queen Giovanna, and took an important place in the annals of his country because of his share in putting a bloody quietus to the Plantagenet pretensions of governing the

French as well as the English people. For a collection of feverishly romantic tales of by-gone days,—when, forsooth, the sword was readier to decide than the brain (perhaps because brains were rarer than swords),—one should go to "Flower of the Orange" (Macmillan), by the Castles, recognized adepts of the "cape and sword" school, and especially authoritative as to the Stuart and Georgian epochs. The somewhat analogous "your-money-or-your-life" type of story is represented by Stephens and Westley's "Clementina's Highwayman" (L. C. Page & Co.).

As one approaches the twentieth century, one observes a tendency to regard deeds of great violence as crimes, and one finds that in a story of present-day life the author will invoke the law against a man who kills or robs another; or the writer will at least express disapproval of such acts. This protest is exemplified in the "detective story," to which class "The Avenger" (Little, Brown), by Mr. Oppenheim, and "The Magistrate's Own Case" (McClure), by Baron Rosenkrantz, both belong. The latter firm now also publishes, besides that veritable "thriller" of S. H. Adams, "The Flying Death," a tale of nautical adventure, "By Wild Waves Tossed." Unsupplied with Captain Marryat's quality of salt, Captain Brand yet lacks not for breeziness; in the course of his yarn,—concerning the naval war with England of 1812,—the United States frigate *Constitution* sails upon the scene. Neither has Frank Bullen lost any of his vivacity or vigor, the American edition of the latest book by this popular fictionist being sold by Dutton & Co.,—his "Call of the Deep," by the way, containing several handsome color plates. Liveliness too, if no higher quality, pervades the pages of Mr. Ferguson's "Zollenstein" (Appleton); but granting its defects, no need to abandon Hope, all ye who enter Mr. Ferguson's imaginary realm, as Zollenstein is the Esperanto for Zenda.

Distinguished from all these tales of adventurous violence by its intellectual substance, G. K. Chesterton's latest volume of brilliant satirical paradox is based on this idea: to make anarchy seem commonplace, conventional, with law and order appearing radical, revolutionary,—a sort of iconoclasm standing on its head. "The Man who was Thursday" was one of an anarchist society, whose members took their names from the days of the week, Syme, a London detective especially bitter against the anarchist

doctrine, through fortuitous circumstances becoming involuntarily enrolled among them, and thus being obliged to connive at a plot for assassinating the French President. Dodd, Mead & Co. issue this ingenious fabric of topsy-turvy, written with all the dexterous play of phrase and wit that might be expected from the author. Maurice Hewlett and Arthur Marchmont write of both the amorous and the adventurous, their latest novels, "The Spanish Jade" and "The



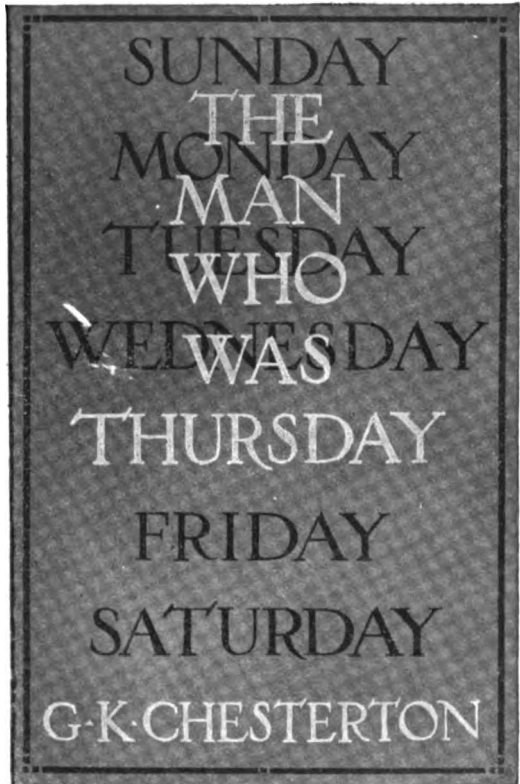
"A HUGE BODY ROSE, ALL ROBED IN LAMBERT LIGHT."

Illustration (reduced) from "The Call of the Deep."

Man Who Was Dead," being just now published by the Stokes and Doubleday, Page firms, respectively.

#### THE BOND OF FAMILY.

In America, the matrimonial *mésalliance* scarcely has a recognized existence, for here young people are popularly supposed to unite simply for the furtherance of their own happiness, without regard to divergence of rank or fortune. Actually, few Americans seek partners outside their own social sphere, and, as elsewhere, some marry for money. Yet it is true that here the weight of a name, the prestige of a race, would count for nothing against the call of the heart. Among the ancient aristocracies of Europe such tragic sacrifices frequently occur, and the genius of Paul Bourget affords present opportunity to consider the case of a young French nobleman, from whom his father demanded the immolation of his heart for the consecration of the family traditions and the preservation of the family estates. Landri de



Cover design (reduced) of Mr. Chesterton's latest book.

Claviers-Grandchamp, the hero of "The Weight of the Name" (Little, Brown), is in fact commanded to wed Marie de Charlus, of whom the vainglorious, prodigal, bankrupt old marquis says to his son: "A hundred thousand francs a year at this moment, of her own, if you please, left her by her uncle Prosný. Later, three hundred thousand more. And such relations! No more *mésalliances* in that family than in ours. One of those superb trees that resemble a noble action continued for 700 years: all the younger sons officers, bishops, or knights of Malta; all the unmarried daughters nuns, abbesses, or prioresses; twenty of the name killed in foreign wars." Withal, Monsieur Bourget sustains his reputation as scientific analyst by exhibiting both the value to a country of a stable territorial aristocracy and at the same time the evils springing from its ways of thought.

Frank Danby, across the Channel, however, takes the position of partisan for the lordling who marries Sally Snape, factory hand, milliner, music-hall dancer, contrary to the wishes of his blue-blooded Belgravian relations. Frank Danby, —in "The Heart of a Child" (Macmillan),— nevertheless displays pronounced psychologic knowledge and executive talent by the portrayal of the lordling as a rather generous, impulsive, and capricious youth, futile, credulous, and stupid, while Sally is depicted, not as the emotional, nervous, dashing, sparkling, erring chorus-girl of popular fancy, but as a much more cool,



FRANK DANBY.

(Author of "The Heart of a Child.")

commonplace, innocent, and uninteresting young person.

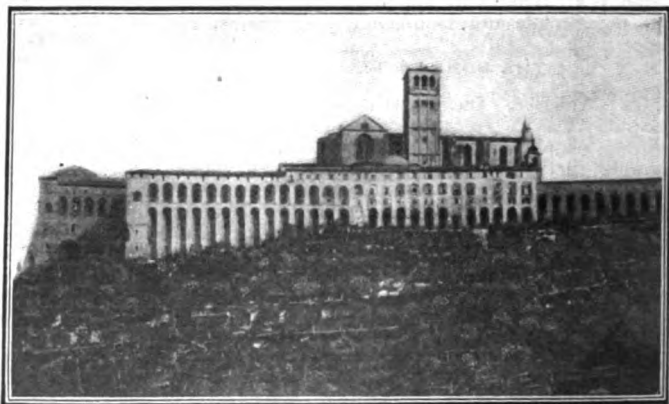
If these two books deal as much with family bondage as with the bond of family, Carl Ewald's "The Old Room" (Scribner) insists sternly on the maintenance of connubial faithfulness, which must be kept pure and unsullied. One wedded, declares the Danish author, has no right to yield to a temptation of relinquishing marital allegiance: "Why should one not be able to control one's heart? Who is it that placed love outside the laws?" The mention of this Scandinavian scribe reminds us that the Macmillans propose a new, complete edition of Björnson's works in the English language; and we feel here constrained to say that in the matter of translation Monsieur Bourget has been maltreated, though "The Old Room" has received an admirable English rendering. Mrs. Dearmer's "The Sisters" (McClure) speaks for the superiority of the permanent, legal tie above soluble connections of a lighter sort.

#### RELIGIOUS QUESTIONS.

As among the individuals composing this community marriages of convenience have never been in vogue, so have church and state always refrained from politic alliance. Thus have those dilemmas not arisen here which in other coun-

tries have forced a choice between loyalty to the civil government and adherence to clerical leadership, dilemmas notably confronting Roman Catholic citizens of France and Italy, and brought to general attention by books like Signor Fogazzaro's, and by a few others of very recent publication. Mere questions of religious doubt, bearing no particular reference to lay affairs, are also treated by some recent writers. Miss Anna Ray, for example, places her scene at Quebec, but through insufficient ability fails to make "Quickened" (Little, Brown) an impressive narration, while M. G. D. Bianchi succeeds better—though none too well,—with "A Modern Prometheus" (Duffield). Selecting the monastery of Assissi for a "local habitation," she develops two concurrent ideas: faith through blind acquiescence and obedience conferring spiritual peace; doubt, accompanied by sturdy resistance, and independence condemning to internal tumult.

A born questioner, Renato Rinaldi,—see "The Soul of a Priest" (Doubleday, Page), by the Duke Litta,—proves that the priesthood is not his right vocation by reading history with an impartial eye in order to decide things for himself,—as though religious creeds were founded, not on emotion, but on argument! His doubts are, however, complicated by the same subject of irritation that underlies the writing of René Bazin's "The Nun" (Scribner), only that René Bazin stands with just as strong a bias for the opposite side. The Duke Litta assails ecclesiastical intriguing with the civil powers, and denounces hierarchical attempts to influence governmental authority; whereas "The Nun" is published for the express purpose of suscitating sympathy for the believers evicted by the French associations' law. This measure inflicted undeserved hardship upon the religious orders, and was quite unjust to such tender, charitable lady ministers of mercy as those whose case is so pathetically presented by Monsieur Bazin; but in the last resort this law was established to settle the constantly pricking question: Is France to be governed by French laymen or by Roman clergymen? Bourget's novel likewise touches on this matter, and most appropriately so, since the ancient nobility,—as might be inferred by our quotation from "The



"THE MONASTERY AT ASSISSI."

Frontispiece (reduced) from "A Modern Prometheus."

Weight of the Name,"—stands by its church. We must add that "The Nun" has been excellently translated.

Father Benson understands better than these authors the meaning of "catholic," and his breadth of view really forms the most striking features of "Lord of the World" (Dodd, Mead), though the reverend and earnest gentleman would perhaps prefer praise of his extravagantly mystical vision ushering in the end of the world after Christ's reincarnation as the last Pope.

A sensational tale of first-century Jerusalem, "The City of Delight," by Elizabeth Miller, comes from the Bobbs-Merrill press.

#### RURAL ENGLAND.

"No wind stirred, and only the foothills of the land thrust forth from the fog-banks that hid the hills. A sluggish, reeking air hung along the woodland ways; and aloft the grassy slopes glimmered gray with wet; the heather sulked; the battered brake-fern lay in water-sodden stretches among the rocks in a seep so rich that the granite shone by contrast. The lofty world of the tors sometimes showed like a shadow through the cloud-cap hanging upon it, then vanished again; the rain fell silently and steadily; the day passed its meridian and swiftly waned. A low orange flame wakened . . . it struck the least stock of stone sharply; it decked the naked thorn tree in a network of jewels; it glittered on the furze, and set the boulders burning."

Unmistakably this is Dartmoor, the wild upland region of South Devonshire, where not only nature but man is rough and fierce, the region again described with Eden Phillpotts' splendid mastery of language in "The Mother of the Man" (Dodd, Mead). One liking peaceful, pleasant stories should avoid Dartmoor, somber resort of strife and tragedy, as declared by John Trevena's characterization of the sparsely scattered inhabitants. We cite from his present tale, "Furze the Cruel" (Moffat, Yard), whose grim, gripping strength exactly fits the place and people: "Tender lilies would not live upon the moor, and it is no use looking for them. They are down in the valleys. Upon the moor there is the granite, the spiny gorse, the rugged heather. It is no use looking for the qualities of the lily in those men who are made of the granite and the gorse and heather." A lighter romance of this country Mrs. de la Pasture supplies in "Deborah of Tod's" (Dutton), with the illusion of the local peasant character and dialect well carried out.

As much cannot be said of Miss Violet Jacob's early nineteenth-century denizens of the hilly tract dividing Breconshire from Herefordshire, whose language tastes both urban and "up to date," though the authoress has some sense for the legendary and mysterious atmosphere of this Welsh borderland, being attracted by "its traditions, homely yet grim, its solitary spaces of mountain, its ancient farms with their dark, sly-looking windows, its half-forgotten chapels,"—see "The History of Aythan Waring" (Dutton). The same publishing house offers "A Walking Gentleman," which relates the adventures of a young aristocrat who through curious circumstances becomes an amateur vagabond,



KENILWORTH.

Illustration (reduced) from "Seeing England with Uncle John."

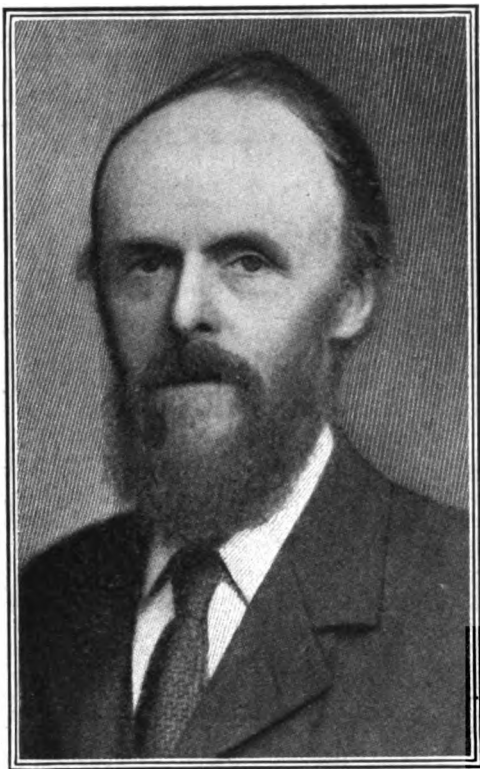
and whose very varied acquaintances and occupations prove no less humorous than numerous. Mr. James Prior indeed possesses an exceptional wealth of juicy humor; he pours forth the wine of mirth that gladdens the heart in liberal measure. Nottinghamshire, once the haunt of reckless, roving Robin Hood, is the scene of Lord Beiley's dilettante vagabondage. Perhaps one should,—and no doubt would, if one could,—also smile while perusing Anne Warner's "Seeing England with Uncle John" (Century).

"Provincial" rather than "rural" England seems applicable to William de Morgan's "Somehow Good" (Holt), for he introduces his personages in a London suburb, and finishes their story at a small seaside town. The plot itself,—concerning the sudden loss and slow restoration of a man's memory,—matters little. But we can think of no living writer more successful at picturing types genuinely English, with their narrow, formal point of view, their stolidity, their fortitude, their integrity, the women as well drawn as the men. Credulously optimistic,—like Dickens,—and without much original thought, Mr. de Morgan, however, charms through the sweetness of his temper and his serene outlook. His culture and scholarship surprise one, yet form proper part of his richly ripened talent of authorship; and though granting his style to be lightly touched by Meredithian eccentricity, one must avow of this man that the distinction belongs to him of having written some real English literature.

#### TROPICAL CLIMES.

China, Morocco, the Cape of Good Hope, and the coast of West Africa,—here is foreign travel distant, plenty, and worth the while. Fortunately, too, those strange parts have enthusiastic and competent representatives among recent authors of fiction, and the temptation to quote extensively from all besets us hard. We, however, reserve detailed consideration to "The Vermilion Pencil" (McClure), by Gen. Homer Lea, because this appears to us the most valuable novel on the subject of China as yet penned in the English language, none existing, besides, that so well combines instruction with entertainment. As for the other three books, they are creditable to Frances Campbell, Alice and Claude Askew, and Harold Bindloss, and they bear the respective titles "A Shepherd of the Stars" (Dutton), "The Plains of Silence" (Cassell), and "For Jacinta" (Stokes).





WILLIAM DE MORGAN.

(Author of "Somehow Good.")

The patience and fatalism of the Chinese, the paternalism of their government, the severity of their laws, some of their national history, and many of their peculiar customs, are set forth in a vivid manner. Nor does the story lack telling descriptive bits, of which one, for example, creates something of the sense of horror that might be experienced from witnessing the devastation done by a South China typhoon. The author's condensed history of the Christian missions to the Middle Kingdom merits notice; and he re-establishes the old complaint that European clergymen often try to interfere with the governmental functions of Chinese laymen. Thus a French bishop impedes the execution of the Viceroy Tai Lin's converted wife, who has been sentenced to death by the ancient laws of the empire because of her confessed infidelity. But we think that none of these pages will earn more discussion than the interesting account of China's secret political societies, with member-

ships running into the millions and affiliations reaching from Siberia to Argentina, wielding incalculable influence and power, working underground, relentless, labyrinthine, slow, and fatal. Selecting one of these societies, the erudite composer of "The Vermilion Pencil,"—a Chinese symbol of authority,—expatiates upon its origin and history, its rules and rites, its morals and purposes, even providing specimens of its very singular "jargon." To sleep is to dry, a dagger is a young lion, a cannon a black dog, and a teacup a lotus bud; to cut off the ears is known as lowering a fair wind, decapitation is translated as washing the face, and a victim picked out for drowning is spoken of as intending to take a bath.



GENERAL HOMER LEA.

(Author of "The Vermilion Pencil.")

(General Lea's uniform in the above picture is that of a lieutenant-general. The gold buttons have the coiled dragon surmounted by three stars. The medal on the side is that of the Poa Wong Whin. The gold star suspended by a crimson ribbon from the neck bears the medallion of the Emperor Kwang Hsu, and these words, "To Homer Lea from Kang Yu Wei." His Excellency Kang Yu Wei was the Emperor's chief adviser at the time of his deposition in 1908.)













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